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HISTORY
OF THE
GREAT REFORMATION

OF THE
SIXTEENTH CENTURY,



IN
GERMANY, SWITZERLAND,

ETC.,

BY

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EVANGÉLIQUE."

NEW YORK.
WILLIAM H. COLYER, No. 5 HAGUE-STREET.
LEWIS & SAMPSON, BOSTON.

1844.

HISTORY

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GREAT REFORMATION

SIXTEENTH CENTURY

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J. H. MERLE DAWSON

WILLIAM H. COLLEGE, CHICAGO STREET

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PREFACE.

THE work I have undertaken is not the history of a party. It is the history of one of the greatest revolutions ever effected in human affairs—the history of a mighty impulse communicated to the world three centuries ago, and of which the operation is still everywhere discernible in our own days. The history of the Reformation is altogether distinct from the history of Protestantism. In the former, all bears the character of a regeneration of human nature, a religious and social transformation, emanating from God himself. In the latter, we see too often a glaring depravation of first principles, the conflict of parties, a sectarian spirit, and the operation of private interests. The history of Protestantism might claim the attention only of Protestants. The history of the Reformation is a book for all Christians, or rather for all mankind.

An historian may choose his portion in the field before him. He may narrate the great events which change the exterior aspect of a nation, or of the world; or he may record that tranquil progression of a nation, of the church, or of mankind, which generally follows mighty changes in social relations. Both these departments of history are of high importance. But the public interest has seemed to turn, by preference, to those periods which, under the name of Revolutions, bring forth a nation, or society at large, for a new era, and to a new career.

Of the last kind is the transformation which, with very feeble powers, I have attempted to describe, in the hope that the beauty of the subject will compensate for my insufficiency. The name of the *revolution* which I here give to it, is, in our days, brought into discredit with many who almost confound it with revolt. But this is to mistake its meaning. A revolution is a change wrought in human affairs. It is a something new which unrolls itself from the bosom of humanity; and the word, previously to the close of the last century, was more frequently understood in a good sense than in a bad one: "a happy—a wonderful Revolution" was the expression. The Reformation, being the re-establishment of the principles of primitive Christianity, was the reverse of a revolt. It was a movement *regenerative* of that which was destined to revive; but *conservative* of that which is to stand forever. Christianity and the Reformation, while they established the great principal of the equality of souls in the sight of God, and overturned the usurpations of a proud priesthood, which assumed to place itself between the Creator and his creature, at the same time laid down as a first element of social order, that there is no power but what is of God—and called on all men to love the brethren, to fear God, to honour the king.

The Reformation is entirely distinguished from the revolutions of antiquity, and from the greater part of those of modern times. In these, the question is one of politics, and the object proposed is the establishment or overthrow of the power of the one or of the many. The love of truth, of holiness, of eternal things, was the simple and powerful spring which gave effect to that which we have to narrate. It is the evidence of a gradual advance in human nature. In truth, if man, instead of seeking only material, temporal, and earthly interests, aims at a higher object, and seeks spiritual and immortal blessings, he advances, he progresses. The Reformation is one of the most memorable days of this progress. It is a pledge that the struggle of our own times will terminate in favour of truth, by a triumph yet more spiritual and glorious.

Christianity and the Reformation are two of the greatest revolutions in history. They were not limited to one nation, like the various political movements which history records, but extended to many nations, and their effects are destined to be felt to the ends of the earth.

Christianity and the Reformation are, indeed, the same revolution, but working at different periods, and in dissimilar circumstances. They differ in secondary features: they are alike in their first lines and leading characteristics. The one is the re-appearance of the other. The former closes the old order of things; the latter begins the new. Between them is the middle age. One is the parent of the other; and if the daughter is, in some respects, inferior, she has, in others, characters altogether peculiar to herself.

The suddenness of its action is one of these characters of the Reformation. The great revolutions which have drawn after them the fall of a monarchy, or an entire change of political system, or launched the human mind in a new career of development, have been slowly and gradually prepared; the power to be displaced has long been mined; and its principal supports have given way. It was even thus at the introduction of Christianity. But the Reformation, at the first glance, seems to offer a different aspect. The Church of Rome is seen, under Leo X., in all its strength and glory. A monk speaks—and in the half of Europe this power and glory suddenly crumble into dust. This revolution reminds us of the words by which the Son of God announces his second advent: "As the lightning cometh forth from the west and shineth unto the east, so shall also the coming of the Son of man be."

This rapidity is inexplicable to those who see in this great event only a reform; who make it simply an act of critical judgment, consisting in a choice of doctrines—the abandoning of some, the preserving others, and combining those retained, so as to make of them a new code of doctrine.

How could an entire people! how could many nations have so rapidly performed so difficult a work? How could such an act of critical judgment kindle the enthusiasm indispensable to great and especially to sudden revolutions? But the Reformation was an event of a very different kind; and this, its history will prove. It was the pouring forth anew of that life which Christianity had brought into the world. It was the triumph of the noblest of doctrines—of that which animates those who receive it with the purest and most powerful enthusiasm—the doctrine of *Faith*—the doctrine of *Grace*—If the Reformation had been what many Catholics and Protestants imagine—if it had been that negative system of a negative reason, which rejects with childish impatience whatever displeases it, and disowns the grand ideas and leading truths of universal Christianity, it would never have overpassed the threshold of an academy, of a cloister, or even of a monk's cell. But it had no sympathy with what is commonly intended by the word Protestantism. Far from having sustained any loss of vital energy, it arose at once like a man full of strength and resolution.

Two considerations will account for the rapidity and extent of this revolution. One of these must be sought in God, the other among men. The impulse was given by an unseen hand of power, and the change which

took place was the work of God. This will be the conclusion arrived at by every one who considers the subject with impartiality and attention, and does not rest in a superficial view. But the historian has a farther office to perform: God acts by second causes. Many circumstances, which have often escaped observation, gradually prepared men for the great transformation of the sixteenth century, so that the human mind was ripe when the hour of its emancipation arrived.

The office of the historian is to combine these two principal elements in the picture he presents. This is what is attempted in the present work. We shall be easily understood, so long as we investigate the secondary causes which contributed to bring about the revolution we have undertaken to describe. Many will, perhaps, be slower of comprehension, and will be inclined even to charge us with superstition, when we shall ascribe to God the accomplishment of the work. And yet that thought is what we particularly cherish. The history takes as its guiding star the simple and pregnant truth that God is in History. But this truth is commonly forgotten, and sometimes disputed. It seems fit, therefore, that we should open our views, and by so doing justify the course we have taken.

In these days, history can no longer be that dead letter of facts to recording which the majority of the earlier historians confined themselves. It is felt that, as in man's nature, so in his history, there are two elements—matter and spirit. Our great writers, unwilling to restrict themselves to the production of a simple recital, which would have been but a barren chronicle, have sought for some principle of life to animate the materials of the past.

Some have borrowed such a principle from the rules of art; they have aimed at the simplicity, truth, and picturesque of description; and have endeavoured to make their narratives *live* by the interest of the events themselves.

Others have sought in philosophy the spirit which should fecundate their labours. With incidents they have intermingled reflections, instructions, political and philosophic truths, and have thus enlivened their recitals with a moral which they have elicited from them, or ideas they have been able to associate with them.

Both these methods are, doubtless, useful, and should be employed within certain limits. But there is another source whence we must above all seek for the ability to enter into the understanding, the mind, and the life of past ages; and this is Religion. History must live by that principle of life which is proper to it, and that life is God. He must be acknowledged and proclaimed in history; and the course of events must be displayed as the annals of the government of a Supreme Disposer.

I have descended into the lists to which the recitals of our historians attracted me. I have there seen the actions of men and of nations developing themselves with power, and encountering in hostile collision; I have heard I know not what clangour of arms; but nowhere has my attention been directed to the majestic aspect of the Judge who presides over the struggle.

And yet there is a principal of movement emanating from God himself, in all the changes among nations. God looks upon that wide stage on which the generations of men successively meet and struggle. He is there, it is true, an invisible God; but if the profane multitude pass before Him without noticing Him, because he is "a God that hideth himself," thoughtful spirits, and such as feel their need of the principle of their being, seek him with the more earnestness, and are not satisfied until they lie prostrate at his feet. And their search is richly rewarded. For, from the heights to which they are obliged to climb to meet their God, the world's history, instead of offering, as to the ignorant crowd, a confused chaos, appears a majestic temple, which the invisible hand of God erects, and which rises to His glory above the rock of humanity.

Shall we not acknowledge the hand of God in those great men, or in those mighty nations which arise—come forth, as it were, from the dust of the earth, and give a new impulse, a new form, or a new destiny to human affairs! Shall we not acknowledge His hand in those heroes who spring up among men at appointed times; who display activity and energy beyond the ordinary limits of human strength; and around whom individuals and nations gather, as if to a superior and mysterious power? Who launched them into the expanse of ages, like comets of vast extent and flaming trains, appearing at long intervals, to scatter among the superstitious tribes of men anticipations of plenty and joy—or of calamities and terror? Who, but God himself? Alexander would seek his own origin in the abodes of the Divinity. And in the most irreligious age there is no eminent glory but is seen in some way or other seeking to connect itself with the idea of divine interposition.

And those revolutions which, in their progress, precipitate dynasties and nations to the dust, those heaps of ruin which we meet with in the sands of the desert, those majestic remains which the field of human history offers to our reflection, do they not testify aloud to the truth that God is in History? Gibbon, seated on the ancient Capitol, and contemplating its noble ruins, acknowledged the intervention of a superior destiny. "He felt its presence; wherever his eye turned it met him; that shadow of a mysterious power reappeared from behind every ruin; and he conceived the project of depicting its operation in the disorganization, the decline, and the corruption of that power of Rome which had enslaved the nations. Shall not that mighty hand which this man of admirable genius, but who had not bowed the knee to Jesus Christ, discerned among the scattered monuments of Romulus and of Marcus Aurelius, the busts of Cicero, and Virgil, Trajan's trophies, and Pompey's horses, be confessed by us as the hand of our God?

But what superior lustre does the truth—that God is in history—acquire under the Christian dispensation? What is Jesus Christ—but God's purpose in the world's history? It was the discovery of Jesus Christ which admitted the greatest of modern historians* to the just comprehension of his subject. "The gospel," says he, "is the fulfilment of all hopes, the perfection of all philosophy, the interpreter of all revolutions, the key to all the seeming contradictions of the physical and moral world, it is life, it is immortality. Since I have known the Saviour, everything is clear; with him, there is nothing I cannot solve."

Thus speaks this distinguished historian; and, in truth, is it not the keystone of the arch—is it not the mysterious bond which holds together the things of the earth, and connects them with those of heaven—that God has appeared in our nature? What! God has been born into this world, and we are asked to think and write, as if He were not everywhere working out his own will in its history? Jesus Christ is the true God of human history; the very lowliness of his appearance may be regarded as one proof of it. If man

* John von Müller.

† Lettre à C. Bonnet

designs a shade or a shelter upon earth, we look to see preparations, materials, scaffolding, and workmen. But God, when he will give shade or shelter, takes the small seed which the new-born infant might clasp in its feeble hand, and deposits it in the bosom of the earth, and from that seed, imperceptible in its beginning, he produces the majestic tree, under whose spreading boughs the families of men may find shelter. To achieve great results by imperceptible means, is the law of the divine dealings.

It is this law which has received its noblest illustration in Jesus Christ. The religion which has now taken possession of the gates of all nations, which at this hour reigns, or hovers over all the tribes of the earth, from east to west, and which even a sceptical philosophy is compelled to acknowledge as the spiritual and social law of this world; that religion, than which there is nothing nobler under the vault of heaven, nay, in the very universe of creation; what was its commencement? . . . A child born in the meanest town of the most despised country of the earth; a child whose mother had not even what falls to the lot of the most indigent and wretched women of our cities—a room to bring forth in—a child born in a stable and placed in an ox's crib. . . . O God! I acknowledge thee there, and I adore thee.

The Reformation recognised the same law of God's operations: and it had the consciousness that it fulfilled it. The thought that God is in history is often put forth by the Reformers. We find it on one occasion in particular, expressed by Luther, under one of those comparisons familiar and grotesque, yet not without a certain sublimity, which he took pleasure in using, that he might be understood by the people. "The world," said he one day, in a conversation with his friend at table, "the world is a vast and grand game of cards, made up of emperors, kings, and princes. The pope, for several centuries, has beaten emperors, princes, and kings. They have been put down and taken up by him. Then came our Lord God; he dealt the cards; he took the most worthless of them all, (Luther,) and with it he has beaten the pope, the conqueror of the kings of the earth. . . . There is the ace of God. 'He has cast down the mighty from their seats, and has exalted them of low degree,' as Mary says."

The age of which I am about to retrace the history is most important for our own generation. Man, when he feels his weakness, is generally inclined to seek assistance in the institutions he sees standing around him, or else in groundless inventions of his imagination. The history of the Reformation shows that nothing new can be wrought with "old things," and that if, according to the Saviour's word, we need new bottles for new wine, we need also new wine for new bottles. The history of the Reformation directs men to God, who orders all events in history; to that divine word, ever ancient in the eternal nature of the truths it contains, ever new in the regenerative influence it exercises—that word which, three centuries ago, purified society, brought back the faith of God to souls enfeebled by superstition, and which, in every age of man's history, is the source whence cometh salvation.

It is singular to observe many persons, impelled by a vague desire to believe in something settled, addressing themselves now-a-days to old Catholicism. In one view, the movement is natural. Religion is so little known (in France) that men scarce think of finding it elsewhere than where they see it inscribed in large letters on a banner that time has made venerable. We do not say that all Catholicism is incapable of affording to man what he stands in need of. We think Catholicism should be carefully distinguished from popery. Popery is, in our judgment, an erroneous and destructive system; but we are far from confounding Catholicism with popery. How many respectable men, how many sincere Christians has not the Catholic Church comprised within its pale! What important services were rendered by Catholicism to the existing European nations, in the age of their first formation, at a period when itself was still richly imbued with the Gospel, and when popery was as yet only seen behind it as a faint shadow! But those times are past. In our day, attempts are made to reconnect Catholicism with popery; and if Catholic and Christian truths are put forward, they are but as baits made use of to draw men into the net of the hierarchy. There is, therefore, nothing to be hoped from that quarter. Has popery renounced so much as one of its observances, of its doctrines, or of its claims! The religion which was insupportable in other ages, will be less so in ours? What regeneration has ever emanated from Rome? Is it from that priestly hierarchy, full, even to overflow, of earthly passions—that that spirit of faith, of charity, of hope can come forth, which alone can save us! Can an exhausted system, which has scarcely strength for its own need, and is everywhere in the struggles of death, living only by external aids, can such a system communicate life, and breathe throughout Christian society the heavenly breath that it requires?

This craving void in the heart and mind which betrays itself in our contemporaries, will lead others to apply to that modern Protestantism which has, in many parts, taken the place of the powerful doctrines of Apostles and Reformers? A notable uncertainty of doctrine prevails in many of those Reformed churches whose first members sealed with their blood the clear and living faith that animated their hearts. Men, distinguished for their information, and, in all other things, susceptible of generous emotions, are found carried away into singular aberrations. A vague faith in the divine authority of the Gospel is the only standard they will maintain. But what is this Gospel! The whole question turns on that; and yet on that they are silent, or else each one speaks after his own mind. What avails it to know that God has placed in the midst of the nations a vessel containing their cure, if we are regardless what it contains, or fail to appropriate its contents to ourselves! This system cannot fill up the void of the times. While the faith of Apostles and Reformers discovers itself, at this day, everywhere active and effectual for the conversion of the world, this vague system does nothing, throws light on nothing, vivifies nothing.

But let us not abandon all hopes. Does not Catholicism confess the great doctrines of Christianity! does it not acknowledge the one God, *Father, Son, and Spirit*—Creator, Saviour, and Sanctifier? And that vague Protestantism—does it not hold in its hand the book of life, for conviction and instruction in righteousness? And how many upright minds, honoured in the sight of men and beloved of God, are there not found among those subjected to these two systems! How can we help loving them! How refrain from ardently desiring their complete emancipation from human elements! Charity is boundless; it embraces the most distant opinions to lead them to the feet of Jesus Christ.

Already there are indications that these two extreme opinions are in motion, and drawing nearer to Jesus Christ, who is the centre of the truth. Are there not already some Roman Catholic congregations among whom the reading of the Bible is recommended and practised? and as to Protestant rationalism, how many

steps has it not already taken toward Jesus Christ? It never was the offspring of the Reformation—for the history of that great change will show that it was an epoch of faith—but may we not be permitted to hope that it is drawing nearer to it? Will not the power of the truth come forth to it from the word of God? and will not its coming have the effect of transforming it? Already we often see in it a feeling of religion, inadequate, no doubt, but yet a movement in the direction of sound learning, encouraging us to look for more definite advances.

But modern Protestantism, like old Catholicism, is, in itself, a thing from which nothing can be hoped—a thing quite powerless. Something very different is necessary, to restore to men of our day the energy that saves. A something is requisite which is not of man, but of God. "Give me," said Archimedes, "a point out of the world, and I will raise the world from its poles." True Christianity is this standing beyond the world, which lifts the heart of man from its double pivot of selfishness and sensuality, and which will one day move the whole world from its evil way, and cause it to turn on a new axis of righteousness and peace.

Whenever religion has been the subject of discussion, there have been three points to which our attention have been directed. God, Man, and the Priest. There can be but three kinds of religion on this earth, God, Man, or the Priest, is its author or its head. I call that the religion of the Priest, which is devised by the priest, for the glory of the priest, and in which a priestly caste is dominant. I apply the name of the religion of Man to those systems and various opinions framed by man's reason, and which, as they are the offspring of his infirmity, are, by consequence, destitute of all sanative efficacy. I apply the words, religion of God, to the Truth, such as God himself has given it, and of which the object and the effect are God's glory and Man's salvation.

Hierarchy, or the religion of the priest; Christianity, or the religion of God; rationalism, or the religion of man; such are the three doctrines which, in our day, divide Christendom. There is no salvation, either for man or society, in hierarchy or in rationalism. Christianity alone can give life to the world; and, unhappily, of the three prevailing systems, it is not that which numbers most followers.

Some, however, it has. Christianity is operating its work of regeneration among many Catholics of Germany, and doubtless also of other countries. It is now accomplishing it with more purity, and power, as we think, among the evangelical Christians of Switzerland, of France, of Great Britain, and of the United States. Blessed be God, such individual or social regenerations, wrought by the Gospel, are no longer in these days prodigies to be sought in ancient annals. We have ourselves witnessed a powerful awakening, begun in the midst of conflicts and trials, in a small republic, whose citizens live happy and tranquil in the bosom of the wonders with which creation surrounded them.* It is but a beginning; and already from the plenteous horn of the Gospel we see come forth among this people a noble, elevated, and courageous profession of the great truths of God; a liberty ample and real, a government full of zeal and intelligence; an affection, elsewhere too rarely found, of magistrates for people, and of the people for their magistrates; a powerful impulse communicated to education and general instruction, which will make of this country an example for imitation; a slow, but certain amelioration in morals; men of talent, *all Christians*, and who rival the first writers of our language. All these riches developed between the dark Jura and the summits of the Alps, on the magnificent shores of Lake Leman, must strike the traveller attracted thither by the wonders of those mountains and valleys, and present to his meditation one of the most eloquent pages which the Providence of God has inscribed in favour of the Gospel of Jesus Christ.

It is the history of the Reformation *in general* that I propose to write. I intend to trace it among different nations—to point out the same effects of the same truths—as well as the diversities which take their origin in the varieties of the national character. But it is in Germany especially that we shall see and describe the history of the Reformation. It is there we find its primitive type—it is there that it offers the fullest development of its organization. It is there that it bears, above all, the marks of a revolution, not confined to one or more nations, but, on the contrary, affecting the world at large. The German Reformation is the true and fundamental Reformation. It is the great planet, and the rest revolve in wider or narrower circles around it, like satellites drawn after it by its movement. And yet the Reformation in SWITZERLAND must, in some respect, be considered as an exception, both because it took place at the very time as that of Germany, and independently of it; and because it bore, especially at a later period, some of those grander features which are seen in the latter. Notwithstanding that recollections of ancestry and of refuge—and the memory of struggle, suffering, and exile, endured in the cause of the Reformation in France—give, in my view, a peculiar charm to the history of its vicissitudes. I nevertheless doubt whether I could place it in the same rank as those which I have here spoken of.

From what I have said, it will be seen that I believe the Reformation to be the work of God. Nevertheless, as its historian, I hope to be impartial. I think I have spoken of the principal Roman Catholic actors in the great drama, Leo X., Albert of Magdeburg, Charles V., and Doctor Eck, &c. more favourably than the majority of historians. And, on the other hand, I have had no wish to conceal the faults and errors of the Reformers.

This history has been drawn from the original sources with which a long residence in Germany, the Low Countries, and Switzerland has made me familiar; as well as from the study, in the original language, of documents relating to the religious history of Great Britain and other countries. Down to this time we possess no history of that remarkable period. Nothing indicated that the deficiency would be supplied when I commenced this work. This circumstance could alone have led me to undertake it; and I here allege it in my justification. The want still exists; and I pray Him from whom cometh down every good gift, to cause that this work may, by his blessing, be made profitable to some who shall read it.

* Canton of Vaud.

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HISTORY OF THE REFORMATION.

BOOK I.

STATE OF EUROPE PRIOR TO THE REFORMATION.

THE world was tottering on its old foundations when Christianity appeared. The various religions which had sufficed for an earlier age, no longer satisfied the nations. The mind of the existing generation could no longer tabernacle in the ancient forms. The gods of the nations had lost their oracles—as the nations had lost their liberty in Rome. Brought face to face in the capitol, they had mutually destroyed the illusion of their divinity. A vast void had ensued in the religious opinions of mankind.

A kind of deism, destitute of spirit and vitality, hovered for a time over the abyss in which had been engulfed the superstitions of heathenism. But, like all negative opinions, it had no power to edify. The narrow prepossessions of the several nations had fallen with the fall of their gods—their various populations melted, the one into the other. In Europe, Asia, Africa, all was but one vast empire, and the human family began to feel its comprehensiveness and its unity. Then the Word was made flesh.

God appeared among men, and as Man, to save that which was lost. In Jesus of Nazareth dwelt all the fulness of the Godhead bodily.

This is the greatest event in the annals of all time. The former ages had been a preparation for it; the latter unroll from it. It is their centre and connecting link.

From this period the popular superstitions had no significance, and such feeble relics of them as outlived the general wreck of incredulity, vanished before the majestic orb of eternal truth.

The son of Man lived thirty-three years on this earth. He suffered, he died, he rose again—he ascended into heaven. His disciples, beginning at Jerusalem, travelled over the Roman Empire and the world, everywhere proclaiming their Master the author of everlasting salvation. From the midst of a people who rejected intercourse with others, proceeded a mercy that invited and embraced all. A great number of Asiatics, of Greeks, of Romans, hitherto led by the priests to the feet of dumb idols, believed at their word. "The Gospel suddenly beamed on the earth like a ray of the sun," says Eusebius. A breath of life moved over this vast field of death. A new, a holy people was formed upon the earth; and the astonished world beheld in the disciples of the despised Galilean, a purity, a self-denial, a charity, a heroism, of which they retained no idea.

The new religion had two features among many others which especially distinguished it from all the human systems which fell before it. One had reference to the ministers of its worship, the other to its doctrines.

The ministers of paganism were almost the gods of those human inventions. The priests led the people, so long at least as their eyes were not opened. A vast and haughty hierarchy oppressed the world. Jesus Christ dethroned these living idols, abolished this proud hierarchy, took from man what man had taken from God, and re-established the soul in direct communication with the divine fountain of truth, by proclaiming himself the only Master and the only Mediator. "One is your master, even Christ, (said he,) and all ye are brethren." Matt. 23.

As to doctrine, human religions had taught that salvation was of man. The religions of the earth had invented an earthly salvation. They had taught men

that heaven would be given to them as a reward; they had fixed its price, and what a price! The religion of God taught that salvation was His gift, and emanated from an amnesty and sovereign grace. God hath given to us eternal life. 1 John 5: 11.

Undoubtedly Christianity cannot be summed up in these two points: but they seem to govern the subject, especially when historically viewed. And as it is impossible to trace the opposition between truth and error in all things, we have selected its most prominent features.

Such were the two principles that composed the religion which then took possession of the empire and of the whole world. The standing of a Christian is in them; and, apart from them, Christianity itself disappears. On their preservation or their loss depended its decline or its growth. One of these principles was to govern the history of the religion, the other its doctrine. They both presided in the beginning. Let us see how they were lost: and let us first trace the fate of the former.

The Church was, in the beginning, a community of brethren. All its members were taught of God; and each possessed the liberty of drawing for himself from the divine fountain of life. John 6: 45. The epistles, which then settled the great questions of doctrine, did not bear the pompous title of any single man or ruler. We find from the Holy Scriptures that they began simply with these words: "The apostles, elders, and brethren, to our brethren." Acts 15: 23.

But the writings of these very apostles forewarn us that from the midst of these brethren there shall arise a power which shall overthrow this simple and primitive order. 2 Thess. 2.

Let us contemplate the formation, and trace the development, of this power alien to the Church.

Paul of Tarsus, one of the chiefest apostles of the new religion, had arrived at Rome, the capital of the empire and of the world, preaching the salvation that cometh from God only. A church was formed beside the throne of the Cæsars. Founded by this same apostle, it was at first composed of converted Jews, Greeks, and some inhabitants of Rome. For a while it shone brightly, as a light set upon a hill, and its faith was everywhere spoken of. But ere long it declined from its first simplicity. The spiritual dominion of Rome arose as its political and military power had done before, and was slowly and gradually extended.

The first pastors or bishops of Rome employed themselves in the beginning in converting to the faith of Christ the towns and villages that surrounded the city. The necessity which the bishops and pastors felt of referring, in cases of difficulty, to an enlightened guide, and the gratitude which they owed to the metropolitan church, led them to maintain an intimate union with her. As is generally the consequence in such circumstances, this reasonable union soon degenerated into dependance. The bishops of Rome regarded as a right the superiority which the neighbouring churches had voluntarily yielded. The encroachments of power form a large portion of all history: the resistance of those whose rights are invaded, forms the other part: and the ecclesiastical power could not escape that intoxication which leads those who are lifted up to seek to raise themselves still higher. It felt all the influence of this general weakness of human nature.

Nevertheless, the supremacy of the Roman bishop was

at first limited* to the overlooking of the churches in the territory lawfully subject to the Prefect of Rome. But the rank which this imperial city held in the world offered to the ambition of its first pastors a prospect of wider sway. The consideration which the different Christian bishops enjoyed in the second century was in proportion to the rank of the city over which they presided. Rome was the greatest, the richest, and the most powerful city in the world. It was the seat of empire, the mother of nations. "All the inhabitants of the earth are hers,"† said Julian, and Claudian declares her to be "the fountain of laws."‡

If Rome be the queen of cities, why should not her pastor be the king of bishops? Why should not the Roman church be the mother of Christendom? Why should not all nations be her children, and her authority be the universal law? It was natural to the heart of man to reason thus. Ambitious Rome did so.

Hence it was that, when heathen Rome fell, she bequeathed to the humble minister of the God of peace, seated in the midst of her own ruins, the proud titles which her invincible sword had won from the nations of the earth.

The bishops of the other parts of the empire, yielding to the charm that Rome had exercised for ages over all nations, followed the example of the Campagna, and aided the work of usurpation. They willingly rendered to the Bishop of Rome something of that honour which was due to this queen of cities: nor was there at first anything of dependance in the honour thus yielded. They acted toward the Roman pastor as equals toward an equal;§ but usurped power swells like the avalanche. Exhortations, at first simply fraternal, soon became commands in the mouth of the Roman pontiff. A chief place among equals appeared to him a throne.

The bishops of the west favoured this encroachment of the Roman pastors, either from jealousy of the eastern bishops, or because they preferred subjection to a pope to the dominion of a temporal power.

On the other hand, the theological sects which distracted the east strove, each for itself, to gain an interest at Rome, hoping to triumph over its opponents by the support of the principal of the western churches.

Rome carefully recorded these requests and intercessions, and smiled to see the nations throw themselves into her arms. She neglected no opportunity of increasing and extending her power. The praises, the flattery, and exaggerated compliments paid to her, and her being consulted by other churches, became in her hands as titles and documents of her authority. Such is the heart of man exalted to a throne; flattery intoxicates him, and his head grows dizzy. What he possesses impels him to aspire after more.

The doctrine of "the Church," and of "the necessity for its visible unity," which had gained footing as early as the third century, favoured the pretensions of Rome. The great bond, which originally bound together the members of the church, was a living faith in the heart, by which all were joined to Christ as their one Head. But various causes were long conspired to originate and develop the idea of a necessity for some exterior fellowship. Men, accustomed to the associations and political forms of an earthly country, carried their views and habits of mind into the spiritual and everlasting kingdom of Jesus Christ. Persecution—powerless to destroy, or even to shake, the new community—com-

pressed it into the form of a more compacted body. To the errors that arose in the schools of deism, or in the various sects, was opposed the truth "one and universal" received from the apostles and preserved in the church. All this was well, so long as the invisible and spiritual church was identical with the visible and outward community. But soon a great distinction appeared: the form and the vital principle parted asunder. The semblance of identical and external organization was gradually substituted in place of the internal and spiritual unity which is the very essence of a religion proceeding from God. Men suffered the precious perfume of faith to escape while they bowed themselves before the empty vase that had held it. Faith in the heart no longer knit together in one the members of the church. Then it was that other ties were sought; and Christians were united by means of bishops, archbishops, popes, mitres, ceremonies, and canons. The Living Church retiring by degrees to the lonely sanctuary of a few solitary souls, an exterior church was substituted in place of it, and installed in all its forms, as of divine institution. Salvation no longer flowing forth from that word which was now hidden; it began to be affirmed that it was conveyed by means of certain invented forms, and that none could obtain it without resorting to such means! No one, it was said, can, by his faith, attain to everlasting life: Christ communicated to the apostles, and the apostles to the bishops, the unction of the Holy Spirit; and this Spirit is found only in this order of communication. In the beginning of the Gospel, whosoever had received the spirit of Jesus Christ, was esteemed a member of the church: now the order was inverted; and no one, unless a member of the church, was counted to have received the spirit of Jesus Christ.

As soon as the notion of a supposed necessity for a visible unity* of the church had taken root, another error began to spread, namely, that it was useful that there should be some outward representative of that unity. Though no trace of any primacy of St. Peter above the rest of the apostles appears in the Gospels; although the idea of a primacy is at variance with the mutual relations of the disciples as "brethren," and even with the spirit of the dispensation which requires all the children of the Father to minister one to another,† 1 Pet. 4: 10, acknowledging but one Master and Head; and though the Lord Jesus had rebuked his disciples whenever their carnal hearts conceived desires of pre-eminence; a primacy of St. Peter was invented, and supported by misinterpreted texts, and men proceeded to acknowledge in that apostle, and in his pretended successor, the visible representative of visible unity—and head of the whole Church!

The constitution of the patriarchate contributed farther to the exaltation of the Roman papacy. As early as the first three centuries, the churches of the metropolitan cities had been held in peculiar honour. The Council of Nice, in its sixth canon, named especially three cities whose churches, according to it, held an anciently-established authority over those of the surrounding provinces. These were Alexandria, Rome, and Antioch. The political origin of this distinction

* † From the previous reflections it is clear that the author does not disparage that unity which is the manifested result of the partaking of the life of the Head by the members; but only that lifeless form of unity which man has devised in place of it. We learn from John 17: 21-23, that the true and real Oneness of BELIEVERS was to be manifested, so that the world might believe that the Father had sent Jesus. Hence we may conclude that the things which divide, instead of gathering, the "little flock" are contrary to his mind: and among such things must be classed, not alone the carnality of names, (1 Cor. 3: 4), but every commandment or requirement of men that excludes the very weakest whom God has received. (Rom. 14: 1-3; Acts 11: 17, compare Acts 2: 44, &c.)—Translator.

* Suburbicaria loca. See the sixth canon of the Council of Nice, cited by Rufinus as follows: Et ut apud Alexandriam et in urbe Roma vetusta consuetudo servetur ut vel ille Egypti vel hic Suburbicarium ecclesiarum sollicitudinem gerat, &c. *Hist. Eccles.*

† Julian Orat. I. ‡ Claud. in Paneg. Stilic., lib. 3. § Euseb. *Hist. Eccles.*, i. 5, c. 24. Socrat. *Hist. Eccles.*, c. 21. Cyprian ep. 69, 72, 76.

may be discerned in the name which was at first given to the bishops of these cities; they were called exarchs, like the political governors.* In later times they bore the more ecclesiastical name of patriarch. It is in the Council of Constantinople that we find this title first used. This same council created a new patriarchate, that of Constantinople itself, the new Rome, the second capital of the empire. Rome at this period shared the rank of patriarchate with these three churches. But when the invasion of Mahomet had swept away the bishoprics of Alexandria and Antioch—when the see of Constantinople fell away, and, in later times, even separated itself from the west, Rome alone remained; and, the circumstances of the times causing everything to rally around her, she remained from that time without a rival.

New and more powerful partisans than all the rest soon came to her assistance. Ignorance and superstition took possession of the church, and delivered it up to Rome, blindfold and manacled.

Yet this bringing into captivity was not effected without a struggle. The voices of particular churches frequently asserted their independence. This courageous remonstrance was especially heard in proconsular Africa and in the east.†

To silence the cries of the churches, Rome found new allies. Princes, who, in those troublesome times, often saw their thrones tottering, offered their adherence to the Church, in exchange for her support. They yielded to her spiritual authority, on condition of her paying them with secular dominion. They left her to deal at will with the *souls* of men, provided only she would deliver them from their enemies. The power of the hierarchy in the ascending scale, and of the imperial power which was declining, leaned thus one toward the other—and so accelerated their twofold destiny.

Rome could not lose by this. An edict of Theodosius II. and of Valentinian III. proclaimed the Bishop of Rome "ruler of the whole Church." Justinian issued a similar decree. These decrees did not contain all that the popes pretended to see in them. But in those times of ignorance it was easy for them to gain reception for that interpretation which was most favourable to themselves. The dominion of the emperors in Italy becoming every day more precarious, the bishops of Rome took advantage of it to withdraw themselves from their dependence.

But already the forests of the north had poured forth the most effectual promoters of papal power. The barbarians who had invaded the west, and settled themselves therein—but recently converted to Christianity, ignorant of the spiritual character of the Church, and feeling the want of an external pomp of religion—prostrated themselves, in a half savage and half heathen state of mind, at the feet of the chief priest of Rome. At the same time the people of the west also submitted to him. First the Vandals, then the Ostrogoths, a short time after the Burgundians and the Alains, then the

Visigoths, and at last the Lombards and the Anglo-Saxons came bowing the knee to the Roman pontiff. It was the sturdy shoulders of the idolatrous children of the north which elevated to the supreme throne of Christendom a pastor of the banks of the Tiber.

These events occurred in the west at the beginning of the seventh century, at the precise period that the Mahometan power arose in the east, and prepared to overrun another division of the earth.

From that time the evil continued increasing. In the eighth century we see the bishops of Rome on the one hand resisting the Greek emperors, their lawful sovereigns, and endeavouring to expel them from Italy; while on the other they court the French mayors of the palace, and demand from this new power, now arising in the west, a share in the wreck of the empire. We see Rome establish her usurped authority between the east, which she repelled, and the west, which she courted; thus erecting her throne upon two revolutions.

Alarmed by the progress of the Arabs, who had made themselves masters of Spain, and boasted that they would speedily traverse the Pyrenees and the Alps, and proclaim the name of Mahomet on the seven hills; terrified at the daring of Aistolpho, who, at the head of his Lombards, threatened to put every Roman to death,* and brandished his sword before the city gates; Rome, in the prospect of ruin, turned on all sides for protection, and threw herself into the arms of the Franks. The usurper Pepin demanded the confirmation of his claim to the throne: the pope granted it; and, in return, obtained his declaration in defence of the "Republic of God." Pepin recovered from the Lombards their conquests from the emperor; but, instead of restoring them to that prince, he deposited the keys of the conquered cities on the altar of St. Peter's; and, with uplifted hand, swore that it was not in the cause of man that he had taken arms, but to obtain from God the remission of his sins, and to do homage for his conquests to St. Peter! Thus did France establish the temporal power of the popes.

Charlemagne appeared. At one time we see him climbing the stairs of St. Peter's, devoutly kissing the steps; again he presents himself, but it is as master of all the nations composing the western empire, and of Rome itself. Leo III. decided to confer the rank on one who already possessed the power; and in the year 800, on Christmas day, he placed the crown of the Roman emperors on the brow of the son of Pepin.† From this period the pope belonged to the empire of the Franks, and his connexion with the east was at an end: thus loosing his hold on a decayed tree, nodding to its fall, in order to graft himself upon a wild, but vigorous, sapling. Little could he then have dared to hope for the elevation that awaited his successors among the German nations to which he thus joined himself.

Charlemagne bequeathed to his feeble successors only the wreck of his own power. In the ninth century disunion everywhere weakened the civil authority. Rome perceived that this was the moment to exalt herself. What better opportunity could offer for achieving the Church's independence of the state than when the crown of Charles was broken, and its fragments scattered over his former empire?

It was then that the pretended decretals of Isidorus appeared. In this collection of alleged decrees of the popes the most ancient bishops, contemporaries of Tacitus and Quintilian, were made to speak the barbarous Latin of the ninth century. The customs and

* Fremens ut leo . . . asserens omnes uno gladio jugulari. (Anastasius, Bibl. Vit. Pontif., p. 83.)

† Visum est et ipsi Apostolico Leoni . . . ut ipsum Carolum imperatorem nominare debuisset, qui ipsam Romanam tenebat ubi semper Cæsares sedere soliti erant et reliquis sedes . . . (Annalista Lambecianus ad an. 801.)

* See the Council of Chalcedon, canons 8 and 18, *ἡ ἐκκλησία τῆς οὐνικῆς*.

† Cyprian, Bishop of Carthage, speaking of Stephen, Bishop of Rome, has these words: *Magis ac magis ejus errorem denotabis qui hereticorum causam contra Christianos et contra Ecclesiam Dei asserere conatur. . . . qui unitatem et veritatem de divina lege venientem non tenens . . . Consuetudo sine veritate vetustas erroris est.* (Ep. 74.) Firmilian, Bishop of Cesarea in Cappadocia, writing in the latter part of the third century, observes: "Eos autem qui Romæ sunt non ea in omnibus observare quæ sunt ab origine tradita et frustra auctoritatem apostolorum præterdere. . . . Caterum nos (the bishops of the churches of Asia, more ancient than the Roman church) veritati et consuetudinem jungimus, et consuetudini Romanorum consuetudinem sed *veritatis* opponimus; ab initio hoc tenentes quod a Christo et ab apostolo traditum est." (Cyp. Ep. 75.) These testimonies are of high importance.

constitutions of the Franks were gravely attributed to the Romans in the time of the emperors. Popes quoted the Bible in the Latin translation of St. Jerome, who lived one, two, or three centuries after them. And Victor, Bishop of Rome in the year 192, wrote to Theophilus, who was Archbishop of Alexandria in 385. The impostor who had fabricated this collection, endeavoured to prove that all bishops derived their authority from the Bishop of Rome, who held his own immediately from Christ. He not only recorded all the successive acquisitions of the pontiffs, but carried them back to the earliest times. The popes did not blush to avail themselves of this contemptible imposture. As early as 865, Nicholas I. selected weapons from this repository to attack princes and bishops.* This barefaced fabrication was for ages the arsenal of Rome.

Nevertheless, the vices and atrocities of the pontiffs were such as suspended for a time the object of the decretals. The papacy signalized its sitting down at the table of kings by shameful libations; and intoxication and madness reigned in its orgies. About this time tradition places upon the papal throne a girl named Joan, who had taken refuge at Rome with her lover, and whose sex was betrayed by the pains of child-birth coming upon her in the midst of a solemn procession. But let us not needlessly exaggerate the shame of the Roman pontiffs. Women of abandoned character reigned at this period in Rome. The throne which affected to exalt itself above the majesty of kings, was sunk in the filth of vice. Theodora and Marozia installed and deposed at their pleasure the pretended teachers of the Church of Christ, and placed on the throne of St. Peter their lovers, their sons, and their grandsons. These too well-authenticated charges may have given rise to the tradition of the female pope, Joan.

Rome was one vast scene of debauchery, wherein the most powerful families in Italy contended for pre-eminence. The counts of Tuscany were generally victorious in these contests. In 1033 this family dared to place upon the pontifical throne, under the name of Benedict IX., a young boy brought up in debauchery. This child, of twelve years of age, continued, when pope, in the practice of the same scandalous vices.† Another party elected in his stead Sylvester III., and Benedict, with a conscience loaded with adulteries and hands stained with homicide, at last sold the papacy to a Roman ecclesiastic.‡

The emperors of Germany, roused to indignation by these enormities, purged Rome with the sword. In 1047 a German bishop, Leo IX., possessed himself of the pontifical throne.

The empire, using its right as suzerain, raised up the triple crown from the mire, and preserved the degraded papacy by giving to it suitable chiefs. In 1046 Henry III. deposed the three rival popes, and, pointing with his finger, on which glittered the ring of the Roman patricians, designated the bishop to whom St. Peter's keys should be confided. Four popes, all Germans, and chosen by the emperor, succeeded. Whenever the Pontiff of Rome died, a deputation from its church repaired to the Imperial court, just as the envoys of other dioceses, to solicit the nomination of a bishop to succeed him. The emperors were not sorry to see the popes reforming abuses—strengthening the influence of the church—holding councils—choosing

and deposing prelates in spite of foreign princes: for in all this the papacy, by its pretensions, did but exalt the power of the reigning emperor, its suzerain lord. But such excesses were full of peril to his authority. The power thus gradually acquired might at any moment be directed against the emperor himself, and the reptile, having gained strength, might turn against the bosom that had warmed it—and this result followed. The papacy arose from its humiliation, and soon trampled under foot the princes of the earth. To exalt the papacy was to exalt the Church, to aggrandize religion, to ensure to the spirit the victory over the flesh, and to God the conquest of the world. Such were its maxims; in these ambition found its advantage and fanaticism its excuse.

The whole of this new policy is personified in one man, HILDEBRAND.

Hildebrand, who has been by turns indiscreetly exalted or unjustly traduced, is the personification of the Roman pontificate in its strength and glory. He is one of those characters in history which include in themselves a new order of things, resembling in this respect Charlemagne, Luther, and Napoleon in different spheres of action.

Leo IX. took notice of this monk as he was going to Cluny, and carried him with him to Rome. From that time Hildebrand was the soul of the papacy, till he himself became pope. He had governed the Church under different pontiffs before he himself reigned under the name of Gregory VII. One grand idea occupied his comprehensive mind. He desired to establish a visible theocracy, of which the pope, as the Vicar of Christ, should be the head. The recollection of the ancient universal dominion of heathen Rome haunted his imagination and animated his zeal. He wished to restore to Papal Rome what Rome had lost under the emperors. "What Marius and Cæsar," said his flatterers, "could not effect by torrents of blood, you have accomplished by a word."

Gregory VII. was not actuated by the spirit of Christ. That spirit of truth, humility, and gentleness was to him unknown. He could sacrifice what he knew to be the truth whenever he judged it necessary to his policy. We may instance the case of Berengarius. But without doubt he was actuated by a spirit far above that of the generality of pontiffs, and by a deep conviction of the justice of his cause. Entering, ambitious, persevering in his designs, he was at the same time skilful and politic in the use of the means of success.

His first task was to remodel the militia of the Church. It was needful to gain strength before attacking the Imperial authority. A council held at Rome removed the pastors from their families, and obliged them to devote themselves undividedly to the hierarchy. The law of celibacy, devised and carried into operation by the popes, (who were themselves monks,) changed the clergy into a monastic order. Gregory VII. claimed to exercise over the whole body of bishops and priests of Christendom a power equal to that possessed by an abbot of Cluny over the order subjected to his rule. The legates of Hildebrand passed through the provinces, depriving the pastors of their lawful partners, and the pope himself, if necessary, excited the populace against the married clergy.*

But Gregory's great aim was to emancipate Rome from subjection to the emperor. Never would he have dared to conceive so ambitious a design, if the discord which disturbed the minority of Henry IV., and

* See Ep. ad Univ. Epi. sc. Gall. (Mansi. XV.)

† "Cujus quidem post adeptum sacerdotium vita quam turpis, quam foeda, quam excreanda exstiterit, horresco referre." (DROGONIUS, Abbot of Cassino, afterward Pope Victor III. de miraculis S. Benedicto, etc. lib. 3, init.)

‡ Theophilus. . . cum post multa adulteria et homicidia manibus suis perpetrata, etc. (Bonizzo, Bishop of Sutri, afterward of Plaisance, liber ad amicum.)

* Hi quocumque prodeunt, clamores insultantium, digitos ostendentium, colaphos pulsantium, perferunt. Alii membris mutilati; alii per longos cruciatus superbe necati, &c. Martene et Durand. Thes. Nov. Anecd. i. 231.

the revolt of the German princes from that young emperor, had not favoured his project. The pope was at this time one of the magnates of the empire. Making common cause with some of the greatest of its vassals, he strengthened himself in the aristocratic interest, and then proceeded to prohibit all ecclesiastics from receiving investiture from the emperor, under pain of excommunication.

He thus snapped asunder the ancient ties which connected the several pastors and their churches with the royal authority—but it was that he might bind them to the pontifical throne. He undertook to restrain, by a powerful hand, priests, princes, and people—and to make the pope a universal monarch. It was Rome *alone* that every priest was to fear—and in her only he was to hope. The kingdoms and principalities of the earth were to be her domain; and kings were to tremble before the thunders of the Jupiter of New Rome. Wo to those who should resist her. Their subjects were released from their oaths of allegiance—their whole country placed under interdict—public worship was to cease—the churches to be closed—the bells mute—the sacrament no longer administered—and the malediction extended even to the dead, to whom, at the command of the proud pontiff, the earth refused the peace and shelter of the tomb.

The pope, whose power had been from the very beginning subordinate—first to the Roman emperors, then to the Frankish princes, and, lastly, to the emperors of Germany—at once freed himself, and assumed the place of an equal, if not of a master. Yet Gregory the VII. was in his turn humbled; Rome was taken, and Hildebrand obliged to flee. He died at Salerno: his last words were, *Dilexi iustitiam et odivi iniquitatem; propterea morior in exilio.** And who will dare to charge with hypocrisy words uttered at the very gates of the tomb.

The successors of Gregory acted like soldiers arriving after a great victory. They threw themselves as conquerors on the unresisting churches. Spain, delivered from the presence of Islamism, and Prussia, reclaimed from idolatry, fell into the embrace of the crowned priest. The crusades, undertaken at his instance, spread far and wide, and everywhere confirmed his authority: the pious pilgrims, who, in imagination, had seen saints and angels conducting their armed hosts, and who, entering humbly and barefooted within the walls of Jerusalem, had burned alive the Jews in their synagogue, and shed the blood of tens of thousands of Saracens on the spots where they came to trace the footsteps of the prince of peace, bore with them to the east the name of the pope, whose existence had been scarcely known there since the period when he exchanged the supremacy of the Greeks for that of the Franks.

Meanwhile that which the arms of the republic and of the empire had failed to effect, was achieved by the power of the Church. The Germans brought to the feet of a bishop the tribute their ancestors had refused to the mightiest generals; and their princes thought they received from the popes their crown, while, in reality, the popes imposed upon them a yoke. The kingdoms of Christendom, already subject to the spiritual empire of Rome, became her serfs and tributaries.

Thus everything was changed in the Church.

At the beginning it was a society of brethren, and now an absolute monarchy is reared in the midst of them. All Christians were priests of the living God, (1 Pet. 2: 9.) with humble pastors for their guidance. But a lofty head is uplifted from the midst of these pastors; a mysterious voice utters words full of pride;

* I have loved righteousness and hated iniquity—therefore I die an exile.

an iron hand compels all men, small and great, rich and poor, freemen and slaves, to take the mark of its power. The holy and primitive equality of souls before God is lost sight of. Christians are divided into two strangely unequal camps. On the one side a separate class of priests daring to usurp the name of the Church, and claiming to be possessed of peculiar privileges in the sight of the Lord. On the other, timid flocks reduced to a blind and passive submission; a people gagged and silenced, and delivered over to a proud caste. Every tribe, language, and nation of Christendom submitted to the dominion of this spiritual king, who had received power to overcome.

But side by side with that principle that should have pervaded the history of Christianity, was a principle that was given to preside over its doctrine. This was the great principle of Christianity; its leading idea that of grace, of pardon, and amnesty, and of the gift of eternal life. This idea supposed an alienation from God, and an inability in man to enter, by any power of his own, into communion with an infinitely holy Being. The opposition of true and false doctrine cannot assuredly be entirely summed up in the question of salvation by faith or by works. Nevertheless, it is the most striking feature in the contrast. We may go farther; Salvation considered as derived from any power in man, is the germinating principle of all errors and perversions. The scandals produced by this fundamental error brought on the Reformation; and the profession of the contrary principle was the means by which it was achieved. It is, therefore, indispensable that this truth should be prominent in an introduction to the history of that Reformation.

Salvation by Grace. Such, then, was the second peculiarity which was designed especially to distinguish the religion that came from God from all human systems. And what had become of this great and primordial thought? Had the Church preserved it as a precious deposit? Let us follow its history.

The inhabitants of Jerusalem, of Asia, of Greece, and of Rome, in the time of the Roman emperors, had heard this gospel. **YE ARE SAVED BY GRACE, THROUGH FAITH: IT IS THE GIFT OF GOD;** (Eph. 2: 8;) and at this voice of peace, at the sound of these good tidings, at this word of power, multitudes of sinners believed, and were attracted to Him who alone can give peace to the conscience; and numerous *societies of believers* were formed in the midst of the degenerate communities of that age.

But ere long an important error began to prevail, as to the nature of Saving Faith. Faith (according to St. Paul) is the way through which the whole being of the believer—his understanding, his heart, and his will—enters upon present possession of the salvation purchased by the incarnation and death of the Son of God. Jesus Christ is apprehended by Faith, and from that hour becomes all things to, and all things in, the believer. He communicates to the human nature a divine life; and the believer, renewed and set free from the power of self and of sin, feels new affections and bears new fruits. Faith, says the theologian, labouring to express these thoughts, is the subjective appropriation of the objective Work of Christ. If Faith is not the appropriation of Salvation, it is nothing; the whole economy of Christian doctrine is out of place, the fountains of the new life are sealed, and Christianity is overturned from its foundation.

And this consequence did, in fact, ensue. By degrees this practical view of Faith was forgotten, and ere long it was regarded, as it still is by many, as a bare act of the understanding, a mere submission to a commanding evidence.

From this primary error a second necessarily result-

ed. When Faith was robbed of its practical character, it could no longer be maintained that Faith *alone* saved. Works no longer following in their places as its fruits, it seemed necessary to range them on one line with it; and the Church was taught to believe that the sinner is justified by FAITH and by WORKS. In place of that Christian unity in doctrine, which comprises in a single principle Justification and Works—Grace and a rule of life—belief and responsibility succeeded that melancholy quality which regards religion and moral duties as things altogether unconnected; a fatal delusion, which brings in death by separating the body from the spirit, whose continued union is the necessary condition of life itself. The word of the apostle heard across the interval of ages is, "Having begun in the spirit, are ye now made perfect by the flesh."

Another error contributed to unsettle the doctrine of Grace. This was Pelagianism. Pelagius asserted that man's nature was not fallen; that there is no such thing as hereditary evil; and that man, having received power to do good, has only to will, in order to perform it.* If the doing "good things" consists in certain external acts, Pelagius judged truly. But if regard is had to the motives whence these external acts proceed, or to the entire inward life of man, (See Matt. 12: 34,) then we discern in all his works selfishness—forgetfulness of God, pollution, and weakness. This was the doctrine of St. Augustine. He proved that, to entitle any action to approval, it was needful not merely that it should seem right when looked at by itself and from the outside, but above all that its real spring in the soul should be holy. The Pelagian doctrine rejected by St. Augustine from the church when it presented itself broadly for investigation, reappeared ere long with a side aspect as semi-Pelagian, and under forms of expression borrowed from St. Augustine's own writings. It was in vain that eminent Father opposed its progress. He died soon after. The error spread with amazing rapidity throughout Christendom—passing from the west to the east; and even at this day it continues to disturb and harass the Church. The danger of the doctrine appeared in this; that, by placing goodness in the external act, rather than in the inward affections, it led men to put a high value upon outward action, legal observances, and works of penance. The more of such works, the greater the reputed sanctity—heaven was to be obtained by means of them; and (extravagant as such a thought must appear to us) it was not long before certain persons were believed to have made attainments in holiness beyond that which was required of them.

Thus did the proud heart of man refuse to give the glory to that God to whom all glory belongs. Thus did man claim to deserve what God had decreed to give freely! He essayed to find in himself the salvation which the Gospel brought to him ready wrought out from heaven. He spread a veil over the saving truths of salvation which cometh from God, and not from man—a salvation which God gives, but barters not; and from that day all the other truths of religion were overclouded: darkness spread over the Church, and from this deep and deplorable gloom were seen to arise innumerable errors.

And, in the first place, we may observe that both great divisions of error converged to one effect. Pelagianism, while it corrupted the Church's teaching, strengthened the hierarchy: by the same influence by which it hid the doctrine of grace, it exalted the authority of the Church—for *grace* was God's part in the work as *the Church* was man's!

As soon as salvation was taken out of the hands of

God, it fell into the hands of the priests. The latter put themselves in the place of the Lord; and the souls of men thirsting for pardon, were no longer taught to look to heaven, but to the Church, and especially to its pretended Head. The Roman pontiff was in the place of God to the blinded minds of men. Hence all the grandeur and authority of the popes, and hence also unutterable abuses.

Doubtless the doctrine of salvation by Faith was not entirely lost to the Church. We meet with it in some of the most celebrated fathers, after the time of Constantine; and in the middle ages. The doctrine was not formally denied. Councils and popes did not hurl their bulls and decrees against it; but they set up beside it a something which nullified it. Salvation by Faith was received by many learned men, by many a humble and simple mind; but the multitude had something very different. Men had invented a complete system of forgiveness. The multitude flocked to it and joined with it, rather than with the Grace of Christ; and thus the system of man's devising prevailed over that of God. Let us examine some of the phases of this deplorable change.

In the time of Vespasian and his sons, he who had been the most intimate companion of the despised Galilean, one of the sons of Zebedee, had said: "If we confess our sins, God is *faithful* and *just* to forgive our sins."

About 120 years later, under Commodus and Septimius Severus, Tertullian, an illustrious pastor of Carthage, speaking of pardon, already held a very different language. "It is necessary (said he) to change our dress and food; we must put on sackcloth and ashes; we must renounce all comfort and adorning of the body, and, falling down before the priest, implore the intercession of the brethren."* Behold man turned aside from God, and turned back upon himself.

Works of penance, thus substituted for the salvation of God, multiplied in the Church from the time of Tertullian to the thirteenth century. Men were enjoined to fast, to go bareheaded, to wear no linen, &c., or required to leave home and country for distant lands; or else to renounce the world, and embrace a monastic life.

In the eleventh century were added voluntary flagellations; a little after they became an absolute mania in Italy, which was then in a very disturbed state. Nobles and peasants, old and young, even children of five years old, went in pairs through the villages, the towns, and the cities, by hundreds, thousands, and tens of thousands, without any other covering than a cloth tied round the middle, and visiting the churches in procession in the very depth of winter. Armed with scourges, they lashed themselves without pity, and the streets resounded with cries and groans, which drew forth tears of compassion from all who heard them.

And yet long before the evil had arrived at this height, men sighed for deliverance from the tyranny of the priests. The priests themselves were sensible that if they did not devise some remedy, their usurped power would be at an end. Then it was that they invented the system of barter, known by the name of indulgences. It is under John, surnamed the *Faster*, Archbishop of Constantinople, that we see its first commencement. The priests said, "Oh, penitents, you are unable to perform the penances we have imposed upon you. Well, then, we, the priests of God, and your pastors, will take upon ourselves this heavy burden. Who can better fast than we? Who better kneel and recite psalms than ourselves?" But the labourer is worthy of his hire. "For a seven weeks' fast, (said Regino, Abbot of Prüm,) such as are rich shall pay twenty pence; those who are less wealthy, ten pence; and the

* Velle et esse ad hominem referenda sunt, quia de arbitrii fonte descendunt. (Pelag. in Aug. de Gratia Dei, cap. iv.)

* Tertull. de Penit.

poor, three pence; and in the same proportion for other things."* Some courageous voices were raised against this traffic, but in vain.

The pope soon discovered what advantages he might derive from these indulgences. His want of money continued to increase. Here was an easy resource, which, under the appearance of a voluntary contribution, would replenish his coffers. It seemed desirable to establish so lucrative a discovery on a solid footing. The chief men of Rome exerted themselves for this purpose. The irrefragable doctor, Alexander de Hales, invented, in the thirteenth century, a doctrine well suited to secure this mighty resource to the papacy. A bull of Clement VII. declared the new doctrine an article of the Faith. The most sacred truths were made to subserve this persevering policy of Rome. Christ, it was affirmed, has done much more than was required for reconciling God and man. One single drop of his blood would have sufficed for that; but he shed his blood abundantly, that he might form for his church a *treasury* that eternity itself should never exhaust. The supererogatory merits of the saints, the reward of the works they had done, beyond and additional to the obligations of duty, have still farther enriched this treasury. Its guardianship and distribution are confided to the Vicar of Christ upon earth. He applies to every sinner, for sins committed after baptism, these merits of Christ and of his saints, in the measure and degree that his sins have made necessary. Who would dare to attack a custom of so high and holy an origin.

Rapidly was this almost inconceivable invention reduced to a system. The scale imposed ten, twenty years of penance for such and such kinds of sin. "It is not merely for each kind of sin, but for each sinful action, that this penance of so many years is demanded," exclaimed the mercenary priests. Behold mankind bowed down under the weight of a penance that seemed almost eternal.

"But for what purpose this long penance, when life is so short—when can it take effect? How can man secure the time requisite for its performance? You are imposing on him centuries of severe discipline. When death comes he will but laugh at you—for death will discharge him from his burthen. Ah, welcome death!" But this objection was provided against. The philosophers of Alexandria had spoken of a fire in which men were to be purified. Some ancient doctors in the church had received the notion. Rome declared this philosophic tenet the doctrine of the church; and the pope, by a bull, added *purgatory* to his domain. He declared that man would have to expiate in purgatory all he could not expiate on earth; but that indulgences would deliver men's souls from that intermediate state in which their sins would otherwise hold them. Thomas Aquinas set forth this new doctrine in his celebrated *Summa*. Nothing was left undone to fill the mind with terror. Man is, by nature, inclined to fear an unknown futurity, and the dark abodes beyond the grave; but that fear was artfully excited and increased by horrible descriptions of the torments of this purifying fire. We see at this day, in many Catholic countries, paintings exposed in the temples, or in the crossways, wherein poor souls, engulfed in flames, invoke alleviation for their miseries. Who could refuse the money that, dropped into the treasury of Rome, redeemed the soul from such horrible torments?

But a farther means of increasing this traffic was now discovered. Hitherto it had been the sins of the living that had been turned to profit; they now began to avail themselves of the sins of the dead. In the thirteenth century it was declared that the living might, by making certain sacrifices, shorten, or even terminate,

* *Libri duo de ecclesiasticis disciplinis.*

the torments their ancestors and friends were enduring in purgatory. Instantly the compassionate hearts of the faithful offered new treasures for the priests.

To regulate this traffic, they invented shortly after, probably in the pontificate of John XXII., the celebrated and scandalous tax of indulgences, of which more than forty editions are extant: a mind of the least delicacy would be shocked at the repetition of the horrors therein contained. Incest was to cost, if not detected, five groschen; if known, or flagrant, six. A certain price was affixed to the crime of murder, another to infanticide, adultery, perjury, burglary, &c. Oh, shame to Rome! exclaims Claudius of Espersa, a Roman divine; and we may add, Oh, shame to human nature! For no reproach can attach to Rome which does not recoil with equal force on mankind in general. Rome is human nature exalted, and displaying some of its worst propensities. We say this in truth as well as in justice.

Boniface VIII., the boldest and most ambitious of the popes, after Gregory VII., effected still more than his predecessors had done.

He published a bull in 1300, by which he declared to the church that all who should at that time or thenceforth make the pilgrimage to Rome, which should take place every hundred years, should there receive a plenary indulgence. Upon this, multitudes flocked from Italy, Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, France, Spain, Germany, Hungary, and other quarters. Old men, of sixty and seventy, set out on the pilgrimage; and it was computed that 200,000 visited Rome in one month. All these foreigners brought with them rich offerings, and the pope and the Romans saw their coffers replenished.

The avarice of the pontiffs soon fixed this jubilee at intervals of fifty years, afterward at thirty-three years, and at last at twenty-five. Then, for the greater convenience of the purchasers, and to increase the profits of the venders, they transferred both the jubilee and its indulgences from Rome to the market-places of all the nations of Christendom. It was no longer necessary to abandon one's home: what others had been obliged to seek beyond the Alps, each might now obtain at his own door.

The evil was at its height—and then the Reformer arose.

We have seen what had become of the principle which was designed to govern the history of Christianity; we have also seen what became of that which should have pervaded its doctrine. Both were now lost.

To set up a single caste as mediators between God and man, and to barter in exchange for works, and penances, and gold, the salvation freely given by God; such was popery.

To open wide to all, through Jesus Christ, and without any earthly mediator, and without that power that called itself the Church, free access to the gift of God, *eternal life*; such was Christianity, and such was the Reformation.

Popery may be compared to a high wall, erected by the labour of ages, between man and God. Whoever will scale it must pay or suffer in the attempt; and even then he will fail to overleap it.

The Reformation is the power which has thrown down this wall, has restored Christ to man, and has thus made plain the way of access to the Creator.

Popery interposes the Church between God and man. Christianity and the Reformation bring God and man face to face.

Popery separates man from God: the Gospel reunites them.

After having thus traced the history of the decline and loss of the two grand principles which were to dis-

tinguish the religion of God from systems of man's devising, let us see what were the consequences of this immense change.

But first let us do honour to the church of that middle period, which intervened between the age of the apostles and the Reformers. The church was still the church, although fallen and more and more enslaved. In a word, she was at all times the most powerful friend of man. Her hands, though manacled, still dispensed blessings. Many eminent servants of Christ diffused, during these ages, a beneficent light; and in the humble convent, the sequestered parish, there were found poor monks and poor priests to alleviate bitter sufferings. The church *catholic* was not the papacy. This filled the place of the oppressor; that of the oppressed. The Reformation, which declared war against the one, came to liberate the other. And it must be acknowledged that the papacy itself was at times, in the hands of Him who brings good out of evil, a necessary counterpoise to the ambition and tyranny of princes.

Let us now contemplate the condition of Christianity at that time.

Theology and religion were then widely different. The doctrine of the learned, and the practice of priests, monks, and people, presented two very different aspects. They had, however, great influence upon each other, and the Reformation had to deal with both. Let us examine them, and take a survey first of the schools, or theology.

Theology was still under the influence of the middle ages. The middle ages had awoke from their long trance, and had produced many learned men. But their learning had been directed neither to the interpretation of the Holy Scriptures nor to the examination of the history of the Church. Scriptural exposition, and the study of history, the two great sources of theological knowledge, still slumbered.

A new science had usurped their place. It was the science of Dialectics. The art of reasoning became the fruitful mine of a new theology. The middle ages had discovered the long-lost writings of Aristotle. Their knowledge of him was derived either from old Latin versions, or from translations from the Arabic. The resuscitated Aristotle appeared in the west as a giant, subjecting the minds, and even the consciences, of men. His philosophic method added strength to the disposition for dialectics which marked the age. It was a method well suited to subtle researches and trivial distinctions. The very obscurity of the translations of the Greek philosopher favoured the dialectic subtlety which had captivated the west. The Church, alarmed at its progress, for a while opposed this new tendency. She feared that this taste for discussion might engender heresies. But the dialectic philosophy proved to be easily compounded with; monks employed it against heretics, and thenceforward its victory was secure.

It was the characteristic of this method of teaching, to suggest numerous questions on every branch of theology, and then to decide them by a solution. Often these inquiries turned upon the most useless matters. It was asked whether all animals had been enclosed in Noah's ark; and whether a dead man could say mass,* &c. But we should be wrong to form our judgment of the scholastic divines from such examples only. On the contrary, we must often acknowledge the depth and extent of their inquiries.

Some among them made a distinction between theological and philosophical truth, affirming that a proposition might be theologically true, and philosophically false. In this way it was hoped to reconcile incredulity with a cold and dead adherence to the forms of the Church. But there were others, and Thomas

Aquinas at their head, who maintained that the doctrine of revelation was in no respect at variance with an enlightened reason; and that even as Christian charity does not annihilate the natural affections, but chastens, sanctifies, ennobles, and governs them, so Faith does not destroy Philosophy, but may make use of it by sanctifying and illuminating it with its own light.

The doctrine of the Trinity opened a wide field for the dialectic method of the theologians. By dint of distinctions and disputes, they fell into contrary errors. Some distinguished the three Persons so as to make of them three Gods. This was the error of Rocelin of Compeigne and his followers. Others confounded the Persons so as to leave only an ideal distinction. This was the case with Gilbert of Poitiers and his adherents. But the orthodox doctrine was ably maintained by others.

The dialectic subtlety of the times was not less directed to the article of the Divine Will. How are we to reconcile the will of God with his almighty power and holiness? The scholastic divines found in this question numerous difficulties, and laboured to remove them by dialectic distinctions. "We cannot say that God wills the existence of *evil*," said Peter the Lombard, "but neither can we say that He wills that evil should not exist."

The majority of these theologians sought to weaken, by their dialectic labours, the doctrine of Predestination which they found in the church. Alexander de Hales availed himself for this purpose of the following distinction of Aristotle; that every action supposes two parties, namely, an agent, and the thing subjected to the action. Divine Predestination, said he, acts doubtless for man's salvation; but it is requisite that it find in the soul of man a capacity for the reception of this grace. Without this second party the first cannot effect anything; and Predestination consists in this, that God, knowing by his prescience those in whom this second requisite will be found, has appointed to give them his grace.

As to the original condition of man, these theologians distinguished natural gifts and free gifts. The first they held to consist in the primitive purity and strength of the human soul. The second were the gifts of God's grace, that the soul might accomplish good works. But here, again, the learned were divided; some contended that man had originally possessed only natural gifts, and had, by his use of them, to merit those of grace. But Thomas Aquinas, who was generally on the side of sound doctrine, affirmed that the gifts of grace had, from the beginning, been closely united with the gifts of nature, because the first man was perfect in his moral health. The fall, said the former, who leaned toward Free-will, has deprived man of the gifts of grace, but it has not entirely stripped him of the primitive strength of his nature; for the least sanctification would have been impossible, if there had been no longer with him any moral strength. While, on the other side, the stricter theologians thought that the Fall had not only deprived man of grace, but corrupted his nature.

All acknowledged the work of Reconciliation wrought out by Christ's sufferings and death. But some maintained that redemption could have been effected in no other way than by the expiatory satisfaction of the death of Jesus Christ, while others laboured to prove that God had simply attached redemption and grace to this price. Others, again, and among these last we may particularize Abelard, made the saving efficacy of redemption to consist merely in its fitness to awaken in man's heart a confidence and love toward God.

The doctrines of Sanctification or of Grace discovers to us, in fresh abundance, the dialectic subtlety of these

* Hottinger Hist. Eccles. V.

divines. All of them, accepting the distinction of Aristotle already mentioned, laid down the necessity of the existence in man of a *materia disposita*, a something disposed to the reception of grace. But Thomas Aquinas ascribes this disposition to grace itself. Grace, said they, was *formative* for man before the fall; now, that there is in him something to extirpate, it is grace *reformativa*. And a farther distinction was laid down between grace given gratuitously, *gratia gratis data*, and grace that makes acceptable, *gratia gratum faciens*; with many other similar distinctions.

The doctrine of penance and indulgence, which we have already exhibited, crowned the whole of this system, and ruined whatever good it might contain. Peter the Lombard had been the first to distinguish three sorts of penitence; that of the heart, or compunction; that of the lips, or confession; that of works, or satisfaction by outward action. He distinguished, indeed, absolution in the sight of God from absolution before the church. He even affirmed that inward repentance sufficed to obtain the pardon of sins. But he found a way back into the error of the church through another channel. He allowed that, for sins committed after baptism, it was necessary either to endure the fires of purgatory, or to submit to the ecclesiastic penance; excepting only the sinner whose inward repentance and remorse should be so great as to obviate the necessity of farther sufferings. He proceeds to propose questions which, with all his skill in dialectics, he is embarrassed to resolve. If two men, equal in their spiritual condition, but one poor and the other rich, die the same day, the one having no other succours than the ordinary prayers of the church, while for the other many masses can be said and many works of charity can be done, what will be the event? The scholastic divine turns on all sides for an answer, and concludes by saying, that they will have the like fate, but not by the like causes. The rich man's deliverance from purgatory will not be more perfect, but it will be earlier.

We have given a few sketches of the sort of theology which reigned in the schools at the period of the Reformation. Distinctions, ideas, sometimes just, sometimes false, but still mere notions. The Christian doctrine had lost that odour of heaven, that force and practical vitality which came from God, and which had characterized it as it existed in the apostolic age: and these were destined again to come to it from above.

Meanwhile the learning of the schools was pure when compared with the actual condition of the Church. The theology of the learned might be said to flourish, if contrasted with the religion, the morals, the instructions of the priests, monks, and people. If science stood in need of a revival, the Church was in still greater need of a Reformation.

The people of Christendom, and under that designation almost all the nations of Europe might be comprised, no longer looked to a living and holy God for the free gift of eternal life. They, therefore, naturally had recourse to all the devices of a superstitious, fearful, and alarmed imagination. Heaven was peopled with saints and mediators, whose office it was to solicit God's mercy. All lands were filled with the works of piety, of mortification, of penance and observances, by which it was to be procured. Take the description of the state of religion at this period, given by one who was for a long while a monk, and in after-life a fellow-labourer with Luther—Myconius.

"The sufferings and merits of Christ were looked upon (says he) as an empty tale, or as the fictions of Homer. There was no longer any thought of that faith by which we are made partakers of the Saviour's righteousness, and the inheritance of eternal life.

Christ was regarded as a stern judge, prepared to condemn all who should not have recourse to the intercession of saints or to the pope's indulgences. Other intercessors were substituted in his stead; first, the Virgin Mary, like the heathen Diana; and then the saints, whose numbers were continually augmented by the popes. These intercessors refused their mediation, unless the party was in good repute with the monastic orders which they had founded. To be so, it was necessary not only to do what God had commanded in his word, but also to perform a number of works invented by the monks and the priests, and which brought them in large sums of money. Such were Ave Marias, the prayers of St. Ursula, and of St. Bridget. It was necessary to chant and cry day and night. There were as many different pilgrimages as there were mountains, forests, and valleys. But with money these penances might be compounded for. The people, therefore, brought to the convents and to the priests money, and everything they possessed that was of any value—fowls, ducks, eggs, wax, straw, butter, and cheese. Then the chantings resounded, the bells rang, the odour of incense filled the sanctuary, the sacrifices were offered up, the tables groaned, the glasses circulated, and these pious orgies were terminated by masses. The bishops no longer appeared in the pulpits, but they consecrated priests, monks, churches, chapels, images, books, and burial-places, and all these brought a large revenue. Bones, arms, feet were preserved in boxes of silver or gold; they gave them to the faithful to kiss during mass, and this increased their gains.

"All maintained that the pope, being in the place of God, (2 Thess. 2: 4.) could not err; and there were none to contradict them."

At the church of All Saints, at Wittemberg, was shown a fragment of Noah's ark; some soot from the furnace of the three children; a piece of wood from the crib of the infant Jesus; some hair of the beard of the great St. Christopher; and nineteen thousand other relics, more or less precious. At Schaffhausen was shown the breath of St. Joseph, that Nicodemus received on his glove. In Würtemberg might be seen a seller of indulgences disposing of his merchandise with his head adorned with a feather plucked from the wing of the Archangel Michael.† But there was no need to seek so far for these precious treasures. Those who farmed the relics overran the country. They bore them about in the rural districts, (as has since been done with the Holy Scriptures;) and carried them into the houses of the faithful, to spare them the cost and trouble of the pilgrimage. They were exhibited with pomp in the churches. These wandering hawkers paid a certain sum to the proprietors of the relics, with a per centage on their profits. The kingdom of heaven had disappeared, and men had opened in its place on earth a market of abominations.

At the same time a profane spirit had invaded religion, and the most solemn recollections of the church; the seasons which seemed most to summon the faithful to devout reflection and love, were dishonoured by buffoonery and profanations altogether heathenish. The *Humours* of Easter held a large place in the annals of the church. The festival of the Resurrection claiming to be joyfully commemorated, preachers went out of their way to put into their sermons whatever might excite the laughter of the people. One preacher imitated the cuckoo; another hissed like a goose; one dragged to the altar a layman dressed in a monk's cowl; a second related the grossest indecencies; a third re-

* Myconius' History of the Reformation; and Seckendorf's Hist. of Lutheranism.

† Müller Reliquien, vol. iii., p. 23.

counted the tricks of the Apostle St. Peter—among others, how, at an inn, he cheated the host, by not paying his reckoning.* The lower orders of the clergy followed the example, and turned their superiors into ridicule. The very temples were converted into a stage and the priests into mountebanks.

If this was the state of religion, what must have been the morals of the age?

Doubtless the corruption was not universal. Justice requires that this should not be forgotten. The Reformation elicited many shining instances of piety, righteousness, and strength of mind. The spontaneous power of God was the cause; but how can we doubt that by the same power the germs of this new life had been deposited long before in the bosom of the church. If, in these our days, any one were to collect the immoralities and degrading vices that are committed in any single country, such a mass of corruption would doubtless be enough to shock every mind. But the evil, at the period we speak of, bore a character and universality that it has not borne at any subsequent date; and above all, the abomination stood in the holy places, which it has not been permitted to do since the Reformation.

Moral conduct had declined with the life of faith. The tidings of the gift of eternal life is the power of God to regenerate men. Once take away the salvation which is God's gift, and you take away sanctification and good works: and this was the result.

The proclamation and sale of indulgences powerfully stimulated an ignorant people to immorality. It is true that, according to the Church, they could benefit those only who made and kept a promise of amendment. But what could be expected from a doctrine invented with a view to the profit to be gained from it? The venders of indulgences were naturally tempted to farther the sale of their merchandise by presenting them to the people under the most attractive and seducing aspect; even the better instructed did not fully comprehend the doctrine in respect to them. All that the multitude saw in them was a permission to sin; and the sellers were in no haste to remove an impression so favourable to the sale.

What disorders, what crimes, in these ages of darkness, in which impunity was acquired by money! What might not be feared when a small contribution to the building of a church was supposed to deliver from the punishments of a future world! What hope of revival when the communication between God and man was at an end; and man, afar off from God, who is spirit and life—moved only in a circle of pitiful ceremonies and gross practices—in an atmosphere of death.

The priests were the first who felt the effects of this corrupting influence. Desiring to exalt themselves, they had sunk themselves lower. Infatuated men! They aimed to rob God of a ray of his glory, and to place it on their own brows; but their attempt had failed, and they had received only a leaven of corruption from the power of evil. The annals of the age swarm with scandals. In many places the people were well pleased that the priest should have a woman in keeping, that their wives might be safe from his seductions.† What scenes of humiliation were witnessed in the house of the pastor. The wretched man supported the mother and her children, with the tithe and the offering;‡ his conscience was troubled; he blushed, in presence of his people, of his servants, and before God. The mother, fearing to come to want when the priest should die, provided against it beforehand, and robbed the house. Her character was gone: her children

were a living accusation of her. Treated on all sides with contempt, they plunged into brawls and debaucheries. Such was the family of the priest. These horrid scenes were a kind of instruction that the people were ready enough to follow.*

The rural districts were the scene of numerous excesses. The abodes of the clergy were frequently the resorts of the dissolute. Cornelius Adrian, at Bruges,† the Abbot Trinkler, at Cappel,‡ imitated the customs of the east, and had their harems. Priests, consorted with abandoned characters, frequented the taverns, played dice, and finished their orgies by quarrels and blasphemy.§

The council of Schaffhausen prohibited the clergy from dancing in public, except at weddings; from carrying two kinds of weapons; and decreed that a priest who should be found in a house of ill fame, should be stripped of his ecclesiastical habit.|| In the archbishopric of Mentz they scaled the walls in the night, committed disturbances and disorders of all kinds in the inns and taverns, and broke open doors and locks.¶ In several places the priest paid to the bishop a regular tax for the woman with whom he lived, and for every child he had by her. A German bishop who was present at a grand entertainment, publicly declared that in one year eleven thousand priests had presented themselves to him for that purpose. It is Erasmus who records this.**

The higher orders of the hierarchy were equally corrupt. Dignitaries of the church preferred the tumult of camps to the service of the altar. To be able, lance in hand, to compel his neighbours to do him homage, was one of the most conspicuous qualifications of a bishop. Baldwin, Archbishop of Treves, was constantly at war with his neighbours and vassals; raising their castles, building fortresses of his own, and thinking only how to enlarge his territory. A certain bishop of Eichstadt, when dispensing justice, wore under his habit a coat of mail, and held in his hand a long sword. He used to say he did not fear five Bavarians, provided they would not attack him in the open field.†† Everywhere the bishops were engaged in constant war with the towns; the citizens demanding freedom, and the bishops requiring implicit obedience. If the latter triumphed, they punished the revolters by sacrificing numerous victims to their vengeance; but the flame of insurrection broke out again at the very moment when it was thought to be extinguished.

And what a spectacle was presented by the pontifical throne in the generation immediately preceding the Reformation! Rome, it must be acknowledged, has seldom been witness to so much infamy.

Rodrigo Borgia, after living in illicit intercourse with a Roman lady, had continued a similar connexion with one of her daughters, by name Raso Vanozza, by whom he had had five children. He was living at Rome with Vanozza and other abandoned women—as cardinal and archbishop, visiting the churches and hospitals—when the death of Innocent VIII. created a vacancy in the pontifical chair. He succeeded in obtaining it by bribing each of the cardinals at a stipulated price. Four mules, laden with silver, were publicly driven into the palace of Sforza, the most influential of the cardinals. Borgia became pope under the name of

* Fiisslin Beyträge. ii., 224.

† Metern. Nederl. Hist. viii.

‡ Hottinger, Hist. Eccles. ix., 305.

§ Mandement de Hugo, évêque de Constance, Mar. 3, 1617.

|| Müller's Reliq. iii., 251.

¶ Steubing Gesch. der Nass. Oran. Lande.

** Un anno ad se delata undecim millia sacerdotum palam concubinariorum. Erasmi Op. tom. ix., p. 401. [This citation has been verified—yet there seems to be some mistake in these figures.—Tv.]

†† Schmidt Gesch. der Deutschen. tom. iv.

* Écolamp. de risu paschali.

† Nicol. De Clemangis de præsulib. simoniaci.

‡ The words of Seb. Stor, pastor of Lichtstall in 1624.

Alexander VI., and rejoiced in the attainment of the pinnacle of pleasures.

The very day of his coronation he created his son Cæsar, a ferocious and dissolute youth, Archbishop of Valencia and Bishop of Pampeluna. He next proceeded to celebrate in the Vatican the nuptials of his daughter Lucrezia, by festivities, at which his mistress, Julia Bella, was present, and which were enlivened by farces and indecent songs. "Most of the ecclesiastics," says an historian,* "had their mistresses, and all the convents of the capital were houses of ill fame." Cæsar Borgia espoused the cause of the Guelphs, and when, by their assistance, he had annihilated the power of the Ghibelines, he turned upon the Guelphs and crushed them in their turn. But he would allow none to share in the spoils of his atrocities. In the year 1497 Alexander conferred upon his eldest son the duchy of Benevento. The duke suddenly disappeared. That night a faggot-dealer on the banks of the Tiber saw some persons throw a corpse into the river; but he said nothing of it, for such things were common. The duke's body was found. His brother Cæsar had been the instigator of the murder.† He did not stop there. His brother-in-law stood in the way of his ambition. One day Cæsar caused him to be stabbed on the stair-case of the pope's palace, and he was carried, covered with blood, to his own apartments. His wife and sister never left him. Dreading lest Cæsar should employ poison, they were accustomed to prepare his meals with their own hands. Alexander placed guards before his door; but Cæsar ridiculed these precautions, and on one occasion, when the pope visited him, dropped the remark, "What cannot be done at dinner may be at supper." Accordingly, he one day gained admittance to the chamber of the wounded man, turned out his wife and sister, and, calling Michilotto, the executioner of his horrors, and the only man in whom he placed any confidence, commanded him to strangle his victim before his eyes. Alexander had a favourite named Peroto, whose preferment offended the young duke. Cæsar rushed upon him; Peroto sought refuge under the papal mantle, clasping the pontiff in his arms; Cæsar stabbed him, and the blood of the victim spirted in the pontiff's face. "The pope," adds a contemporary and witness of these atrocities, "loves the duke, his son, and lives in great fear of him." Cæsar was one of the handsomest and most powerful men of his age. Six wild bulls fell beneath his hand in single combat. Nightly assassinations took place in the streets of Rome. Poison often destroyed those whom the dagger could not reach. Every one feared to move or breathe, lest he should be the next victim. Cæsar Borgia was the hero of crime. The spot on earth where all iniquity met and overflowed, was the pontiff's seat. When man has given himself over to the power of evil, the higher his pretensions before God, the lower he is seen to sink in the depths of hell. The dissolute entertainments given by the pope, and his son Cæsar and his daughter Lucrezia, are such as can neither be described nor thought of. The most impure groves of ancient worship saw not the like. Historians have accused Alexander and Lucrezia of incest, but the charge is not sufficiently established. The pope, in order to rid himself of a wealthy cardinal, had prepared poison in a small box of sweetmeats, which was to be placed on the table after a sumptuous feast: the cardinal, receiving a hint of the design, gained over the attendant, and the poisoned box was placed before Alexander. He ate of it, and

perished. The whole city came together, and could hardly satiate themselves with the sight of this dead viper.*

Such was the man who filled the pontifical throne at the commencement of the age of the Reformation.

Thus the clergy had disgraced religion and themselves. Well might a powerful voice exclaim, "The ecclesiastic order is opposed to God and to his glory. The people well know it; and it is but too evident, from the many songs, proverbs, and jests on the priests, current among the common people, as also from the figures of monks and priests scrawled on the walls, and even on the playing cards, that every one has a feeling of disgust at the sight or name of a priest." It is Luther who thus speaks.†

The evil had spread through all ranks: a spirit of delusion had been sent among men; the corruption of morals corresponded to the corruption of the faith; the mystery of iniquity weighed down the enslaved Church of Christ.

Another consequence necessarily ensued from the neglect into which the fundamental doctrine of the Gospel had fallen. From the darkness of the understanding resulted the corruption of the heart. The priests having taken into their own hands the dispensing a salvation which belonged only to God, had thereby secured a sufficient hold on the respect of the people. What need had they to study sacred learning? It was no longer their office to explain the Scriptures, but to grant letters of indulgence; and, for the fulfilling of that ministry, it was unnecessary to have acquired any great learning.

In country parts, says Wimpheling, they appointed as preachers poor wretches whom they had taken from beggary, and who had been cooks, musicians, huntsmen, stable-boys, and even worse.‡

The superior clergy themselves were sunk in great ignorance. A bishop of Dunfeldt congratulated himself on never having learned Greek or Hebrew. The monks asserted that all heresies arose from these languages, but especially from the Greek. "The New Testament," said one of them, "is a book full of serpents and thorns. Greek," continued he, "is a modern language, but recently invented, and against which we must be upon our guard. As to Hebrew, my dear brethren, it is certain that whoever studies that immediately becomes a Jew." Heresbach, a friend of Erasmus, and a respectable writer, reports these very words. Thomas Linacer, a learned and celebrated divine, had never read the New Testament. Drawing near his end, (in 1524,) he called for it, but quickly threw it from him with an oath, because his eye had caught the words, "But I say unto you, Swear not at all." "Either this is not the Gospel," said he, "or we are not Christians." Even the school of theology in Paris did not scruple to declare before the parliament, "There is an end of religion, if the study of Hebrew and Greek is permitted."§

If here and there among the clergy some learning existed, it was not in sacred literature. The Ciceronians of Italy affected a great contempt for the Bible, on account of its style: men who arrogated to themselves the title of priests of Christ's Church, translated the words of the Holy Ghost into the style of Virgil and of Horace, to accommodate them to the ears of men of taste. The Cardinal Bembo wrote always, instead of the *Holy Spirit*, "the breath of the celestial zephyr," for remission of sins he substituted the "city of the Manes and of the Gods;" and, instead of

* Infessura.

† A mazzo il fratello ducha di Gandia e lo fa butar nel Tevere.
(M. S. C. of Capello, ambassador at Rome in 1600—extracted by Ranke.)

* Gordon, Tommasi, Infessura, Guicciardini, Eccard, &c.

† Letter to the Cardinal Elector of Mentz, 1525.

‡ Apologia pro Rep. Christ.

§ Müller's Reliq. tom. 3, p. 263.

Christ the Son of God, "Minerva sprung from the brows of Jupiter." Finding one day the respectable Sadoletus employed on a translation of the Epistle to the Romans, "Leave these childish productions," said he; "such puerilities do not become a sensible man."*

Behold some of the consequences of the system that then weighed down Christendom. This picture no doubt exhibits in strong colours both the corruption of the Church and the need of reformation. It is for that reason we have sketched it. The vital doctrines of Christianity had almost disappeared, and with them the life and light which constitute the essence of true religion. The internal strength of the Church was gone, and its lifeless and exhausted frame lay stretched over the Roman world.

Who shall give it new life? Whence shall we look for a remedy for so many evils?

For ages a reformation in the church has been loudly called for, and all the powers of this world had attempted it. But God alone could bring it to pass: and he began by humbling the power of man, that he might exhibit man's helplessness. We see human assailants, one after another, fail and break to pieces at the feet of the Colossus they undertook to cast down.

First temporal princes resisted Rome. The whole power of the Hohenstaufens, heroes who wore the imperial crown, seemed directed to humble and reform Rome, and deliver the nations, and especially Germany, from her tyranny. But the Castle of Canossa gave proof of the weakness of the imperial power against the usurped dominion of the Church. A warlike prince, the emperor Henry IV., after a long and fruitless struggle against Rome, was reduced to pass three days and nights in the trenches of that Italian fortress, exposed to the winter's cold, stripped of his imperial robes, barefoot, in a scanty woollen garment, imploring with tears and cries the pity of Hildebrand, before whom he knelt, and who, after three nights of lamentation, relaxed his papal inflexibility, and pardoned the suppliant.† Behold the power of the high and mighty of the earth, of kings and emperors against Rome!

To them succeeded adversaries perhaps more formidable—men of genius and learning. Learning awoke in Italy, and its awakening was with an energetic protest against the papacy. Dante, the father of Italian poetry, boldly placed in his *Hell* the most powerful of the popes; he introduced St. Peter in heaven pronouncing stern and crushing censures on his unworthy successors, and drew horrible descriptions of the monks and clergy. Petrarch, that eminent genius, of a mind so superior to all the emperors and popes of his time, boldly called for the re-establishment of the primitive order of the Church. For this purpose he invoked the efforts of the age and the power of the emperor, Charles IV. Laurentius Valla, one of the most learned men of Italy, attacked with spirit the pretensions of the popes, and their asserted inheritance from Constantine. A legion of poets, learned men, and philosophers followed in their track; the torch of learning was everywhere kindled, and threatened to reduce to ashes the Romish scaffolding that intercepted its beams. But every effort failed: Pope Leo X. en-

listed among the supporters and satellites of his court, literature, poetry, science, and arts; and these came humbly kissing the feet of a power that in their boasted infancy they had attempted to dethrone. Behold the power of letters and philosophy against Rome!

At last an agency which promised more ability to reform the church came forward. This was the Church itself. At the call for reformation, reiterated on all sides, and which had been heard for ages past, that most imposing of ecclesiastical conclaves, the Council of Constance, assembled. An immense number of cardinals, archbishops, bishops, eighteen hundred doctors of divinity, and priests; the emperor himself, with a retinue of a thousand persons; the Elector of Saxony, the Elector Palatine, the Duke of Bavaria and Austria, and ambassadors from all nations, gave to this assembly an air of authority unprecedented in the history of Christianity. Above the rest, we must mention the illustrious and immortal doctors of the University of Paris, the Aillys, the Gersons, the Clemangnis—those men of piety, learning, and courage who, by their writings and eloquence, communicated to the council an energetic and salutary direction. Everything bowed before this assembly; with one hand it deposed three popes at once, while with the other it delivered John Huss to the flames. A commission was named, composed of deputies from different nations, to propose a fundamental reform. The Emperor Sigismund supported the proposition with the whole weight of his power. The council were unanimous. The cardinals all took an oath that he among them who should be elected pope would not dissolve the assembly, nor leave Constance before the desired reformation should be accomplished. Colonna was chosen under the name of Martin V. The moment was come which was to decide the reform of the Church; all the prelates, the emperor, the princes, and the representatives of different nations, awaited the result with intense desire. "*The council is at an end*," exclaimed Martin V., as soon as he had placed the tiara on his brow. Sigismund and the clergy uttered a cry of surprise, indignation, and grief; but that cry was lost upon the winds. On the 16th of May, 1418, the pope, arrayed in the pontifical garments, mounted a mule richly caparisoned; the emperor was on his right hand, the Elector of Brandenburg on his left, each holding the reigns of his palfrey; four counts supported over the pope's head a magnificent canopy; several princes surrounded him bearing the trappings; and a mounted train of forty thousand persons, says an historian, composed of nobles, knights, and clergy of all ranks, joined in the solemn procession outside the walls of Constance. Then indeed did ROME, in the person of her pontiff sitting on a mule, inwardly deride the superstition that surrounded her; then did she give proof that, to humble her, a power must be exerted far different from anything that could be put in motion by emperors, or kings, or bishops, or doctors of divinity, or all the learning of the age and of the church.

How could the Reformation proceed from the very thing to be reformed? How could the wound find in itself the element of its cure?

Nevertheless the means employed to reform the Church, and which the result showed to be inefficacious, contributed to weaken the obstacles, and prepared the ground for the Reformers.

The evils which then afflicted Christendom, namely, superstition, incredulity, ignorance, unprofitable speculation, and corruption of morals—evils naturally engendered in the hearts of men—were not new on the earth. They had made a great figure in the history of nations. They had invaded, especially in the east, different religious systems which had seen their times

* Falleri Monum. ined. p. 400.

† Pope Hildebrand himself relates the event in these words: "Tandem rex ad oppidum Canusii, in quo morati sumus, cum paucis adventi, ibique per triduum ante portam, deposito omni regio cultu miserabiliter utpote discalceatus et lanis inductus, persistens, non prius cum multo fletu apostolicæ miserationis auxilium et consolationem implorare destitit quam omnes qui ibi aderant ad tantam pietatem et compassionis misericordiam movit ut, pro eo multis precibus et lacrymis intercedentes, omnes quidem insolitam nostræ mentis duritiam mirarentur, nonnulli vero non apostolicæ severitatis gravitatem sed quasi tyrannicæ feritatis crudelitatem esse clamarent." (Lib. iv., ep. 19, ad Germanos.)

of glory. Those enervated systems had sunk under these evils, and not one of them had ever arisen from its fall.

And was Christianity now to undergo the same destiny? Was it to be lost like those old religions of the nations? Was the blow that had doomed them to death, to be of power to destroy it? Was there nothing to secure its preservation? And these opposing forces which overflowed it, and which had already dethroned so many various systems of worship, were they indeed to have power to seat themselves, without resistance, on the ruins of the Church of Jesus Christ?

No: there is in Christianity that which there was not in any of these national systems. It does not, like them, offer certain general ideas, mixed with tradition and fables, destined, sooner or later, to fall before the march of human reason; but it contains within it pure truth, built upon facts which challenge the scrutiny of any upright and enlightened mind. Christianity has for its object not merely to excite in man certain vague religious feelings, of which the impression, once forgotten, can never be revived; its object is to satisfy, and it does in reality satisfy, all the religious wants of human nature, in whatever degree that nature may be developed. It is not the contrivance of man, whose works pass away and are forgotten, but it is the work of God, who upholds what he creates; and it has the promise of its Divine Author for the pledge of its duration.

It is impossible that human nature can ever be above the need of Christianity. And if ever man has for a time fancied that he could do without it, it has soon appeared to him, clothed in fresh youth and vigour, as the only cure for the human soul; and the degenerate nations have returned with new ardour to those ancient, simple, and powerful truths, which, in the hour of their infatuation, they despised.

In fact Christianity displayed, in the sixteenth century, the same regenerative power which it had exercised in the first. After the lapse of fifteen hundred years, the same truths produced the same effects. In the days of the Reformation, as in the days of Peter and Paul, the Gospel, with invincible energy, overcame mighty obstacles. The efficacy of its sovereign power was displayed from north to south; amid nations differing most widely in manners, in character, and in civilization. Then, as in the times of Stephen and of James, it kindled the fire of enthusiasm and devotion in the midst of the general deadness, and raised on all sides the spirit of martyrs.

How was this revival in the Church and in the world brought to pass?

An observant mind might then have discerned two laws by which God governs the course of events.

He first prepares slowly, and from afar, that which he designs to accomplish. He has ages in which to work.

Then, when his time is come, he effects the greatest results by the smallest means. He acts thus in nature and in providence. For the production of a gigantic tree He deposits in the earth a tiny seed; for the renovation of his church He makes use of the meanest instrument to accomplish what emperors, learned men, and even the heads of that church have failed to effect! We shall shortly have to investigate and bring to light this little seed that a divine hand placed in the earth in the days of the Reformation. We must now distinguish and recognise the different methods by which God prepared the way for the great change.

We will first survey the condition of the papacy; and from thence we will carry our views over the different influences which God caused to concur to the accomplishment of his purposes.

At the period when the Reformation was on the point of breaking forth, Rome appeared in peace and safety. One might have said that nothing could for the future disturb her triumph. She had gained great and decisive victories. The general councils, those upper and lower senates of Catholicism, had been subdued. The Vaudois and the Hussites had been put down. No university (except perhaps that of Paris, which sometimes raised its voice at the instance of its kings) doubted of the infallibility of the oracles of Rome. Every one seemed to take part with its power. The superior clergy preferred to give to a remote head the tenth of their revenues, and quietly to consume the remainder, to the hazarding of all for the acquisition of an independence which would cost dear, and bring little advantage. The humbler clergy, before whom were spread the prospects and baits of higher dignities, were willing to purchase these cherished hopes by a little slavery. Add to which, they were everywhere so overawed by the heads of the hierarchy, that they could scarcely move under their powerful hands, and much less raise themselves and make head against them. The people bowed the knee before the Roman altar, and even kings, who began in secret to despise the Bishop of Rome, could not have dared to raise the hand against it, lest they should be reputed guilty of sacrilege.

But if, at the time when the Reformation broke out, opposition seemed outwardly to have subsided, or even ceased altogether, its internal strength had increased. If we take a nearer view, we discern more than one symptom which presaged the decline of Rome. The general councils had, in their fall, diffused their principles through the Church, and carried disunion into the camp of those who impugned them. The defenders of the hierarchy had separated into two parties; those who maintained the system of the absolute power of the pope, according to the maxims of Hildebrand; and those who desired a constitutional papacy, offering securities and liberty to the churches.

To this we may add, that in all parties faith in the infallibility of the Roman bishop had been rudely shaken. If no voice was raised to attack him, it was because every one was anxious to retain the little faith he still possessed. The slightest shock was dreaded, lest it should overturn the edifice. The Christianity of the age held in its breath; but it was to avoid a calamity in which it feared to perish. From the moment when man trembles to quit a once venerated creed, he no longer holds it, and he will soon abandon its very semblance.

Let us see what had brought about this singular posture of mind. The Church itself was the primary cause. The errors and superstitions she had introduced into Christianity were not, properly speaking, what had so fatally wounded her. This might indeed be thought, if the nations of Christendom had risen above the Church in intellectual and religious development. But there was an aspect of the question level to the observation of the laity, and it was under that view that the Church was judged: it was become altogether *earthly*. That priestly sway which governed the world, and which could not subsist but by the power of illusion, and of that halo which invested it, had forgotten its true nature, and left Heaven and its sphere of light and glory, to immerse itself in the low interests of citizens and princes. Born to the representation of the spirit, the priesthood had forsaken the spirit—for the flesh. They had thrown aside the treasures of learning and the spiritual power of the word, and taken up the brute force and false glory of the age; and this had naturally resulted. It was truly the *spiritual* order that the Church had at first attempted to

defend. But to protect it against the resistance and invasion of the nations, she had, from false policy, had recourse to earthly instruments and vulgar weapons. When once the Church had begun to handle these weapons, her spiritual essence was lost. Her arm could not become carnal without her heart becoming the same; and the world soon saw her former character inverted. She had attempted to use earth in defence of Heaven: she now employed Heaven itself to defend earthly possessions. Theocratic forms became, in her hands, only instruments of worldly schemes. The offerings which the people laid at the feet of the sovereign pontiff of Christendom, were used to support the luxury of his court and the charge of his armies. His spiritual power supplied the steps by which he placed his feet above the kings and nations of the earth. The charm was dispelled; and the power of the Church was gone, from the hour that men could say, "she is become as one of us."

The great were the first to scrutinize the title to this supposed power.* The very questioning of it might possibly have sufficed to overturn Rome. But it was a favourable circumstance on her side, that the education of the princes was everywhere in the hands of her adepts. These persons inculcated in their noble pupils a veneration for the Roman pontiffs. The chiefs of nations grew up in the sanctuary of the Church. Princes of ordinary minds scarce ever got beyond it. Many even desired nothing better than to be found within it at the close of life. They chose to die wearing a monk's cowl rather than a crown.

Italy was mainly instrumental in enlightening the sovereigns of Europe. They had to contract alliances with the popes, which had reference to the temporal prince of the states of the Church—and not to the Bishop of bishops. Kings were much astonished to find the popes ready to sacrifice some of the asserted rights of the pontiff, that they might retain the advantages of the *prince*. They saw these self-styled organs of truth resort to all the petty artifices of policy, deceit, dissimulation, and even perjury.† Then it was that the bandage that education had drawn over the eyes of secular princes fell off. It was then that the artful Ferdinand of Arragon had recourse to stratagem against stratagem; it was then that the impetuous Louis XII. struck a medal with this legend, *Perdam Babylonis nomen*;‡ and the respectable Maximilian of Austria, grieved at hearing of the treachery of Leo X., exclaimed: "This pope, like the rest, is, in my judgment, a scoundrel. Henceforth I can say that in all my life no pope has kept his faith or word with me. I hope, if God be willing, that this one will be the last of them."§

Discoveries of this sort made by kings, gradually took effect upon the people. Many other causes had unclosed the long sealed eyes of Christian nations. The most reflecting began to accustom themselves to the idea that the Bishop of Rome was a man, and sometimes even a very bad man. The people began to suspect that he was not much holier than their own bishops, whose characters were very doubtful. But the popes themselves contributed more than any single cause to their own dishonour. Released from constraint after the Council of Basle, they gave themselves up to the boundless licentiousness of victory. Even the dissolute Romans shuddered. The rumours of these disorders spread through other countries. The people, incapable of arresting the torrent that swept their trea-

sure into this gulf of profligacy, sought amends in hatred.*

While many circumstances contributed to sap what then existed, there were others tending to the production of something new.

The singular system of theology that had established itself in the Church, was fitted powerfully to assist in opening the eyes of the rising generation. Formed for a dark age, as if the darkness were to endure for ever, this system was destined to be superseded and scattered to the winds as soon as the age should outgrow it. And this took place. The popes had added now this, and now that article to the Christian doctrine. They had changed or removed only what could not be made to square with their hierarchy; what was not opposed to their policy was allowed to remain during pleasure. There were in this system true doctrines, such as redemption, the power of the Spirit of God, &c., which an able theologian, if one had been found, could have used to combat and overturn the rest. The pure gold mixed with the baser metal in the mint of the Vatican, was enough to reveal the fraud. It is true, that if any courageous opponent took notice of it, the winnowing fan of Rome was immediately set to work to cast the pure grain forth. But these rejections and condemnations did but augment the confusion.

That confusion was without bounds, and the asserted unity was but one vast disorder. At Rome there were the doctrines of the court and the doctrines of the church. The faith of the metropolis differed from that of the provinces. Even in the provinces there was an infinite diversity of opinion. There was the creed of princes, of people, and, above all, of the religious orders. There were the opinions of this convent, of that district, of this doctor, and of that monk.

Truth, that it might pass safe through the period when Rome would have crushed it with her iron sceptre, had acted like the insect that weaves with its threads the chrysalis in which it envelopes itself during the winter. And, strange to say, the means that had served in this way to preserve the truth, were the scholastic divines so much decried. These ingenious artisans of thought had strung together all the current theological notions, and of these threads they had formed a net, under which it would have been difficult for more skilful persons than their contemporaries to recognise the truth in its first purity. We may regret that the insect, full of life, and so lately shining with the brightest colours, should wrap itself in its dark and seemingly inanimate covering; but that covering preserves it. It was thus with the truth. If the interested and suspicious policy of Rome, in the days of her power, had met with the naked truth, she would have destroyed it, or at least endeavoured to do so. Disguised as it was by the divines of that period, under endless subtleties and distinctions, the popes did not recognise it, or else perceived that while in that state it could not trouble them. They took under their protection both the artisans and their handiwork. But the spring might come, when the hidden truth might lift its head, and throw off all the threads which covered it. Having acquired fresh vigour in its seeming tomb, the world might behold it, in the days of its resurrection, obtain the victory over Rome and all her errors. This spring arrived. At the same time that the absurd coverings of the scholastic divines fell, one after another, beneath the skilful attacks or derisions of a new generation, the truth escaped from its concealment in full youth and beauty.

* Adrien Baillet Hist. des démêlés de Boniface VIII. avec Philippe le Bel. Paris, 1703.

† Guicciardini.

‡ I will extirpate the name of Babylon.

§ Scultet. Annal. ad an. 1520.

* *Odiū Romani nominis penitus infixum esse multarum gentium animis opinor, ob ea quæ vulgo de moribus ejus urbis jactantur.* (Erasmii Epist. lib. xii., p. 634.)

It was not only from the writings of the scholastic divines that powerful testimony was rendered to the truth. Christianity had everywhere mingled something of its own life with the life of the people. The Church of Christ was a dilapidated building: but in digging there were in some parts discovered in its foundations the living rock on which it had been first built. Some institutions which bore date from the best days of the Church still existed, and could not fail to awaken in many minds evangelical sentiments opposed to the reigning superstition. The inspired writers, the earliest teachers of the Church, whose writings were deposited in different libraries, uttered here and there a solitary voice. It was doubtless heard in silence by many an attentive ear. Let us not doubt (and it is a consoling thought) that Christians had many brethren and sisters in those very monasteries wherein we are too apt to see nothing but hypocrisy and dissoluteness.

It was not only old things that prepared the revival of religion; there was also something new which tended powerfully to favour it. The human mind was advancing. This fact alone would have brought on its enfranchisement. The shrub, as it increases in its growth, throws down the walls near which it was planted, and substitutes its own shade for theirs. The High Priest of Rome had made himself the guardian of the nations. His superiority of understanding had rendered this office easy; and for a long time he kept them in a state of tutelage and forced subjection. But they were now growing and breaking bounds on all sides. This venerable guardianship, which had its origin in the principles of eternal life and of civilization, communicated by Rome to the barbarous nations, could no longer be exercised without resistance. A formidable adversary had taken up a position opposed to her, and sought to control her. The natural disposition of the human mind to develop itself, to examine and to acquire knowledge, had given birth to this new power. Men's eyes were opening; they demanded a reason for every step from this long-respected conductor, under whose guidance they had marched in silence, so long as their eyes were closed. The infancy of the nations of modern Europe was passed; a period of ripe age was arrived. To a credulous simplicity, disposed to believe everything, had succeeded a spirit of curiosity, an intelligence impatient to discover the foundations of things. They asked of each other what was the design of God in speaking to the world? and whether men had a right to set themselves up as mediators between God and their brethren. One thing alone could have saved the Church; and this was to rise still higher than the laity. To keep on a level with them was not enough. But, on the contrary, the Church was greatly behind them. It began to decline just when they began to arise. While the laity were ascending in the scale of intelligence, the priesthood was absorbed in earthly pursuits and worldly interests. A like phenomenon has been often seen in history. The eaglet had become full fledged, and there was none who could reach it or prevent its taking flight.

While in Europe the light was thus issuing from the prisons in which it had been held captive, the east was sending new lights to the west. The standard of the Osmanlis, planted in 1453 on the walls of Constantinople, had driven thence the learned of that city. They had carried Grecian literature into Italy. The torch of antiquity rekindled the intellectual flame which had for so many ages been extinguished. Printing, then recently discovered, multiplied the energetic protests against the corruption of the Church, and the not less powerful calls which summoned the human mind to new paths. There was at that time, as it were, a burst of light. Errors and vain ceremonies

were exposed. But this light, well suited to destroy, was most unfit to build up. It was not given to Homer or Virgil to rescue the Church.

The revival of letters, of science, and of the arts was not the moving principle of the Reformation. We may rather say that the paganism of the poets, when it reappeared in Italy, brought with it the paganism of the heart. Vain superstitions were attacked; but it was incredulity that established itself in their stead, with a smile of disdain and mockery. Ridicule of all things, even the most sacred, was the fashion, and deemed the mark of wit. Religion was regarded only as an instrument of government. "I have one fear," exclaimed Erasmus in 1516; "it is, that with the study of ancient literature the ancient paganism should reappear."

True, the world saw then, as after the mockeries of the Augustan age, and as in our own times after those of the last century, a new Platonic philosophy, which, in its turn, attacked this impudent incredulity; and sought, like the philosophy of our own days, to inspire respect for Christianity, and reanimate the sentiments of religion. At Florence the medici favoured these efforts of the Platonists. But never can philosophical religion regenerate the Church or the world. Proud—despising the preaching of the cross—pretending to see in the Christian dogmas only types and symbols unintelligible to the majority of minds—it may evaporate in mystical enthusiasm, but must ever be powerless to reform or to save.

What, then, would have ensued, if true Christianity had not reappeared in the world—and if true faith had not replenished the heart with its strength and holiness? The Reformation saved religion, and with it society. If the Church of Rome had had at heart the glory of God and the happiness of nations, she would have welcomed the Reformation with joy. But what were these to a Leo X.?

In Germany the study of ancient learning had effects the very reverse of those which attended it in Italy and France. It was "mixed with faith." What had, in the latter, produced only a certain trivial and sterile refinement of taste, penetrated the lives and habits of the Germans, warmed their hearts, and prepared them for a better light. The first restorers of letters in Italy and in France were remarkable for their levity; often for their immorality. The German followers, with a grave spirit, sought zealously for truth. There was formed in that country a union of free, learned, and generous individuals, among whom were some of the princes of the land, and who laboured to render science useful to religion. Some of them brought to their studies the humble teachableness of children: others, an enlightened and penetrating judgment, inclined perhaps to overstep the limits of sound and deliberate criticism; but both contributed to clear the passages of the temple, hitherto obstructed by so many superstitions.

The monkish theologians perceived the danger, and they began to clamour against the very same studies that they had tolerated in Italy and France, because they were there mixed with levity and dissoluteness. A conspiracy was entered into against languages and sciences, for in their rear they perceived the true faith. One day a monk, cautioning some one against the heresies of Erasmus, was asked "in what they consisted?" He confessed he had not read the work he spoke of, and could but allege "that it was written in too good Latin."

Still all these exterior causes would have been insufficient to prepare the renovation of the Church.

Christianity had declined, because the two guiding truths of the new covenant had been lost. The first,

in contra-distinction to Church assumption, is the immediate relation existing between every individual soul and the Fountain of Truth; the second, (and this stood directly opposed to the idea of merit in human works,) is the doctrine of salvation by Grace. Of these two principles, immutable and immortal in themselves—for ever true, however slighted or corrupted—which, it might then have been asked, was to be first set in motion, and give the regenerative impulse to the Church? Was it to be the former, the principle of Church authority? or was it to be the latter, the energy of the Spirit? In our days men pretend to operate through the social condition, upon the soul; through human nature in general, upon individual character. It will be concluded that the principle of a church was prominent in the movement: history has shown the very contrary: it has proved that it is by individual influence that an impression is produced on the community, and that the first step toward restoring the social condition is, to regenerate the soul. All the efforts for melioration witnessed in the middle ages arose out of religious feeling; the question of authority was never mooted till men were compelled to defend against the hierarchy the newly-discovered truth. It was the same in later times, in Luther's case. When the Truth that saves appears on the one side, sustained by the authority of God's word—and, on the other, the error that destroys, backed by the power of the Roman hierarchy, Christians cannot long hesitate; and, in spite of the most specious sophisms and the fairest credentials, the claim to authority is soon disposed of.

The Church had fallen because the great doctrine of Justification through faith in Christ had been lost. It was, therefore, necessary that this doctrine should be restored to her before she could arise. Whenever this fundamental truth should be restored, all the errors and devices which had usurped its place, the train of saints, works, penances, masses, and indulgences, would vanish. The moment the ONE Mediator and his ONE sacrifice were acknowledged, all other mediators and all other sacrifices would disappear. "This article of justification," says one* whom we may look upon as enlightened on the subject, "is that which forms the Church, nourishes it, builds it up, preserves and defends it. No one can well teach in the Church, or successfully resist its adversary, if he continue not in his attachment to this grand truth." "It is," adds the Reformer, referring to the earliest prophecy, "the heel that crushes the serpent's head."

God, who was then preparing his work, raised up, during a long course of ages, a succession of witnesses to this truth. But the generous men who bore testimony to this truth, did not clearly comprehend it, or at least did not know how to bring it distinctly forward. Incapable of accomplishing the work, they were well suited to prepare it. We may add also, that if they were not prepared for this work, the work itself was not ready for them. The measure was not yet full; the need of the true remedy was not yet felt so extensively as was necessary.

Thus, instead of felling the tree at the root, by preaching chiefly and earnestly the doctrine of salvation by grace, they confined themselves to questions of ceremonies, to the government of the Church, to forms of worship to the adoration of saints and images, or to the transubstantiation, &c.; and, thus limiting their efforts to the branches, they might succeed in pruning the tree here and there, but they left it still standing. In order to a salutary reformation without, there must be a real reformation within. And faith alone can effect this.

* Luther to Brentius.

Scarcely had Rome usurped power, before a vigorous opposition was formed against her; and this endured throughout the middle ages.

Archbishop Claudius, of Turin, in the ninth century, Peter of Bruys, his pupil Henry, Arnold of Brescia, in the twelfth century, in France and Italy, laboured to restore the worship of God in spirit and in truth; but they sought that worship too much in the riddance from images and outward ceremony.

The Mystics, who have existed in almost every age, seeking in silence, holiness, righteousness of life, and quiet communion with God, beheld with alarm and sorrow the wretched condition of the Church. They carefully abstained from the quarrels of the schools, and all the unprofitable discussions beneath which true piety had been well nigh buried. They laboured to turn men from the empty form of an outward worship, from noise and pomp of ceremonies, that they might lead them to the inward peace of the soul that seeks all its happiness in God. They could not do this without coming in collision with all the received opinions, and exposing the wounds of the Church; but still even they had no clear views of the doctrine of justification by faith.

Far superior to the Mystics in purity of doctrine, the Vaudois formed a long-continued chain of witnesses for the truth. Men more free than the rest of the Church appear from early times to have inhabited the summits of the Piedmontese Alps. Their numbers had increased, and their doctrine had been purified by the disciples of Valdo. From the heights of their mountains the Vaudois protested for ages against the superstitions of Rome.* "They contended," said they, "for their lively hope in God through Christ; for regeneration and inward renewal by faith, hope, and charity; for the merits of Christ, and the all-sufficiency of his grace and righteousness."†

And yet this primary truth of the Justification of the sinner, which ought to rise pre-eminent above other doctrines, like Mount Blanc above the surrounding Alps, was not sufficiently prominent in their system.

Pierre Vaud, or Valdo, a rich merchant of Lyons, (A.D. 1170,) sold all his goods and gave to the poor. He and his friends appear to have had for their object to re-establish, in the intercourse of life, the perfection of primitive Christianity. He began then, like others, at the branches, and not at the root. Nevertheless, his preaching was powerful; for he recalled the minds of his hearers to the Scriptures which menaced the Roman hierarchy in its foundation.

In 1360 Wicklif made his appearance in England, and appealed from the pope to the Word of God; but the real inward wound of the Church appeared to him as only one of many symptoms of its malady.

John Huss preached in Bohemia a century before Luther appeared in Saxony. He seemed to enter more deeply than all who had gone before him, into the essence of Christian truth. He besought Christ to grant him grace to glory only in his cross, and in the inestimable humiliation of his sufferings. But he attacked rather the lives of the clergy than the errors of the Church. And yet he was, if we may be allowed the expression, the John the Baptist of the Reformation. The flames of his martyrdom kindled a fire which shed an extensive light in the midst of the general gloom, and was destined not to be speedily extinguished.

John Huss did more: prophetic words resounded from the depths of his dungeon. He foresaw that a real reformation of the Church was at hand. When driven from Prague, and compelled to wander in the

* Nobla Leycon.

† Treatise on Antichrist, a work contemporary with the Nobla Leycon.

fields of Bohemia, where he was followed by an immense crowd eager to catch his words, he exclaimed: "The wicked have begun by laying treacherous snares for the *goose*.* But if even the goose, which is only a domestic fowl, a tame creature, and unable to rise high in the air, has yet broken their snares, other birds, whose flight carries them boldly toward heaven, will break them with much more power. Instead of a feeble goose, the truth will send forth eagles and keen-eyed falcons."† The Reformers fulfilled this prediction.

And when the venerable priest was summoned, by order of Sigismund, before the Council of Constance, and cast into prison, the Chapel of Bethlehem, where he had proclaimed the Gospel and the future triumphs of Christ, employed his thoughts more than his own defence. One night the holy martyr thought he saw, from the depths of his dungeon, the pictures of Christ, which he had had painted on the walls of his oratory, effaced by the pope and his bishops. This dream distressed him. Next night he saw several painters engaged in restoring the figures in greater numbers and more vivid colouring; and, this work performed, the painters, surrounded by an immense multitude, exclaimed: "Now let the popes and bishops come when they will, they will never again be able to efface them." "And many persons thereupon rejoiced in Bethlehem, and I among them," adds Huss. "Think of your defence rather than of your dreams," said his faithful friend, the Chevalier de Chlum, to whom he had imparted his dream. "I am no dreamer," replied Huss; "but I hold it certain that the image of Christ will never be effaced. They desired to destroy it, but it will be imprinted anew on the hearts of men by much better preachers than myself. The nation that loves Christ will rejoice at this. And I, awaking from the dead, and rising, as it were, from the grave, shall leap for joy."‡

A century elapsed; and the Gospel torch, rekindled by the Reformers, did in truth enlighten many nations, who rejoiced in its beams.

But it was not only among those whom Rome regarded as her adversaries, that a life-giving word was heard at that period. Catholicism itself—and we may take comfort from the thought—reckons among its own members numerous witnesses for the truth. The primitive edifice had been consumed; but a holy fire smouldered beneath its ashes, and from time to time bright sparks were seen to escape.

Anselm of Canterbury, in a work for the use of the dying, exhorted them "to look solely to the merits of Jesus Christ."

A monk, named Arnoldi, offered up every day in his peaceful cell this fervent prayer: "Oh, Lord Jesus Christ! I believe that in thee alone I have redemption and righteousness."§

A pious bishop of Bâle, Christopher de Utenheim, had his name written upon a picture painted on glass, which is still at Bâle, and round it this motto, which he wished to have always before him: "My hope is in the cross of Christ; I seek grace, and not works."||

A poor Carthusian, brother Martin, wrote this affecting confession: "Oh, most merciful God! I know that I can only be saved, and satisfy thy righteousness, by the merit, the innocent suffering, and death of thy well-beloved son. Holy Jesus! my salvation is in thy hands. Thou canst not withdraw the hands of thy love from

me; for they have created, and formed, and redeemed me. Thou hast inscribed my name with a pen of iron, in rich mercy, and so as nothing can efface it, on thy side, thy hands, and thy feet," &c. After this the good Carthusian placed his confession in a wooden box, and enclosed the box in a hole he had made in the wall of his cell.*

The piety of brother Martin would never have been known, if his box had not been found on the twenty-first of December, 1776, in taking down an old building which had been part of the Carthusian convent at Bâle. How many convents may have concealed similar treasures!

But these holy men only held this faith themselves, and did not know how to communicate it to others. Living in retirement, they might more or less adopt the words of good brother Martin, written in his box: "*Et si hæc prædicta confiteri non possim lingua, confiteor tamen corde et scripto*." If I cannot confess these things with my tongue, I at least confess them with my pen and with my heart." The word of truth was laid up in the sanctuary of many a pious mind, but, to use an expression in the Gospel, it had not free course in the world.

If men did not openly confess the doctrine of salvation, they at least did not fear, even within the pale of the Romish Church, boldly to protest against the abuses which disgraced it. Italy itself had at that time her witnesses against the priesthood. The Dominican, Savaronola, preached at Florence in 1498 against the insupportable vices of Rome; but the powers that then were, despatched him by the inquisition and the stake.

Geiler of Kaisersberg was for three-and-thirty years the great preacher of Germany. He attacked the clergy with energy. "When the summer leaves turn yellow," said he, "we say that the root is diseased; and thus it is a dissolute people proclaim a corrupted priesthood." "If no wicked man ought to say mass," said he to his bishop, "drive out all the priests from your diocese." The people, hearing this courageous minister, learned even in the sanctuary to see the enormities of their spiritual guides.

This state of things in the Church itself deserves our notice. When the Wisdom of God shall again utter his teachings, there will everywhere be understandings and hearts to comprehend. When the sower shall again come forth to sow, he will find ground prepared to receive the seed. When the word of truth shall resound, it will find echoes to repeat it. When the trumpet shall utter a war-note in the Church, many of her children will prepare themselves to the battle.

We are arrived near the scene on which Luther appeared. Before we begin the history of that great commotion which caused to shoot up in all its brilliancy that light of truth which had been so long concealed, and which, by renovating the Church, renovated so many nations, and called others into existence, creating a new Europe and a new Christianity, let us take a glance at the different nations in the midst of whom this revolution in religion took place.

The empire was a confederacy of different states, with the emperor at their head. Each of these states possessed sovereignty over its own territory. The Imperial Diet, composed of all the princes, or sovereign states, exercised the legislative power for the whole of the Germanic body. The emperor ratified the laws, decrees, or resolutions of this assembly, and it was his office to publish and execute them. The seven more

* The word Huss in Bohemian signifying goose.

† Epist. J. Huss tempore anathematis scriptæ.

‡ Huss, epod. sub tempus concilii scriptæ.

§ Credo quod tu, mi Domine, Jesu Christe solus es mea justitia et redemptio. Leibnitz script. Brunsw. iii., 369.

|| Spes mea crux Christi; gratiam non opera quero.

* Sciens posse me aliter non salvari et tibi satisfacere nisi per meritum, &c. See for the citations, and many others, Flaccius Catal. Test. Veritatis; Wolfii Lect. Memorabiles; Müller's Reliquien, etc.

powerful princes, under the title of electors, had the privilege of awarding the imperial crown.

The princes and states of the Germanic confederacy had been anciently subjects of the emperors, and held their lands of them. But, after the accession of Rodolph of Hapsburg, (1273,) a series of troubles had taken place, in which princes, free cities, and bishops acquired a considerable degree of independence, at the expense of the imperial sovereign.

The north of Germany, inhabited chiefly by the old Saxon race, had acquired most liberty. The emperor, incessantly attacked by the Turks in his hereditary possessions, was disposed to keep on good terms with courageous chiefs and communities, whose alliance was then necessary to him. Several free cities in the north-west and south of Europe had, by commerce, manufactures, and industry, attained a considerable degree of prosperity, and, by that means, of independence. The powerful house of Austria, which wore the crown of the empire, controlled the majority of the states of central Germany, overlooked their movements, and was preparing to extend its dominion, over and beyond the whole empire, when the Reformation interposed a powerful barrier to its encroachments, and saved the liberties of Europe.

If, in the time of St. Paul, or of Ambrose, of Austin, or Chrysostom, or even in the days of Anselm and Bernard, the question had been asked, what people or nation God would be likely to use to reform the Church—the thought might have turned to the countries honoured by the apostles' ministry—to Asia, to Greece, or to Rome, perhaps to Britain or to France, where men of great learning had preached; but none would have thought of the barbarous Germans. All other countries of Christendom had, in their turn, shone in the history of the Church; Germany alone had continued dark. Yet it was Germany that was chosen.

God, who prepared during four thousand years the advent of his Messiah, and led through different dispensations, for many ages, the people among whom he was to be born, also prepared Germany in secret and unobserved, unknown indeed even to itself, to be the cradle of a religious regeneration, which, in a later day, should awaken the various nations of Christendom.

As Judea, the birth-place of our religion, lay in the centre of the ancient world, so Germany was situate in the midst of Christian nations. She looked upon the Netherlands, England, France, Switzerland, Italy, Hungary, Bohemia, Poland, Denmark, and the whole of the north. It was fit that the principle of life should develop itself in the heart of Europe, that its pulses might circulate through all the arteries of the body the generous blood designed to vivify its members.

The particular form of constitution that the empire had received, by the dispensations of Providence, favoured the propagation of new ideas. If Germany had been a monarchy, strictly so called, like France or England, the arbitrary will of the sovereign might have sufficed to delay for a long time the progress of the Gospel. But it was a confederacy. The truth, opposed in one state, might be received with favour by another. Important centres of light, which might gradually penetrate through the darkness, and enlighten the surrounding population, might be quickly formed in different districts of the empire.

The internal peace which Maximilian had given to the empire was no less favourable to the Reformation. For a long while the numerous members of the Germanic body had laboured to disturb each other. Nothing had been seen but confusions, quarrels, wars incessantly breaking out between neighbours, cities, and chiefs. Maximilian had laid a solid basis of public order by instituting the imperial chamber appointed to

settle all differences between the states. The Germans, after so many confusions and anxieties, saw a new era of safety and repose. This condition of affairs powerfully contributed to harmonize the general mind. It was now possible in the cities and peaceful valleys of Germany to seek and adopt meliorations which discord might have banished. We may add that it is in the bosom of peace that the Gospel loves most to gain its blessed victories. Thus it had been the will of God, fifteen centuries before, that Augustus should present a pacified world for the blessed triumphs of Christ's religion. Nevertheless the Reformation performed a double part in the peace then beginning for the empire. It was as much cause as effect. Germany, when Luther appeared, offered to the contemplation of an observer the sort of movement which agitates the sea after a continued storm. The calm did not promise to be lasting. The first breath might again call up the tempest. We shall see more than one example of this. The Reformation, by communicating a new impulse to the population, destroyed for ever the old motives of agitation. It made an end of the system of barbarous times, and gave to Europe one entirely new.

Meanwhile the religion of Jesus Christ had had its accustomed influence on Germany. The common people had rapidly advanced; numerous institutions arose in the empire, and particularly in the free cities—well adapted to develop the minds of the mass of the people. The arts flourished; the burghers followed in security their peaceable labours and the duties of social life. They gradually opened to information, and thus acquired respect and influence. It was not magistrates bending conscience to political expediency, or nobles emulous of military glory, or a clergy seeking gain or power, and regarding religion as their peculiar property, who were to be the founders of the Reformation in Germany. It was to be the work of the *bourgeoisie*—of the people—of the whole nation.

The peculiar character of the Germans was such as especially to favour a reformation in religion. A false civilization had not enfeebled them. The precious seeds that a fear of God deposes in a nation had not been scattered to the winds. Ancient manners still subsisted. There was in Germany that uprightness, fidelity, love and toil, and perseverance—that religious habit of mind—which we still find there, and which presages more success to the Gospel than the scornful or brutal levity of other European nations.

Another circumstance may have contributed to render Germany a soil more favourable to the revival of Christianity than many other countries. God had fenced it in; he had preserved its strength for the day of its giving birth to his purpose. It had not fallen from the faith after a period of spiritual vigour, as had been the case with the churches of Asia, of Greece, of Italy, of France, and of Britain. The Gospel had never been offered to Germany in its primitive purity; the first missionaries who visited the country gave to it a religion already vitiated in more than one particular. It was a law of the Church, a spiritual discipline, that Boniface and his successors carried to the Frisians, the Saxons, and other German nations. Faith in the "good tidings," that faith which rejoices the heart and makes it free indeed, had remained unknown to them. Instead of being slowly corrupted, the religion of the Germans had rather been purified. Instead of declining, it had arisen. It was, indeed, to be expected that more life and spiritual strength would be found among this people than among those enervated nations of Christendom where deep darkness had succeeded to the light of truth, and an almost universal corruption had taken place of the sanctity of the earliest times.

We may make the like remark on the exterior rela-

tion between the Germanic body and the Church. The Germans had received from Rome that element of modern civilization, the faith. Instruction, legislation, all, save their courage and their weapons, had come to them from the Sacerdotal city. Strong ties had from that time attached Germany to the papacy. The former was a spiritual conquest of the latter, and we know to what use Rome has ever turned her conquests. Other nations, which had held the faith and civilization before the Roman pontiff existed, had continued in more independence of him. But this subjection of Germany was destined only to make the reaction more powerful at the moment of awakening. When Germany should open her eyes, she would indignantly tear away the trammels in which she had been so long kept bound. The very measure of slavery she had had to endure would make her deliverance and liberty more indispensable to her, and strong champions of the truth would come forth from the enclosure of control and restriction in which her population had for ages been shut up.

When we take a nearer view of the times of the Reformation, we see, in the government of Germany, still farther reasons to admire the wisdom of Him by whom kings reign and princes execute judgment. There was at that time something resembling what has, in our own days, been termed a system of *see-saw*. When an energetic sovereign presided over the empire, the imperial power was strengthened; on the other hand, when he was of feeble character, the authority of the electors gained force.

Under Maximilian, the predecessor of Charles V., this alternate rise and depression of the various states was especially remarkable. At that time the balance was altogether against the emperor. The princes had repeatedly formed close alliances with one another. The emperors themselves had urged them to do so, in order that they might direct them at one effort against some common enemy. But the strength that the princes acquired from such alliances against a passing danger, might, at an after period, be turned against the encroachments or power of the emperor. This did indeed ensue. At no period had the electors felt themselves more independent of their head than at the period of the Reformation. And their head having taken part against it, it is easy to see that this state of things was favourable to the propagation of the Gospel.

We may add that Germany was weary of what the Romans contemptuously termed "*the patience of the Germans*." The latter had, in truth, manifested much patience ever since the time of Louis of Bavaria. From that period the emperors had laid down their arms, and the ascendancy of the tiara over the crown of the Cæsars was acknowledged. But the battle had only changed its field. It was to be fought on lower ground. The same contests, of which emperors and popes had set the example, were quickly renewed in miniature, in all the towns of Germany, between bishops and magistrates. The commonalty had caught up the sword dropped by the chiefs of the empire. As early as 1329, the citizens of Frankfurt on the Oder had resisted, with intrepidity, their ecclesiastical superiors. Excommunicated for their fidelity to the Margrave Louis, they had remained twenty-eight years without masses, baptisms, marriage or funeral rites. And afterward, when the monks and priests reappeared, they had openly ridiculed their return as a farce. Deplorable irreverence, doubtless; but of which the clergy themselves were the cause. At the epoch of the Reformation the animosity between the magistrates and the ecclesiastics had increased. Every hour the privileges and temporal possessions of the clergy gave rise to collision. If the magistrates refused to give

way, the bishops and priests imprudently had recourse to the extreme means at their disposal. Sometimes the pope interfered; and it was to give an example of the most revolting partiality, or to endure the humiliating necessity of leaving the triumph in the hands of the commons, obstinately resolved to maintain their right. These continual conflicts had filled the cities with hatred and contempt of the pope, and the bishops, and the priests.

But not only among the burgomasters, counsellors, and town clerks did Rome and the clergy find adversaries; they had opponents both above and below the middle classes of society. From the commencement of the sixteenth century the Imperial Diet displayed an inflexible firmness against the papal envoys. In May, 1510, the states assembled at Augsburg handed to the emperor a statement of ten leading grievances against the pope and clergy of Rome. About the same time there was a violent ferment among the populace. It broke out in 1512, in the Rhenish provinces; where the peasantry, indignant at the weight of the yoke imposed by their ecclesiastical sovereigns, formed among themselves the League of the Shoes.

Thus, on all side, from above and from beneath, was heard a low murmur, the forerunner of the thunderbolt that was about to fall. Germany appeared ripe for the work appointed for the sixteenth century. Providence, in its slow course, had prepared all things; and even the passions which God condemns were to be turned by His power to the fulfilment of his purposes.

Let us take a view of other nations.

Thirteen small republics, placed with their allies in the centre of Europe, among mountains which compose, as it were, its citadel, formed a simple and brave population. Who would have thought of looking to these obscure valleys for the men whom God would choose to be, jointly with the children of the Germans, the liberators of the Church? Who would have guessed that poor and unknown villages, just raised above barbarism—hidden among inaccessible mountains, in the extremity of lakes never named in history—would, in their connexion with Christianity, eclipse Jerusalem, Antioch, Ephesus, Corinth, and Rome? Yet so it was. Such was the will of Him who causeth it to rain upon one city, and causeth it not to rain upon another city, and maketh his showers to descend on one piece of land, while another withereth under drought. Amos 4: 7.

Circumstances of another kind seemed to surround with multiplied rocks the course of the Reformation in the bosom of the Swiss population. If, in a monarchy, it had to fear the hindrances of power, in a democracy it was exposed to the hazards of the precipitation of the people. True, this Reformation, which, in the states of the empire, could but advance slowly and step by step, might have its success decided in one day in the general council of the Swiss republic. But it was necessary to guard against an imprudent haste, which, unwilling to wait a favourable moment, should abruptly introduce innovations otherwise most useful, and so compromise the public peace, the constitution of the state, and even the future prospects of the Reformation itself.

But Switzerland also had had its preparations. It was a wild tree, but one of generous nature, which had been guarded in the depth of the valleys, that it might one day be grafted with a fruit of the highest value. Providence had diffused among this recent people principles of courage, independence, and liberty, destined to manifest all their strength when the signal of conflict with Rome should be given. The pope had conferred on the Swiss the title of protectors of the liberties of the Church; but it seems they had under-

stood this honourable name in a totally different sense from the pontiff. If their soldiers guarded the pope in the neighbourhood of the capitol, their citizens, in the bosom of the Alps, carefully guarded their own religious liberties against the invasion of the pope and of the clergy. Ecclesiastics were forbidden to have recourse to any foreign jurisdiction. The "*lettre des pretres*" was a bold protest of Swiss liberty against the corruptions and power of the clergy. Zurich was especially distinguished by its courageous opposition to the claims of Rome. Geneva, at the other extremity of Switzerland, struggled against its bishops. Doubtless the love of political independence may have made many of its citizens forget the true liberty; but God had decreed that this love of independence should lead others to the reception of a doctrine which should truly enfranchise the nation. These two leading cities distinguished themselves among all the rest in the great struggle we have undertaken to describe.

But if the Helvetic towns, open and accessible to meliorations, were likely to be drawn early within the current of the Reformation, the case was very different with the mountain districts. It might have been thought that these communities, more simple and energetic than their confederates in the towns, would have embraced with ardour a doctrine of which the characteristics were simplicity and force: but He who said, "At that time two men shall be in the field, the one shall be taken and the other left," saw fit to leave these mountaineers, while He took the men of the plain. Perhaps an attentive observer might have discerned some symptoms of the difference which was about to manifest itself between the people of the town and of the hills. Intelligence had not penetrated to those heights. Those Cantons, which had founded Swiss liberty, proud of the part they had played in the grand struggle for independence, were not disposed to be tamely instructed by their younger brethren of the plain. Why, they might ask, should they change the faith in which they had expelled the Austrians, and which had consecrated, by altars, all the scenes of their triumphs? Their priests were the only enlightened guides to whom they could apply; their worship and their festivals were occupation and diversion for their tranquil lives, and enlivened the silence of their peaceful retreats. They continued closed against religious innovations.

Passing the Alps, we find ourselves in that Italy which, in the eyes of many, was the Holy Land of Christianity. Whence would Europe look for good to the Church but from Italy, and from Rome itself? The power which placed successively upon the pontifical chair so many different characters, might it not one day place thereon a pontiff who should become an instrument of blessing to the Lord's heritage? Even if no hope was to be placed on the popes, were there not *there* bishops and councils which would reform the Church? Nothing good can come out of Nazareth; it must proceed from Jerusalem—from Rome. Such might have been the thoughts of men, but God's thoughts were not as theirs. He says, "Let him that is filthy be filthy still;" Rev. 22: 11; and He left Italy to its unrighteousness. Many causes conspired to deprive this unhappy country of Gospel light. Its different states, sometimes rivals, sometimes enemies, came into violent collision as often as they were shaken by any commotion. This land of ancient glory was by turns the prey of intestine wars and foreign invasions; the stratagems of policy, the violence of factions, the agitation of battles, seemed to be its sole occupation, and to banish for a long time the Gospel of peace.

Italy, broken to pieces, and without unity, appeared but little suited to receive one general impulse. Every frontier line was a new barrier, where truth would be

stopped and challenged, if it sought to cross the Alps, or to land on those smiling shores. It was true, the papacy was then planning a union of all Italy, desiring, as Pope Julius expressed it, to expel the *barbarians*—that is, the foreign princes; and she hovered like a bird of prey over the mutilated and palpitating members of ancient Italy. But if she had gained her ends, we may easily believe that the Reformation would not have been thereby advanced.

And if the truth was destined to come to them from the north, how could the Italians, so enlightened, of so refined a taste and social habits, so delicate in their own eyes, condescend to receive anything at the hands of the barbarous Germans. Their pride, in fact, raised between the Reformation and themselves a barrier higher than the Alps. But the very nature of their mental culture was a still greater obstacle than the presumption of their hearts. Could men who admired the elegance of a well-cadenced sonnet more than the majestic simplicity of the Scriptures, be a propitious soil for the seed of God's word? A false civilization is, of all conditions of a nation, that which is most repugnant to the Gospel.

Finally, whatever might be the state of things to Italy—Rome was always Rome. Not only did the temporal power of the popes incline the several parties in Italy to court at any cost their alliance and favour, but, in addition to this, the universal sway of Rome offered more than one inducement to the avarice and vanity of the Italian states. Whenever it should become a question of emancipation of the rest of the world from the yoke of Rome, Italy would again become Italy! domestic quarrels would not be suffered to prevail to the advantage of a foreign system; and attacks directed against the head of the peninsula would immediately call up the affections and common interests from their long sleep.

The Reformation, then, had little prospect of success in that country. Nevertheless, there were found within its confines souls prepared to receive the Gospel light, and Italy was not then entirely disinherited.

Spain possessed what Italy did not—a serious and noble people, whose religious mind had resisted even the stern trial of the eighteenth century, and of the revolution, and maintained itself to our own days. In every age this people has had among its clergy men of piety and learning, and it was sufficiently remote from Rome to throw off without difficulty her yoke. There are few nations wherein one might more reasonably have hoped for a revival of that primitive Christianity which Spain had probably received from St. Paul himself. And yet Spain did not then stand up among the nations. She was destined to be an example of that word of the Divine Wisdom, "The first shall be last." Various circumstances conduced to this deplorable result.

Spain, considering its isolated position, and remoteness from Germany, would feel but slightly the shocks of the great earthquake which shook the empire. But more than this, she was busily occupied in seeking treasure very different from that which the Word of God was then offering to the nations. In her eyes the new world outshone the eternal world. A virgin soil, which seemed to be composed of gold and silver, inflamed the imagination of her people. An eager desire after riches left no room in the heart of the Spaniard for nobler thoughts. A powerful clergy, having the scaffolds and the treasures of the land at their disposal, ruled the peninsula. Spain willingly rendered to its priests a servile obedience, which, releasing it from spiritual preoccupations, left it to follow its passions, and go forward in quest of riches, and discoveries of new continents. Victorious over

the Moors, she had, at the expense of her noblest blood, thrown down the crescent from the towers of Granada, and many other cities, and planted in its place the cross of Jesus Christ. This great zeal for Christianity, which promised so much—turned against the truth—for could Catholic Spain, that had triumphed over infidels, refuse to oppose heretics? How could a people who had expelled Mahomet from their noble country, allow Luther to make way in it? Their kings went farther. They fitted out their fleets against the Reformation. They went forth to meet and conquer it in England and in Holland. But these attacks had the effect of elevating the nations assailed; and, ere long, their power crushed the power of Spain. Thus those Catholic countries lost, owing to the Reformation, that very temporal wealth which had led them at the first to reject the spiritual liberty of the Gospel. Yet the Spanish nation was generous and brave; and many of its noble people, with equal ardour, and better knowledge than those who had rushed upon the swords of the Arabs, gave up their lives at the stake to the Inquisition.

Portugal was nearly in the same condition as Spain. Emanuel the Fortunate gave to it an "age of gold," which tended to unfit it for that self-denial which Christianity requires. The nation, precipitating itself on the newly-discovered routes to India and the Brazils, turned its back upon Europe and the Reformation.

Few countries seemed likely to be better disposed than France for the reception of the evangelical doctrines. Almost all the intellectual and spiritual life of the middle ages was concentrated in her. It might have been said that the paths were everywhere trodden for a grand manifestation of the truth. Men of the most opposite characters, and whose influence over the people had been most powerful, had in some degree countenanced the Reformation. Saint Bernard had set the example of that heartfelt faith, that inward piety, which is the most beautiful feature of its character. Abelard had introduced into the study of theology the rational principle which, though incapable of developing the truth, is yet powerful for the destruction of error. Many heretics, so called, had revived the light of God's word in the provinces. The University of Paris had placed itself in opposition to the Church, and had not feared to combat it. In the beginning of the fifteenth century the Clemangis and the Gersons had spoken out with undaunted courage. The Pragmatic Sanction had been a grand act of independence, and promised to be the palladium of Gallic liberty. The French nobility, numerous, jealous of their pre-eminence, and having at this period been gradually deprived of their privileges by the growing power of their kings, must have been favourably disposed toward a religious change which might restore to them some portion of the independence they had lost. The people, of quick feelings, intelligent, and susceptible of generous emotions, were as open, or even more so, than most other nations, to the truth. It seemed as if the Reformation must be, among them, the birth which should crown the travail of several centuries. But the chariot of France, which for so many generations seemed to be advancing to the same goal, suddenly turned at the moment of the Reformation, and took a contrary direction. Such was the will of Him who rules nations and their kings. The prince, then seated in the chariot, and holding the reins, and who, as a patron of learning, seemed likely to be foremost in promoting the Reformation, turned his people in another direction. The augury of ages was deceived, and the impulse given to France was spent and lost in struggles against the ambition and fanaticism of her kings. The race of Valois deprived her of her rights.

Perhaps, if she had received the Gospel, she might have become too powerful. God had chosen a weaker people—a people that, as yet, was not—to be the depository of his truth. France, after having been almost reformed, found herself, in the result, Roman Catholic. The sword of her princes, cast into the scale, caused it to incline in favour of Rome. Alas! another sword, that of the Reformers themselves, insured the failure of the effort for reformation. The hands that had become accustomed to warlike weapons, ceased to be lifted up in prayer. It is by the blood of its confessors, not by that of its adversaries, that the Gospel triumphs. Blood shed by its defenders, extinguishes and smothers it. Francis I., in the very beginning of his reign, eagerly sacrificed the Pragmatic Sanction to the papacy, substituting a *concordat* detrimental to France, and advantageous to the crown and to the pope. Maintaining by his sword the rights of the German Protestants at war with his rival, this "father of the sciences" plunged it up to the hilt in the hearts of his own reformed subjects. His successors did, from motives of fanaticism, or weakness, or to silence the clamours of a guilty conscience, what he had done for ambition. They met, indeed, with a powerful resistance, but it was not always such as the martyrs of the first ages had opposed to their pagan persecutors. The strength of the Protestants was the source of their weakness; their success drew after it their ruin.

The Low Countries formed, at that period, one of the most flourishing portions of Europe. Its population was industrious, better informed owing to its numerous connexions with different regions of the earth, full of courage, and passionately attached to its independence, its privileges, and its liberty. On the very borders of Germany, it would be the first to hear the report of the Reformation; it was capable of receiving it. But all did not receive it. To the poor it was given to receive the truth. The hungry were filled with good things, and the rich sent empty away. The Netherlands, which had always been more or less connected with the empire, had forty years before fallen to the possession of Austria, and, after Charles V., they devolved to the Spanish branch, and so to the ferocious Philip. The princes and governors of this ill-fated country trampled the Gospel under foot, and waded through the blood of its martyrs. The country was composed of two divisions, widely dissimilar the one from the other. The south, rich and increased in goods, succumbed. How could its extensive manufactures, carried to such perfection—how could Bruges, the great mart of northern merchandise, or Antwerp, the queen of commercial cities, make their interests consist with a long and bloody struggle for the things of faith? But the northern provinces, defended by their dykes, the sea, their marshes, and, still more, by the simple manners of the population, and their determination to suffer the loss of all, rather than of the Gospel, not only preserved their franchises, their privileges, and their faith, but achieved independence and a glorious existence as a nation.

England then gave little promise of all she has subsequently acquired. Driven from the continent, where she had long obstinately contended for the conquest of France, she began to turn her eyes toward the ocean as to the empire which was designed to be the true end of her victories, and of which the inheritance was reserved for her. Twice converted to Christianity, first under the Britons, then under the Anglo-Saxons, she paid devoutly the annual tribute of St. Peter's pence. Yet was she reserved for a lofty destiny. Mistress of the ocean, everywhere present through all parts of the earth, she was ordained to be one day, with the people to whom she should give birth, as the hand of God to scatter the seed of life in remotest islands and on bound-

less continents. Already some circumstances gave presage of her destinies. Great intellectual light had shown in the British Isles, and some glimmerings of it still remained. A crowd of foreigners, artists, merchants, workmen, from the Low Countries, Germany, and other regions, thronged her harbours and cities. The new religious opinions would, therefore, be easily and quickly introduced. Finally, England had then an eccentric king, who, endowed with some learning and considerable courage, was continually changing his purposes and notions, and turning from one side to another, according to the direction in which his violent passions impelled him. It was possible that one of the inconsistencies of Henry VIII. might prove favourable to the Reformation.

Scotland was then torn by factions. A king five years old, a queen regent, ambitious nobles, an influential clergy, harassed this courageous nation on all sides. It was, however, destined to hold a distinguished place among the nations which should receive the Reformation.

The three northern kingdoms, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, were united under one government. These rude and warlike people seemed likely to have little sympathy with the doctrine of love and peace. Yet, from the very energy of their character, they were perhaps better disposed to receive the spirit of the evangelical doctrine than the southern nations. But these descendants of warriors and pirates brought perhaps too warlike a spirit to the support of the Protestant cause; in subsequent times they defended it heroically by the sword.

Russia, situate at the extremity of Europe, had but little connexion with other states; we may add that she belonged to the Greek Church. The reformation effected in the west had little or no influence upon the east.

Poland seemed well prepared for a reformation. The vicinity of the Bohemian and Moravian Christians had disposed it to receive that religious impulse which the neighbouring states of Germany were destined speedily to impart to it. As early as the year 1500, the nobility of Poland had demanded that the cup should be given to the laity, appealing to the custom of the primitive Church. The liberty which was enjoyed in the cities, and the independence of its nobles, made this country a safe asylum for Christians who were persecuted in their own. The truth they brought with them was joyfully welcomed by numbers. It is the country which, in our times, has the fewest confessors of the Gospel.

The flame of reformation which had long flickered in Bohemia, had almost been extinguished in blood. Nevertheless some poor survivors, escaped from the carnage, were still living to see the day that Huss had predicted.

Hungary had been distracted by intestine wars, under the rule of princes without ability or experience, who, in the result, made the country a dependancy of Austria, by enrolling that powerful house among the heirs of the crown.

Such was the condition of Europe at the beginning of that sixteenth century, which was destined to produce so mighty a change in the great Christian family.

But we have already observed, it was on the vast platform of Germany, and more particularly in Wittenberg, in the heart of the empire, that the grand drama of the Reformation was to commence.

Let us contemplate the actors in the prologue which ushered in, or contributed to, the work of which Luther was appointed to be, in God's hands, the hero.

Of all the electors of the empire, the most powerful at that time was Frederic of Saxony, surnamed the Wise. The influence he exercised, joined to his

wealth and generosity, raised him above his equals.* God selected him to serve as a tree, under shadow of which the seed of truth might put forth its first shoot without being rooted up by the tempests around it.

Born at Torgau in 1463, he manifested, from his early youth, much love for science, philosophy, and piety. Succeeding, in 1487, in conjunction with his brother John, to the government of the hereditary states of his family, he received the dignity of elector from the Emperor Frederic III. In 1493 the pious prince undertook a pilgrimage to the Holy Sepulchre. Henry of Schaumburg on that sacred spot conferred upon him the order of the Holy Sepulchre. He returned to Saxony in the following summer. In 1502 he founded the University of Wittenberg, which was destined to be the nursery of the Reformation.

When the light dawned, he did not commit himself on either side, but stood by to secure it. No man was fitter for this office; he possessed the general esteem, and was in the intimate confidence of the emperor. He even acted for him in his absence. His wisdom consisted not in the skilful working of deep laid policy, but in an enlightened and prescient prudence, of which the first law was never for the sake of any self-interest to infringe the rules of honour and religion.

At the same time he felt in his heart the power of the word of God. One day, when the vicar-general, Staupitz, was in his company, the conversation turned on public declaimers: "All sermons," said the elector, "made up of mere subtleties and human traditions, are marvellously cold, without nerve or power, since there is no subtlety we can advance that may not by another subtlety be overturned. Holy Scripture alone is clothed with such power and majesty that, shaming us out of our rules of reasoning, it compels us to cry out, 'Never man spake as this.'" Staupitz assenting entirely to his opinion, the elector cordially extended his hand to him and said, "Promise me that you will always think thus."†

Frederic was precisely the prince that was needed for the cradle of the Reformation. Too much weakness on the part of those friendly to the work might have allowed it to be crushed. Too much haste would have caused too early an explosion of the storm that from its origin gathered against it. Frederic was moderate, but firm; he possessed that Christian grace which God has in all times required from his worshippers; he waited for God. He put in practice the wise counsel of Gamaliel: "If this work be of man, it will come to naught; if it be of God, we cannot overthrow it." "Things are come to such a pass," said the prince to one of the most enlightened men of his time, Spengler of Nuremberg, "that men can do no more: God alone can effect anything; therefore we must leave to his power those great events which are too hard for us." We may well admire the wisdom of Providence in the choice of such a prince to guard the small beginnings of its work.

Maximilian I., who wore the imperial crown from 1493 to 1519, may be reckoned among those who contributed to prepare the way of the Reformation. He afforded to the other princes the example of enthusiasm for literature and science. He was less attached than any other to the popes, and had even thoughts of seizing on the papacy. No one can say what it might have become in his hands; but we may be allowed to imagine from this circumstance, that a rival power to the pope, such as the Reformation, would not have reckoned the Emperor of Germany among its fiercest opponents.

Among even the princes of the Romish Church were found venerable men, whom sacred study and a sincere

* Qui præ multis pollebat principibus aliis, auctoritate, opibus, potentia, liberalitate et magnificentia. (Cochläus, Acta Lutheri, p. 3) † Luther, epp.

piety had prepared for the divine work about to be wrought in the world. Christopher of Stadion, Bishop of Augsburg, knew and loved the truth; but he would have had to sacrifice all by a courageous confession of it. Laurentius de Biba, Bishop of Wurtzburg, a kind, pious, and wise man, and esteemed by the emperor and princes, was accustomed to speak openly against the corruption of the Church. But he died in 1519, too early to take part in the Reformation. John VI., Bishop of Meisser, was used to say, "As often as I read the Bible, I find there a different religion from that which is taught to us." John Thurzo, Bishop of Breslau, was called by Luther the best bishop of the age.* But he too died in 1520. William Brignonet, Bishop of Meaux, contributed largely to introduce the Reformation in France. Who, indeed, can say to what extent the enlightened piety of these bishops, and of many others, was of use in preparing, each in his diocese, and beyond it, the great work of the Reformation?

But it was reserved to men of lower station than these princes or bishops, to become the chief instruments of God's providence in the work of preparation. It was the scholars and the learned, then termed *humanists*, who exercised the greatest influence on their age.

There existed at that time open war between these disciples of letters and the scholastic divines. The latter beheld with alarm the great movements going on in the field of intelligence, and took up with the notion that immobility and ignorance would be the best safeguards of the Church. It was to save Rome that divines opposed the revival of letters; but by so doing they in reality contributed to her ruin, and Rome herself unconsciously co-operated in it. In an unguarded moment, under the pontificate of Leo X., she forsook her old friends, and embraced her youthful adversaries. The papacy formed with literature a union which seemed likely to break the old alliance with the monastic orders. The popes did not at first perceive that what they had taken up as a toy was, in reality, a sword that might destroy them. Thus in the last century we beheld princes who received at their courts a tone of politics and a philosophy which, if they had experienced their full effect, would have overturned their thrones. The alliance of which we have spoken did not last long. Literature advanced, entirely regardless of that which might endanger the power of its patrons. The monks and the scholastic divines perceived that to forsake the pope would be to abandon their own interests. And the pope, notwithstanding the transient patronage which he bestowed upon the fine arts, adopted, when it suited his interests, measures most opposed to the spirit of the time.

The revival of letters presented at that time an animating spectacle. Let us sketch some lines of this picture, selecting such as have the closest connexion with the revival of the true faith.

In order that the truth might triumph, it was necessary that the arms that were to achieve the victory should be taken from the arsenal in which for ages they had lain hidden. These weapons were the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament. It was necessary to revive in Christendom the love and study of the sacred Greek and Hebrew texts. The man chosen by God for this work was John Reuchlin.

A very sweet-toned child's voice had been noticed in the choir of the church of Pforzheim. It attracted the attention of the Margrave of Baden. It proved to be that of John Reuchlin, a young boy of pleasing manners and of a sprightly disposition, the son of an honest citizen of the place. The Margrave treated him with great favour, and made choice of him, in 1473, to accompany his son Frederic to the University of Paris.

* Lutheri, epp i., p. 524.

The son of the Bailiff of Pforzheim, in transports of joy, arrived, in company with the prince, at this most celebrated school of the west. He there found the Spartan Hermonymos, and John Weissel, surnamed the *Light of the World*, and he had now an opportunity of studying, under the most able masters, the Greek and Hebrew, of which there was at that time no professor in Germany, and which he himself was destined one day to restore in the land of the Reformation. The young and indigent German transcribed for rich students the verses of Homer and the orations of Isocrates, and thus earned the means of prosecuting his studies and purchasing books.

But he heard other things from Weissel, which made a powerful impression on his mind. "The popes may be deceived," said Weissel. "All satisfaction made by men is blasphemy against Christ, who has completely reconciled and justified mankind. To God alone belongs the power of giving complete absolution. It is not necessary to confess our sins to the priests. There is no purgatory, unless it be God himself, who is a consuming fire, and purifies from all pollution."

When Reuchlin was hardly twenty, he taught philosophy and Greek and Latin at Bale, and it was then accounted almost a miracle that a German should speak Greek.

The partisans of Rome began to be uneasy when they saw men of independent character searching into these ancient treasures. "The Romans make a wry face," said Reuchlin, "and clamorously assert that all such literary labours are contrary to Roman piety, since the Greeks are schismatics. Oh! what pains and patience are needed to restore wisdom and learning to Germany!"

Soon after, Eberhard of Wurtemberg invited Reuchlin to Tubingen, to adorn that rising university; and in 1487 he took him into Italy. Chalcondylas, Aurispa, John Picus of Mirandola, were his friends and companions at Florence. And at Rome, when Eberhard had a solemn audience of the pope, surrounded by his cardinals, Reuchlin pronounced an address in such pure and elegant Latin, that the assembly, who expected nothing of that kind from a barbarous German, were in the utmost astonishment, and the pope exclaimed, "Certainly this man deserves to be ranked with the best orators of France and Italy."

Ten years after, Reuchlin was obliged to take refuge at Heidelberg, at the court of the Elector Philip, to escape the vengeance of the successor of Eberhard. Philip, in conjunction with John of Dalberg, Bishop of Worms, his friend and chancellor, endeavoured to diffuse the light that was beginning to dawn in all parts of Germany. Dalberg had formed a library, which was open to all the studious. Reuchlin made in this new field great efforts to enlighten and civilize the people.

Being sent to Rome by the elector, in 1498, on an important mission, he employed the time and money he could command, either in improving himself in the Hebrew, under the instruction of the learned Jew, Abdias Sphorna, or in purchasing whatever Hebrew and Greek manuscripts he could meet with, intending to use them as torches, to diffuse in his own country the light that was beginning to appear.

An illustrious Greek, Argyropylos, was explaining in that metropolis, to a numerous auditory, the wonderful progress his nation had formerly made in literature. The learned ambassador went with his suite to the room where the master was teaching, and on his entrance saluted him, and lamented the misery of Greece, then languishing under Turkish despotism. The astonished Greek asked the German, "Whence

come you, and do you understand Greek?" Reuchlin replied, "I am a German, and am not quite ignorant of your language." At the request of Argypopolis, he read and explained a passage of Thucydides, which the professor happened to have before him; upon which Argypopolis cried out in grief and astonishment, "Alas! alas! Greece, cast out and fugitive, is gone to hide herself beyond the Alps."

It was thus that the sons of barbarous Germany and those of ancient Greece met together in the palaces of Rome; thus it was that the east and the west gave each other the right hand of fellowship in this rendezvous of the world, and that the former poured into the hands of the latter those intellectual treasures which it had carried off in its escape from the barbarism of the Turks. God, when his plans require it, brings together in an instant, by some unlooked-for catastrophe, those who seemed for ever removed from each other.

On his return to Germany, Reuchlin was again permitted to take up his abode at Württemberg. It was at this time that he entered upon the labours that were most useful to Luther and to the Reformation. He translated and expounded the Penitential Psalms, revised the Vulgate, and especially distinguished himself by the publication of the first Hebrew and German grammar and dictionary. Reuchlin, by this labour, took off the seals from the ancient Scriptures, and made himself a name more enduring than brass.

But it was not alone by his writings, but also by his life, that Reuchlin sought to promote the cause of truth. He had great influence over the minds of youth, and who can estimate how much the Reformation owes to him on that account? We will mention but one example. A young man, a cousin of his, the son of an artisan, famous as a manufacturer of arms, whose name was Schwarzerd, came to lodge with his sister Elizabeth, for the purpose of studying under his direction. Reuchlin, delighted with the talents and diligence of his young pupil, adopted him, and spared neither advice, presents of books, example, nor anything else that was likely to make his relation useful to the Church and to his country. He rejoiced in seeing his work prosper in his hands; and, thinking his German name Schwarzerd too harsh, he translated it into Greek, according to the custom of the time, and called the young student *Melancthon*. This was the illustrious friend of Luther.

Soon after, the amiable Reuchlin was involved, much against his inclination, in a violent contest, which was one of the preludes of the Reformation.

There was at Cologne a baptised Jew, named Pfefferkorn, intimately connected with the inquisitor Hochstraten. This man and the Dominicans solicited and obtained from the Emperor Maximilian, probably with no bad motives, an order, requiring the Jews to bring all their Hebrew books (the Bible excepted) to the town-hall of the city in which they resided, there to be publicly burnt. The reason alleged was, that they were full of blasphemies against Jesus. It must be confessed that they were at least full of absurdities, and that the Jews themselves would not have lost much by the proposed measure. However, they did not think so; and no power could rightly deprive them of works which were, in their estimation, of great value. Add to which, the Dominicans might be influenced by other motives than zeal for the Gospel. It is probable that they expected, by this means, to extort considerable ransoms from the Jews.

The emperor asked Reuchlin to give his opinion of these works. The learned doctor pointed out the books that were written against Christianity, leaving them to the fate they deserved; but he tried to save

the rest. "The best way to convert the Jews," he added, "would be to establish in each university two masters of the Hebrew language, who should teach divines to read the Bible in Hebrew, and thus refute the Jewish doctors." The Jews, in consequence of this advice, had their writings restored to them.

The proselyte and the inquisitor, like ravens who see their prey escaping, uttered cries of rage and fury. They picked out different passages from the writings of Reuchlin, perverted the sense, declared the author a heretic, accused him of being secretly inclined to Judaism, and threatened him with the inquisition. Reuchlin was at first alarmed; but, these men becoming more insolent, and prescribing to him disgraceful conditions of peace, he published, in 1513, a "Defence against his Slanderers at Cologne," in which he described the whole party in the liveliest colours.

The Dominicans vowed vengeance. Hochstraten erected, at Mayence, a tribunal against Reuchlin. The writings of this learned man were condemned to the flames. Reuchlin appealed to Pope Leo X. This pope, who did not much like those narrow-minded and fanatical monks, referred the whole affair to the Bishop of Spire; the latter declared Reuchlin innocent, and condemned the monks to pay the expenses of the investigation.

This affair was of great importance, and made much noise in Germany. It exhibited, in the most revolting publicity, the very large class of monkish theologians; it drew together in closer alliance all the friends of learning—then called Reuchlinists, from the name of their distinguished head. This struggle was like an affair of advanced posts, which influenced, in a considerable degree, the great contest which the heroic courage of Luther afterward waged with error.

This union of letters with the faith is an important feature of the Reformation, and serves to distinguish it both from the establishment of Christianity, and from the revival in religion taking place in our own days. The Christians in the apostles' time had against them the intellectual cultivation of the age; and, with some exceptions, it is the same at this day. But the majority of men of letters were ranged on the side of the Reformers. Even general opinion was favourable to them. The work gained in extension: perhaps it lost in depth!

Luther, acknowledging all that Reuchlin had done, wrote to him shortly after his victory over the Dominicans: "The Lord has wrought in you, that the light of his holy word may again shine forth in Germany, where for so many ages it has been, alas! not only stifled, but extinct."

Reuchlin was about twelve years old when one of the greatest geniuses of the age was born. A man, full of vivacity and wit, named Gerard, a native of Gouda, in the Low Countries, had formed an attachment to the daughter of a physician, named Margaret. The principles of the Gospel did not govern his life; or, to say the least, his passion silenced them. His parents, and nine brothers, urged him to enter into the Church. He fled, leaving Margaret on the point of becoming a mother, and repaired to Rome. The shame-struck Margaret gave birth to a son. Gerard heard nothing of it; and, some time afterward, he received from his parents intelligence that she he loved was no more. Overwhelmed with grief, he took priest's orders, and devoted himself to the service of God. He returned to Holland; and, lo! Margaret was still living: she would never marry another; and Gerard remained faithful to his priest's vows. Their affection was con-

* Mai Vita J. Reuchlin, (Francof., 1687.) Mayerhoff J. Reuchlin und seine Zeit. (Berlin, 1830.)

centrated on their infant son. His mother had taken the tenderest care of him. The father, after his return, sent him to school when he was only four years old. He was not yet thirteen, when his master, Sinthemius of Deventer, embracing him one day in great joy, exclaimed: "That child will attain the highest summits of learning." This was Erasmus of Rotterdam.

About this time his mother died; and shortly after his father, from grief, followed her.

The young Erasmus,* alone in the world, felt the strongest aversion to the monastic life, which his tutors would have constrained him to embrace. At last a friend persuaded him to enter himself in a convent of regular canons; which might be done without taking orders. Soon after we find him at the court of the Archbishop of Cambray; and, a little later, at the University of Paris. There he pursued his studies in the greatest poverty, but with the most indefatigable perseverance. Whenever he could obtain any money, he employed it in the purchase of Greek authors—and then, of clothes. Often the poor Hollander solicited in vain the generosity of his protectors: hence, in after-life, it was his greatest satisfaction to contribute to the support of young and poor students. Devoted incessantly to the investigation of truth and learning, he yet shrunk from the study of theology, from a fear lest he should discover therein any error, and so be denounced as a heretic.

The habits of application which he formed at this period, continued to distinguish him through life. Even in his journeys, which were generally on horseback, he was not idle. He was accustomed to compose on the high road, or travelling across the country, and, on arriving at an inn, to note down his thoughts. It is in this way that he composed his celebrated "*Praise of Folly*," during a journey from Italy to England.

Erasmus very early acquired a high reputation among scholars.

But the monks, irritated by his "*Praise of Folly*,"† in which he had turned them to ridicule, vowed vengeance against him. Courtied by princes, he constantly excused himself from their invitations; preferring to gain his livelihood with Frobenius the printer, by correcting his proofs, to a life of luxury and favour in the splendid courts of Charles V., of Henry VIII., and Francis I.; or even to encircling his head with the cardinal's hat, which was offered to him.‡

From 1509 he taught at Oxford. In 1516 he came to Bale, and in 1521 fixed his abode there.

What was his influence on the Reformation?

It has been too much exalted by some, and too much depreciated by others. Erasmus never was, and never could have become, a Reformer; but he prepared the way for others. Not only did he in his time diffuse a love of learning, and a spirit of inquiry and discussion which led much farther than he himself would follow, but, in addition to this, he was able, sheltered by the protection of great prelates and powerful princes, to unveil and combat the vices of the Church by the most pungent satires.

He did more; not satisfied with attacking abuses, Erasmus laboured to recall divines from the scholastic theology to the study of the Holy Scriptures. "The highest use of the revival of philosophy," said he, "will be to discover in the Bible the simple and pure Christianity." A noble saying! and would to God that the organs of the philosophy of our days understood

as well their proper duty. "I am firmly resolved," said he again, "to die in the study of the Scripture. In that is my joy and my peace."* "The sum of all Christian philosophy," says he in another place, "is reduced to this: to place all our hope in God, who, without our deserts, by *grace*, gives us all things by Jesus Christ; to know that we are redeemed by the death of his Son; to die to the lusts of the world; and to walk conformably to his doctrine and example; not merely without doing wrong to any, but doing good to all; to bear with patience our trial in the hope of a future recompense; and, finally, to ascribe no honour to ourselves on the score of our virtues, but to render praise to God for all our strength and works. And it is with this that man must be imbued until it becomes to him a second nature."†

But Erasmus was not content with making so open a confession of the evangetic doctrine; his labours did more than his words. Above all, he rendered a most important service to the truth by publishing his New Testament; the first, and for a long time, the only critical edition. It appeared at Bale in 1516, the year previous to the usual date of the Reformation. He accompanied it with a Latin translation, wherein he boldly corrected the Vulgate, and with notes, defending his corrections. Thus Erasmus did that for the New Testament which Reuchlin had done for the Old.

Divines and learned men might thus read the word of God in the original language; and at a later period they were enabled to recognise the purity of the doctrine of the Reformers. "Would to God," said Erasmus, in sending forth this work—"would to God it might bear as much fruit for Christianity as it has cost me labour and application." His wish was realized. In vain did the monks clamour against it. "He pretends to correct the Holy Ghost!" said they. The New Testament of Erasmus shed a brilliant light. This great man also diffused a taste for the word of God by his paraphrases of the Epistle to the Romans. The effect of his studies went beyond his own intentions: Reuchlin and Erasmus gave the Scriptures to the learned; Luther, to the people.

Erasmus served as a stepping-stone to several others. Many who would have taken alarm at evangelical truths brought forward in all their energy and purity, suffered themselves to be drawn on by him, and became afterward the most zealous actors in the Reformation.

But the very causes that made him a fit instrument to prepare this great work, disqualified him for accomplishing it. "Erasmus knows very well how to expose error," said Luther, "but he does not know how to teach the truth." The Gospel of Christ was not the fire that kindled and sustained his life, the centre around which his activity revolved. In him Christianity was second to *learning*. He was too much influenced by vanity to acquire a decided influence over his contemporaries. He carefully weighed the effect that each step might have upon his own reputation. There was nothing that he liked better to talk about than himself and his own glory. "The pope," he wrote to an intimate friend, with a childish vanity, at the period when he declared himself the adversary of Luther—"the pope has sent me a diploma full of good-will and honourable testimonials. His secretary declares that it is an unprecedented honour, and that the pope himself dictated it word for word."

Erasmus and Luther are the representatives of two great ideas relative to a Reformation—of two great parties in their age, and in all ages. The one class

* He was named Gerhard after his father. He translated this Dutch name into Latin, (Desiderius,) and into Greek, (Ερasmus.)

† Εὐκρίων μορτας. Seven editions of this book were sold in a few months.

‡ A principibus facile mihi contingeret fortuna, nisi mihi nimium dulcis esset libertas. (Epist. ad Pirck.)

* Ad Servatium.

† Ad Joh. Slechtman, 1519. Hæc sunt animis hominum inculeanda, sic, ut velut in naturam transeant. (Er. Epp. i. p. 680.)

are men of a timid prudence; the other those of active courage and resolution. These two great bodies of men existed at this period, and they were personified in these two illustrious heads. The former thought that the cultivation of theological science would lead gradually and without violence to the Reformation of the Church. The more energetic class thought that the spread of more correct ideas among the learned would not put an end to the gross superstitions of the people, and that to reform such or such an abuse was of little importance, so long as the life of the Church was not thoroughly renovated.

"A disadvantageous peace," said Erasmus, "is better than the most just war."* He thought—and how many Erasmuses have lived since that time, and are still living) he thought that a Reformation which should shake the Church would risk the overturning it; he foresaw with terror passions excited, evil mingling everywhere with the little good that might be done; existing institutions destroyed without others being substituted in their stead, and the vessel of the Church letting in water on every side, ingulfed at last in the raging billows. "They who let in the ocean to new beds," said he, "are often deceived in the result of their toil: for the mighty element, once admitted, stops not where they would have it stayed, but overflows where it will, spreading devastation around."†

But the more courageous party was not at a loss for an answer. History had sufficiently proved that a candid exhibition of the truth, and a decided war against imposture, could alone ensure the victory. If they had used caution and political artifice, the papal court would have extinguished the light in its first glimmerings. Had not gentler means been tried for ages? Had they not seen council after council convoked with the intention of reforming the Church? All had been in vain. Why again try an experiment that had so often failed?

Undoubtedly a thorough Reformation was not to be effected without violence. But when has anything great or good appeared among men without causing some disturbance? Would not the fear of seeing evil mingling with good, if it were allowed, put a stop to the very noblest and holiest undertakings? We must not fear the evil that may arise from general disturbance, but we must strengthen ourselves to resist and overcome it.

Is there not, moreover, a marked difference between the agitation which arises from human passions, and that which is wrought by the Spirit of God? The former loosens the bonds of society, but the latter strengthens them. How erroneous was it to suppose, with Erasmus, that in the state in which Christianity then was, with that mixture of opposing elements, of truth and error, of life and death, a violent convulsion could possibly be avoided. Close, if you can, the crater of Vesuvius when the contending elements are already agitating its bosom! The middle ages had witnessed more than one violent commotion, with an atmosphere less stormy than that existing at the time of the Reformation. We must not at such a moment think of arresting and repressing, but rather of directing and guiding.

If the Reformation had not broke forth, who can estimate the ruin that would have ensued? Society a prey to a thousand destructive elements, without any regenerating or preserving principles, would have been frightfully subverted. Certainly a Reformation such as Erasmus contemplated, and such as many moderate

but timid men of our times still dream of, would have overturned Christian society. The people, deprived of the light and piety which a true Reformation brought down even to the lowest ranks, abandoned to violent passion and a restless spirit of revolt, would have burst the chain like an enraged animal roused by provocation to uncontrollable fury.

The Reformation was nothing less than the coming in of the Spirit of God among men, a regulating principle, placed by God upon the earth. It might, it is true, move the elements of ferment which are hidden in the human heart, but God triumphed over all. The evangelical doctrine, the truth of God, penetrating among the mass of the people, destroyed what was destined to be destroyed—but everywhere strengthened what was to be maintained. The effect of the Reformation was to build up. Only prejudice could say that it lowered. And it has been justly observed that the ploughshare might as well be accused of injuring the earth it breaks up only to prepare it for fruitfulness.

The great maxim of Erasmus was, "Give light, and the darkness will disperse of itself." The principle is good; Luther acted upon it. But when the enemies of the light attempted to extinguish it, or to snatch the torch from him who bore it, was it fit that, from a love of peace, they should be suffered to do so? Was it not a duty to resist the wicked?

Erasmus was deficient in courage. But courage is as necessary to effect a reformation as to capture a city. There was much timidity in his character. From his youth he trembled at the mention of death. He took the most extraordinary care of his health. He would avoid, at any sacrifice, a place where contagion prevailed. His relish for the comforts of life surpassed even his vanity, and this was his reason for declining more than one brilliant offer.

Thus it was that he did not pretend to the part of a Reformer. "If the corrupted morals of the court of Rome require a great and speedy remedy," said he, "it is not for me, or such as me, to effect it."* He had none of that strength of faith which animated Luther. While the latter was ever ready to lay down his life for the truth, Erasmus, with perfect ingenuousness, could say, "Let others affect martyrdom: for my part, I think myself unworthy of that honour.† I fear, if a tumult arose, I should be like Peter in his fall."

Erasmus, by his writings and discourses, had, more than any other person, hastened the Reformation; and yet he trembled when he saw the tempest he had raised approaching. He would have given everything to restore the former calm, even with its heavy vapours. But it was too late—the dam was broken down. It was no longer possible to stay the violence of the torrent that was at once to cleanse and fertilize the world. Erasmus was powerful, so long as he was an instrument in God's hands. When he ceased to be that, he was nothing.

In the result Erasmus knew not on which side to range himself. None pleased him, and he dreaded all. "It is dangerous to speak," said he, "and dangerous to be silent." In all great religious movements there are such undecided characters—respectable in some things, but hindering the truth, and who, from a desire to displease no one, displeases all.

What, we may ask, would become of truth, if God were not to raise up in its defence more courageous champions?

Listen to the advice given by Erasmus to Vigilius Zuichem, afterward president of the superior court of Brussels, as to his department toward the sectaries, (for

* "Malo hunc, qualis qualis est, rerum humanarum statum quam novos excitari tumultus," said Erasmus.

† Semel admissum non ea fertur, qua destinaret admissor. (Erasm. Epp. i., p. 953.)

* Ingens aliquid et præsens remedium, certe meum non est. (Et. Epp. i., p. 653.)

† Ego me non arbitror hoc honore dignum. (Ibid.)

that was the name he gave to the reformers.) "My friendship for you makes me to desire that you should keep yourself quite clear of contagion of sects, and that you give them no ground to claim Zuichem as their own. If you approve their teaching, at least dissemble your approval; and, above all, never dispute with them. A juriscult must be on his guard with these people, as a certain dying man eluded the devil. The devil asked him what he believed. The dying man, fearing that, if he confessed, he should be surprised in some heresy, answered, 'What the Church believes.' His interrogator pressed him with the question, 'What does the Church believe?' The other replied, 'What I believe!' Again, the devil, 'And what do you believe?' and the dying man rejoined, 'What the Church believes.'"

So the duke, George of Saxony, the mortal enemy of Luther, having received an equivocal answer to a question he had addressed to Erasmus, exclaimed aloud, "My dear Erasmus, wash me the robe, if you can, without wetting it." Secundus Curio, in one of his works, depicts two heavens, the papal and the Christian. He found Erasmus in neither; but perceived him incessantly wheeling, in never ending eddies, between both.

Such was Erasmus. He wanted that "liberty of heart" which makes truly free. How different would he have been, if he had given up *himself* to devote his soul to truth. But, after trying to work some reforms, with the approbation of the heads of the Church—after having, for the sake of Rome, abandoned the Reformation, when he saw that the two could not walk together—he lost all his influence with either. On the one side his recantations could not repress the indignation of the fanatic partisans of popery. They felt the injury he had done them, and never forgave it. The monks poured forth abuse on him from their pulpits. They called him a second Lucian, a fox that had laid waste the vineyard of the Lord. A doctor of Constance had the portrait of Erasmus hung up in his study, that he might spit in his face as often as he pleased.

And, on the other hand, Erasmus, forsaking the standard of the Gospel, found himself deprived of the affection and esteem of the noblest men of his age, and had doubtless to suffer the loss of those heavenly consolations which God sheds into the hearts of those who act as good soldiers of Christ. So, at least, it would seem, from the bitter tears, painful vigils, disturbed rest, failure of appetite, and loss of relish for literary pursuits, once his only enjoyments, wrinkled forehead, sallow complexion, and dejected and sorrowful expression, that hatred of what he calls a cruel life, and desire of death, which he described to his friends.† Poor Erasmus!

The enemies of Erasmus went a little beyond the truth, when they said, on the appearance of Luther, "Erasmus laid the egg, and Luther has hatched it."‡

The same signs of new life that were seen among the princes, the bishops, and the learned, were visible among men of the world, nobles, knights, and warriors. The nobles of Germany played an important

part in the Reformation. Many of the most illustrious sons of Germany formed a close alliance with literary men, and, inflamed with a zeal, sometimes indiscreet, made efforts to deliver their dependants from the yoke of Rome.

Various causes would contribute to make friends to the Reformation among the nobles. Some, having frequented the universities, had there received into their bosoms that fire with which the learned were animated. Others, educated in noble sentiments, had hearts open to the elevating doctrines of the Gospel. Many found in the Reformation a vague and chivalrous something to charm and captivate them. Others, it must be owned, were influenced by ill will to the clergy, who had helped, under the rule of Maximilian, to deprive them of their ancient independence, and reduce them to submission to their princes. Full of enthusiasm, they deemed the Reformation the prelude of a great political renovation; they hoped to behold the empire emerge from the crisis with a splendour altogether unprecedented, and a better and more glorious state of things established in the world as much by the sword of chivalry as by the word of God.*

Ulric de Hütten, surnamed the Demosthenes of Germany, from his philippics against the papacy, forms, as it were, the link which then held united the knights and the men of letters. He was no less distinguished by his writings than by his military exploits. Descended from an ancient family of Franconia, he was sent, when eleven years old, to the convent of Fulda, to become in due time a monk. But Ulric, who felt no inclination for that vocation, fled from the convent in his sixteenth year, and repaired to the University of Cologne, where he devoted himself to the study of languages and poetry. At a later period he led a wandering life; was present, in 1513, at the siege of Padua, in the capacity of a common soldier; saw Rome and all her abominations, and there sharpened the darts which he afterward hurled against her.

On his return to Germany, Hütten composed against Rome a writing entitled *The Roman Trinity*. He there strips bare the disorders of that court, and shows the necessity of putting a forcible stop to its oppressions. "There are three things," says a traveller, named Vadiscus, introduced in this tract, "which we commonly bring away with us from Rome—a bad conscience, a vitiated stomach, and an empty purse. There are three things which Rome does not believe in—the immortality of the soul, the resurrection of the dead, and hell. There are three things which Rome trades in—the grace of Christ, the dignities of the church, and women." The last writing obliged Hütten to quit the court of the archbishop of Mentz, where he was residing when he composed it.

When Reuchlin's affair with the Dominicans made a noise, Hütten took the part of the learned doctor. One of his university acquaintances, Crotus Robianus, and others, composed at that time the famous satire, known by the name of "Letters of Obscure Men," which first appeared in 1516, one year before the theses of Luther. This writing was attributed especially to Hütten, and it is very probable that he had a large share in its composition. In it the monks, who were the enemies of Reuchlin, and are exhibited as the authors of these letters, discourse of the affairs of the time, and of theological subjects, in their manner and in barbarous Latin. They address to their correspondent Eratius, professor at Cologne, the most idolic and

* Erasm. Epist., 374.

† Vigiliæ moleste, sommus irrequietus, cibus insipidus omnis, ipsum quoque musarum studium . . . ipsa frontis meæ mæstitia, vultus palor, oculorum subtristis dejectio . . . (Erasm. Epp. 1, p. 1380.)

‡ The works of Erasmus were edited by John Leclerc, at Liege, in 1703, in 10 vols. folio. For his life, consult Buisson Vie d'Erasm. Paris, 1737. A Müller Leben des Erasmus—Hamb. 1828; and the life inserted by Leclerc in his "Bibliothèque Choisie." See also the able and impartial performance of M. Nisard, (Revue des deux mondes)—yet M. Nisard seems to me to be mistaken in his estimate of Luther and Erasmus.

* Animus ingens et ferox, viribus pollens. Nam si consilia et conatus Hütteni non defecissent, quasi nervi copiarum, atque potentia, jam mutatio omnium rerum extitisset, et quasi orbis status publici fuisset conversus.—Camer. Vita Melanethonia.

useless questions; they discover with the utmost simplicity their gross ignorance, incredulity, superstition, and low and vulgar spirit, and at the same time their pride, and fanatical, and persecuting zeal. They relate to him many of their low adventures and debaucheries, and many scandalous particulars of the conduct of Hochstraten, Pfefferkorn, and other heads of their party. These letters are very amusing, from their mixture of hypocrisy and stupidity: and the whole was so much to the life, that the Dominicans and Franciscans of England received the writing with great approbation, and thought it to be really composed in the principles and for the defence of their order. A prior of Brabant, in his credulous simplicity, bought a large number of copies, and sent them as presents to the most distinguished of the Dominicans. The monks, more and more irritated, importuned Leo X. for a severe bull against all who should dare to read these letters; but that pontiff refused them. They were compelled to endure the general ridicule, and to suppress their anger. No work ever struck a more terrible blow at the pillars of popery. But it was not by ridicule and satire that the Gospel was ordained to triumph. If its friends had continued their progress in these ways; if the Reformation, instead of attacking error with the weapons of God, had had recourse to the spirit of mockery, its cause had been lost. Luther loudly condemned these satires. One of his acquaintances having sent him one, entitled "The Burthen of the Petition of Pasquin." "The absurdities you have sent me," said he, "appear to be the production of an ill-regulated mind. I have shown them to some friends, and they all formed the same opinion of them." And in reference to the same work, he wrote to another of his correspondents. "This petition seems to me a freak of the same buffoon who wrote the Letters of Obscure Men. I approve his design, but not his performance; for he deals only in reproachful and insulting language."* This judgment may be thought severe, but it shows the spirit of Luther, and how he arose above his contemporaries. Yet it must be added that he did not always follow these wise maxims.

Ulric, being obliged to renounce the protection of the Archbishop of Mentz, courted the favour of Charles V., who was then at variance with the pope.

He repaired to Brussels, where Charles held his court. But, far from gaining any advantage, he learned that the pope had required the emperor to send him, bound hand and foot, to Rome. The inquisitor Hochstraten, the persecutor of Reuchlin, was one of those charged with the office of bringing him to trial. Indignant that his enemies should have dared to make such a demand of the emperor, Ulric quitted Brabant. Just outside Brussels he met Hochstraten on the road. The terrified inquisitor fell upon his knees and commended his soul to God and the saints. "No," said the knight; "I will not soil my weapon with thy blood!" He gave him some strokes with the flat of his sword, and allowed him to pass unhurt.

Hütten sought refuge in the Castle of Ebernberg, where Francis of Sickingen offered an asylum to all who were persecuted by the Ultramontanes. It was there that his zeal, panting for the enfranchisement of his nation, dictated those remarkable letters addressed to Charles V., Frederic the elector of Saxony, Albert, Archbishop of Mentz, and the princes and nobility, which place him in the first rank of orators. There he composed all those writings, destined to be read and comprehended by the common people, which spread throughout the German population a horror of Rome and a love of liberty. Devoted to the cause of the Reformer, his design was to lead the nobles to take up

arms in favour of the Gospel, and to rush sword in hand on that Rome which Luther aimed to destroy only by the word and invincible power of the truth.

And yet, in the midst of all this warlike exultation, it is delightful to find in Hütten kind and considerate feelings. At the death of his parents, he gave up to his brothers all the property of the family, though he was the eldest son, and even begged them not to write to him nor send him any money, lest, notwithstanding their innocence, they should be exposed to the malice of his enemies, and fall with him into the pit.

If truth cannot acknowledge him as one of her children, for she ever walks in company with holiness of life and charity of heart, she will at least accord to him an honourable mention as one of the most formidable enemies of error.*

The same may be said of Francis of Sickingen, his illustrious friend and protector. This noble knight, whom many of his contemporaries judged worthy of the imperial crown, shines in the foremost rank of the warlike antagonists of Rome. Though delighting in the noise of battles, he was full of ardour for learning, and veneration for its professors. At the head of an army which threatened Würtemberg, he commanded that in case Stutgard should be taken by assault, the house and property of the distinguished scholar, John Reuchlin, should be respected. He afterward invited him to his camp, embraced him, and tendered him his assistance in the contest between him and the monks of Cologne. Chivalry had for a long time prided itself in despising learning. The period we are retracing presents a new spectacle. Under the ponderous cuirasses of Sickingen and Hütten, we perceive that new movement of the general intelligence then everywhere beginning to make itself felt. The Reformation gave to the world, as its first fruits, warriors who were friends of the arts and of peace.

Hütten, during his residence at the Castle of Sickingen, after his return from Brussels, encouraged the brave knight to study the evangelical doctrine, and explained to him the main truths on which it is based. "And is there any man," exclaimed Sickingen, in astonishment, "that dares seek to overturn such a doctrine! Who dares to attempt it?"

Several who were at a later period distinguished as Reformers, found a refuge in his castle. Among others, Martin Bucer, Aquila, Schwebel, Ecclampadius; so that Hütten, with some reason, designated Ebernberg the "house of the just." Ecclampadius preached, according to his custom, every day at the castle. Nevertheless the warriors there collected were 'ere long weary of hearing so much of the mild virtues of Christianity; the sermons were too long for them, though Ecclampadius did his best to be brief. They, however, came every day to church, but it was merely to hear the benediction, or to make a short prayer, so that Ecclampadius was used to exclaim, "Alas! the word is here sown upon rocks."

Soon after, Sickingen, wishing to help the cause of truth in his own fashion, declared war against the Archbishop of Treves, "to open a door," as he said, "for the Gospel." It was in vain that Luther, who had then appeared, dissuaded him from it; he attacked Treves with five thousand horse and a thousand foot. The courageous archbishop, assisted by the Palatine and the Landgrave of Hesse, compelled him to retreat. In the spring following, the allies besieged him in his Castle of Landstein. After a bloody assault, Sickingen was obliged to retire: he was mortally wounded. The three princes penetrated into the fortress, and, passing through its apartments, found the lion-hearted knight

* Lutheri Epp. l. p. 37, 38.

* Hütten's works have been published at Berlin by Munichen, 1922 to 1926, in 5 vols., 8vo.

in a vault, stretched on his death bed. He put forth his hand to the Palatine, without seeming to notice the princes who accompanied him. But they overwhelmed him with questions and reproaches. "Leave me in quiet," said he, "for I must now prepare to answer to a greater Lord than ye." When Luther heard of his death, he exclaimed, "The Lord is just but wonderful! It is not by the sword that he will have his gospel propagated."

Such was the melancholy end of a warrior who, as emperor, or as an elector, might perhaps have raised Germany to a high degree of glory, but who, confined within a narrow circle, expended uselessly the great powers with which he was gifted. It was not in the tumultuous minds of these warriors that divine truth came to fix her abode. It was not by their arms that the truth was to prevail; and God, by bringing to nought the mad projects of Sickingen, confirmed anew the testimony of St. Paul, "The weapons of our warfare are not carnal, but mighty through God."

Another knight, Harmut of Cronberg, the friend of Hütten and Sickingen, appears, however, to have had more wisdom and knowledge of the truth. He wrote with much modesty to Leo X., urging him to restore his temporal power to him to whom it belonged, namely, to the emperor. Addressing his subjects as a father, he endeavoured to explain to them the doctrines of the Gospel, and exhorted them to faith, obedience and trust in Jesus Christ, "who," added he, "is the sovereign Lord of all." He resigned to the emperor a pension of two hundred ducats, "because he would no longer serve one who gave ear to the enemies of the truth." And we find a saying of his recorded which places him, in our judgment, above Hütten and Sickingen: "Our heavenly teacher, the Holy Ghost, can, when he pleases, teach us in one hour much more of the faith of Christ, than could be learned in ten years at the University of Paris."

However, those who only look for the friends of the Reformation on the steps of thrones,* or in cathedrals and academies, and who suppose it had no friends among the people, are greatly mistaken. God, who was preparing the hearts of the wise and powerful, was also preparing among the lowest of the people many simple and humble men, who were one day to become the promoters of his truth. The history of those times shows the excitement that prevailed among the lower classes. There were not only many young men who rose to fill the highest offices in the Church, but there were men who continued all their lives employed in the humblest occupations, who powerfully contributed to the revival of Christianity. We relate some circumstances in the life of one of them.

He was the son of a tailor named Hans Sachs, and was born at Nuremberg, the 5th November, 1494. He was named Hans (John) after his father, and had made some progress in his studies, when a severe illness obliging him to abandon them, he applied himself to the trade of a shoemaker. Young Hans took advantage of the liberty this humble profession afforded to his mind to search into higher subjects better suited to his inclination. Since music had been banished from the castles of the nobles, it seems to have sought and found an asylum among the lower orders of the merry cities of Germany. A school for singing was held in the church of Nuremberg. The exercises in which young Hans joined opened his heart to religious impressions, and helped to excite in him a taste for poetry and music. However, the young man's genius could not long be confined within the walls of a workshop. He wished to see that world of which he had read so much in books, of which his companions had

told him so much, and which his youthful imagination peopled with wonders. In 1511, he took his bundle on his shoulders, and set out, directing his course toward the south. The young traveller, who met with merry companions on his road, students who were passing through the country, and many dangerous attractions, soon felt within himself a fearful struggle. The lusts of life and his holy resolutions contended for the mastery. Trembling for the issue, he fled and sought refuge in the little town of Wels, in Austria, (1513,) where he lived in retirement, and in the cultivation of the fine arts. The Emperor Maximilian happened to pass through the town with a brilliant retinue. The young poet was carried away by the splendour of this court. The prince received him into his hunting establishment, and Hans again forgot his better resolutions in the joyous chambers of the palace of Inspruck. But again his conscience loudly reproached him. The young huntsman laid aside his glittering uniform, set out, repaired to Schwartz, and afterward to Munich. It was there, in 1514, at the age of twenty, he sang his first hymn, "to the honour of God," to a well known chaunt. He was loaded with applause. Everywhere in his travels he had occasion to notice numerous and melancholy proofs of the abuses under which religion was labouring.

On his return to Nuremberg, Hans settled in life, married, and became the father of a family. When the Reformation burst forth, he lent an attentive ear. He clung to that holy book which had already become dear to him as a poet, and which he now no longer searched for pictures and music, but for the light of truth. To this sacred truth he soon dedicated his lyre. From a humble workshop, situated at one of the gates of the imperial city of Nuremberg, proceeded sounds that resounded through all Germany, preparing the minds of men for a new era, and everywhere endearing to the people the great revolution which was then in progress. The spiritual songs of Hans Sachs, his Bible in verse, powerfully assisted this work. It would perhaps be difficult to say to which it was most indebted, the Prince Elector of Saxony, Administrator of the empire, or the shoemaker of Nuremberg!

There was at this time something in every class of society that presaged a Reformation. In every quarter signs were manifest, and events were pressing forward that threatened to overturn the work of ages of darkness, and to bring about "a new order of things." The light discovered in that age had communicated to all countries, with inconceivable rapidity, a multitude of new ideas. The minds of men, which had slept for so many ages, seemed resolved to redeem, by their activity, the time they had lost. To have left them idle and without nourishment, or to have offered them no other food than that which had long sustained their languishing existence, would have shown great ignorance of human nature. The mind of man saw clearly what was, and what was coming, and surveyed with daring eye the immense gulph that separated these two worlds. Great princes were seated upon the throne; the ancient colossus of Rome was tottering under its own weight; the by-gone spirit of chivalry was leaving the world, and giving place to a new spirit which breathed at the same time from the sanctuaries of learning and from the dwellings of the common people; the art of printing had given wings to the written word, which carried it, like certain seeds, to the most distant regions; the discovery of the Indies enlarged the boundaries of the world. Every thing proclaimed a mighty revolution at hand.

But whence was the stroke to come that should throw down the ancient edifice, and call up a new

* See Chateaubriand *Etudes Historiques*.

structure from the ruins! No one could answer this question. Who had more wisdom than Frederic? Who had more learning than Reuchlin? Who had more talent than Erasmus? Who had more wit and energy than Hütten? Who had more courage than Sickingen? Who had more virtue than Cronberg? And yet it was neither Frederic, nor Reuchlin, nor Erasmus, nor Hütten, nor Sickingen, nor Cronberg. Learned men, princes, warriors, the Church itself, all had undermined some of the old

foundations; but there they had stopped: and no where was seen the hand of power that was to be God's instrument.

However, all felt that it would soon be seen. Some pretended to have discovered in the stars sure indications of its appearing. Some, seeing the miserable state of religion, foretold the near approach of Antichrist. Others, on the contrary, presaged some reformation at hand. The world was in expectation. Luther appeared.

BOOK II.

THE YOUTH, CONVERSION, AND EARLY LABOURS OF LUTHER.

1483—1517

All things were ready. God who prepares his work for ages, accomplishes it, when his time is come, by the feeblest instruments. It is the method of God's providence to effect great results by inconsiderable means. This law, which pervades the kingdom of nature, is discerned also in the history of mankind. God chose the Reformers of the Church from the same condition, and wordly circumstances, from whence he had before taken the Apostles. He chose them from that humble class which, though not the lowest, can hardly be said to belong to the middle ranks. Every thing was thus to make manifest to the world that the work was not of man, but of God. The reformer, Zwingle, emerged from a shepherd's hut among the Alps; Melancthon, the great theologian of the Reformation, from an armourer's workshop, and Luther from the cottage of a poor miner.

The opening period of a man's life,—that in which his natural character is formed and developed under the hand of God,—is always important. It is especially so in Luther's career. The whole Reformation was there.

The different phases of this work succeeded each other in the mind of him who was to be the instrument for it, before it was publicly accomplished in the world. The knowledge of the Reformation effected in the heart of Luther himself is, in truth, the key to the Reformation of the Church. It is only by studying the work in the individual, that we can comprehend the general work. They who neglect the former, will know but the form and exterior signs of the latter. They may gain knowledge of certain events and results, but they will never comprehend the intrinsic nature of that renovation; for the principle of life that was the soul of it will remain unknown to them. Let us then study the Reformation of Luther himself, before we contemplate the facts that changed the state of Christendom.

John Luther, the son of a peasant of the village of Mora, near Eisenach, in the county of Mansfeld, in Thuringia, descended from an ancient and widely-spread family of humble peasantry,* married the daughter of an inhabitant of Neustadt, in the bishopric of Würzburg, named Margaret Lindemann. The new married couple left Eisenach, and went to settle in the little town of Eisleben, in Saxony.

Seckendorff relates, on the testimony of Relhan, the superintendent of Eisenach in 1601, that the mother of Luther, thinking her time was not near, had gone to

the fair of Eisleben, and that there she was brought to bed of her son. Notwithstanding the credit that is due to Seckendorff, this fact does not seem well authenticated; indeed, it is not alluded to by any of the oldest historians of Luther; moreover, the distance from Mora to Eisleben must be about twenty-four leagues—a journey not likely to have been undertaken in the state in which Luther's mother then was, for the sake of going to a fair; and, lastly, the testimony of Luther himself appears to contradict this assertion.*

John Luther was a man of upright character, diligent in his business, open-hearted, and possessing a strength of purpose bordering upon obstinacy. Of more cultivated mind than the generality of his class, he read much. Books were then rare; but John did not neglect any opportunity of procuring them. They were his recreation in the intervals of rest, that his severe and assiduous labours allowed him. Margaret possessed those virtues which adorn good and pious women. Modesty, the fear of God, and devotion, especially marked her character. She was considered by the mothers of families in the place where she resided, as a model worthy of their imitation.†

It is not precisely known how long the new-married couple had been settled at Eisleben, when, on the tenth of November, at eleven o'clock in the evening, Margaret gave birth to a son. Melancthon often questioned the mother of his friends as to the time of her son's birth. "I well remember the day and the hour," replied she; "but I am not certain about the year." But James, the brother of Luther, an honest and upright man, said that, according to the opinion of all the family, Martin was born in the year of our Lord 1483, on the tenth of November. It was the eve of St. Martin.‡ The first thought of his pious parents was to devote to God, by the rite of baptism, the child that had been sent them. The next day, which was Tuesday, the father, with joy and gratitude, carried his son to St. Peter's church. It was there he received the seal of his dedication to the Lord. They named him Martin, in memory of the day.

Little Martin was not six months old, when his parents left Eisleben, to go to Mansfeld, which is only five leagues distant. The mines of Mansfeld were then much celebrated. John Luther, an industrious

* Ego natus sum in Eisleben baptizatusque apud Sanctum Petrum ibidem. Parentes mei de prope Isenaco illuc migrarunt. (L. Epp. i. p. 390.)

† Intuebanturque in eam ceteræ honeste mulieres, ut in exemplar virtutum. (Melancthon Vita Lutheri.)

‡ Melancthon Vita Lutheri.

* Vestis familia est et late propagata mediocrium hominum. (Melancthon Vita Lutheri.)

man, feeling that he should perhaps be called upon to bring up a numerous family, hoped to get a better livelihood there for himself and his children. It was in this town that the understanding and physical powers of young Luther were first developed; it was there that his activity began to display itself; there he began to speak and act. The plains of Mansfield, the banks of the Vipper, were the theatre of his first sports with the children of the neighbourhood.

The early years of their abode at Mansfield were full of difficulty for the worthy John and his wife. They lived at first in extreme poverty. "My parents," said the Reformer, "were very poor. My father was a woodcutter, and my mother has often carried the wood on her back, that she might earn wherewith to bring us children up. They endured the hardest labour for our sakes." The example of parents whom he revered, and the habits they trained him to, very early accustomed Luther to toil and frugal fare. How often may Martin, when a child, have accompanied his mother to the wood, and made up and brought to her his little faggot.

There are blessings promised to the labour of the righteous, and John Luther experienced their reality. He gradually made his way, and established at Mansfield two small furnaces for iron. By the side of these forges little Martin grew up—and it was with the earnings of this industry that his father was afterward able to place him at school. "It was from a miner's fire-side," says the worthy Mathesius, "that one who was destined to recast vital Christianity was to go forth: an expression of God's purpose, by his means, to cleanse the sons of Levi, and refine them as gold in His furnace."* Respected by all for his uprightness, irreproachable conduct, and good sense, he was made one of the council of Mansfield, the chief town of the district so called. Circumstances of too pinching want might have weighed down their child's spirit; while comparatively easy circumstances would dilate his heart and raise his character.

John took advantage of his new appointment, to court the society he preferred. He paid great attention to the learned, and often invited to his table the ecclesiastics and schoolmasters of the place. His house afforded a sample of those social meetings of citizens that did honour to Germany in the beginning of the sixteenth century. It was a kind of mirror, to which came, and wherein were reflected, the numerous subjects which successively took possession of the agitated stage of the times. The child derived advantage from this. Doubtless the sight of these men, to whom so much respect was shown in his father's house, excited in the heart of young Martin the ambitious desire that he himself might one day be a schoolmaster or man of learning.

As soon as he was old enough to receive instruction, his parents endeavoured to communicate to him the knowledge of God, to train him in His fear, and form him to the practice of the Christian virtues. They applied the utmost care to this earliest domestic education.† But their solicitude was not confined to this instruction.

His father, desiring to see him acquire the elements of that learning for which he had so much esteem, invoked upon him the blessing of God, and sent him to school. Martin was then a little child. His father and Nicholas Emler, a young man of Mansfield, often carried him in their arms to the house of George Emilius, and came again to fetch him. Years after-

ward, Emler married Luther's sister. Fifty years later, the Reformer reminded the aged Nicholas of this touching mark of affection received in his childhood, and commemorated it on the blank leaves of a book presented to this old friend.*

The piety of his parents, their active turn of mind and strict virtue, gave to the boy a happy impulse, and helped to form in him a habit of seriousness and application. In those days it was the practice to use chastisements and fear as the main impulses in education. Margaret, although she sometimes approved the too great severity of her husband, often opened her maternal arms to Martin, and comforted him in his tears. Yet she herself overstepped the precept of that wisdom which tells us that he who loves his child will chastise him early. The resolute character of the child gave frequent occasion for correction and reprimand. "My parents," said Luther in after life, "treated me cruelly, so that I became very timid; one day, for a mere trifle, my mother whipped me till the blood came. They truly thought they were doing right; but they had no discernment of character, which is yet absolutely necessary, that we may know when, on whom, and how, punishment should be inflicted."†

At school the poor child was treated with equal severity. His master flogged him fifteen times in one day. "It is right," said Luther, relating this fact, "it is right to punish children, but at the same time we must love them." With such an education, Luther early learned to despise the attractions of a self-indulgent life. It is a just remark of one of his earliest biographers, that "that which is to become great must begin in small things; and if children are from their youth brought up with too much daintiness and care, they are injured for the rest of their lives."

Martin learned something at school. He was taught the heads of the catechism, the ten commandments, the apostles' creed, the Lord's prayer, some hymns, some forms of prayer, a Latin grammar, composed in the fourth century by Donatus, master of St. Jerome, and which, improved by Remigius, a French monk, in the eleventh century, was for a long while in great repute in the schools; he also read the *Cisio janus*, a singular calandar, composed in the tenth or eleventh century; in a word, all that was studied in the Latin school of Mansfield.

But it appears that the child was not yet led to God. The only religious feeling that he then manifested was that of fear. Every time that he heard Christ spoken of, he turned pale with terror; for he had been represented to him only as an angry judge.‡ This servile fear, which is so far removed from true religion, perhaps prepared his mind for the good tidings of the gospel, and for that joy which he afterward felt when he learned to know Christ as meek and lowly of heart.

John Luther, in conformity with his predilections, resolved to make his son a scholar. That new world of light and science which was everywhere producing vague excitement, reached even to the cottage of the miner of Mansfield, and excited the ambition of Martin's father. The remarkable character, and persevering application of his son, made John conceive the highest hopes of his success. Therefore, when Martin was fourteen years of age, in 1497, his father came to the resolution of parting from him, and sending him to the school of the Franciscans at Magdeburg. Margaret was obliged to yield to this decision, and Martin made preparations for leaving his paternal roof.

Among the young people of Mansfield, there was

* Drumb musste dieser geistliche Schmelzer (Mathesius, 1563, p. 3.)

† Ad agnitionem et timorem Dei domestica institutione diligenter aduseverunt. (Melanct. Vita Luth.)

* Walthers Nachrichten.

‡ Sed non poterat discernere ingenia secundum quæ essent temperandæ correctiones. (L. Opp. W. xxii., p. 1735.)

† Mathesius

one named John Reinecke, the son of a respectable burgher. Martin and John, who had been schoolfellows in early childhood, had contracted a friendship which lasted to the end of their lives. The two boys set out together for Magdeburg. It was at that place, when separated from their families, that they drew closer the bonds of their friendship.

Magdeburg was like a new world to Martin. In the midst of numerous privations, (for he had hardly enough to subsist on,) he observed and listened. Andreas Proles, a provincial of the Augustine order, was then preaching with great zeal, the necessity of reforming religion and the Church. Perhaps these discourses deposited in the soul of the youth the earliest germ of the thoughts which a later period unfolded.

This was a severe apprenticeship for Luther. Cast upon the world at fourteen, without friends or protectors, he trembled in the presence of his masters, and in his play hours, he and some children, as poor as himself, with difficulty begged their bread. "I was accustomed," says he, "with my companions, to beg a little food to supply our wants. One day, about Christmas time, we were going all together through the neighbouring villages, from house to house, singing in concert the usual carols on the infant Jesus, born at Bethlehem. We stopped in front of a peasant's house which stood detached from the rest, at the extremity of the village. The peasant hearing us sing our Christmas carols, came out with some food, which he meant to give us, and asked, in a rough loud voice, 'Where are you, boys?' Terrified at these words, we ran away as fast as we could. We had no reason to fear, for the peasant offered us this assistance in kindness; but our hearts were no doubt become fearful from the threats and tyranny which the masters then used toward their scholars, so that we were seized with sudden fright. At last, however, as the peasant still continued to call after us, we stopped, forgot our fears, ran to him, and received the food that he offered us. It is thus," adds Luther, "that we tremble and flee when our conscience is guilty and alarmed. Then we are afraid even of the help that is offered us, and of those who are our friends, and wish to do us good."*

A year had scarcely elapsed, when John and Margaret, hearing what difficulty their son found in supporting himself at Magdeburg, sent him to Eisenach, where there was a celebrated school, and at which place they had relations.† They had other children, and though their circumstances were much improved, they could not maintain their son in a city where he was a stranger. The unremitting labours of John Luther could do no more than support the family at Mansfield. He hoped that when Martin got to Eisenach he would find it easier to earn his living. But he was not more fortunate there than he had been at Magdeburg. His relations who lived in the town did not trouble themselves about him, or perhaps they were very poor, and could not give him any assistance.

When the young scholar was pressed with hunger, he was obliged, as at Magdeburg, to go with his schoolfellows and sing in the streets to earn a morsel of bread. This custom of Luther's time is still preserved in many towns in Germany. These young people's voices sometimes form a most harmonious concert. Often the poor modest boy, instead of bread, received nothing but harsh words. More than once, overwhelmed with sorrow, he shed many tears in secret; he could not look to the future without trembling.

One day in particular, after having been repulsed from three houses, he was about to return fasting to his

lodging, when, having reached the Place St. George, he stood before the house of an honest burgher, motionless, and lost in painful reflections. Must he, for want of bread, give up his studies, and go to work with his father in the mines of Mansfield? Suddenly a door opens, a woman appears on the threshold: it is the wife of Conrad Cotta, a daughter of the burgo-master of Eislefeld.* Her name was Ursula. The chronicles of Eisenach call her "the pious Shunamite," in remembrance of her who so earnestly entreated the prophet Elijah to eat bread with her. This Christian Shunamite had more than once remarked young Martin in the assemblies of the faithful; she had been affected by the sweetness of his voice and his apparent devotion.† She had heard the harsh words with which the poor scholar had been repulsed. She saw him overwhelmed with sorrow before her door; she came to his assistance, beckoned him to enter, and supplied his urgent wants.

Conrad approved his wife's benevolence; he even found so much pleasure in the society of young Luther, that a few days afterward, he took him to live in his house. From that moment he no longer feared to be obliged to relinquish his studies. He was not to return to Mansfield, and bury the talent that God had committed to his trust! God had opened the heart and the doors of a Christian family at the very moment when he did not know what would become of him. This event disposed his soul to that confidence in God, which, at a later period, the severest trials could not shake.

In the house of Cotta, Luther lived a very different life from that which he had hitherto done. He enjoyed a tranquil existence, exempt from care and want; his mind became more calm, his disposition more cheerful, his heart more enlarged. His whole nature was awakened by the sweet beams of charity, and began to expand into life, joy, and happiness. His prayers were more fervent; his thirst for learning became more ardent; and he made rapid progress in his studies.

To literature and science he united the study of the arts; for the arts also were then advancing in Germany. The men whom God designs to influence their contemporaries, are themselves at first influenced and led by the tendencies of the age in which they live. Luther learned to play on the flute and on the lute. He often accompanied his fine alto voice with the latter instrument, and thus cheered his heart in his hours of sadness. He also took pleasure in expressing by his melody his gratitude to his adoptive mother, who was very fond of music. He himself loved this art even to his old age, and composed the words and music of some of the most beautiful German hymns.

Happy times for the young man! Luther always looked back to them with emotion! and a son of Conrad having gone many years after to study at Wittemberg, when the poor scholar of Eisenach had become the learned teacher of his age, he joyfully received him at his table and under his roof. He wished to repay in part to the son what he had received from the father and mother.

It was when memory reverted to the Christian woman who had supplied him with bread, when every one else repulsed him, that he uttered this memorable saying: "There is nothing sweeter than the heart of a pious woman."

But never did Luther feel ashamed of the time, when, pressed by hunger, he sorrowfully begged the bread necessary for the support of life and the continuance of his studies. So far from this, he thought with

* Lutheri Opera, (Walch.) ii. 2347.

† Isenacum enim pene totam parentalam meam habet. (L. Epp. i., p. 390.)

* Lingk's Reisegesch. Luth.

† Diawell, sie umb seines Singhem und herzlischen Gebets willen. (Mathesius, p. 3.)

gratitude on the extreme poverty of his youth. He considered it as one of the means that God had made use of to make him what he afterward became, and he thanked him for it. The condition of poor children, who were obliged to lead the same kind of life, touched him to the heart. "Do not despise," said he, "the boys who try to earn their bread by chanting before your door, 'bread for the love of God,' *Panem propter Deum*. I have done the same. It is true, that in later years, my father maintained me at the University of Erfurth, with much love and kindness, supporting me by the sweat of his brow; but at one time I was only a poor mendicant. And now by means of my pen, I have succeeded so well, that I would not change fortunes with the Grand Seigneur himself. I may say more; if I were to be offered all the possessions of the earth heaped one upon another, I would not take them in exchange for what I possess. And yet I should never have known what I do, if I had not been to school, and been taught to write." Thus did this great man acknowledge that these humble beginnings were the origin of his glory. He was not afraid of reminding his readers, that that voice, whose accents electrified the empire and the world, had not very long before begged a morsel of bread in the streets of a petty town. The Christian takes pleasure in such recollections, because they remind him that it is in God alone that he is permitted to glory.

The strength of his understanding, the liveliness of his imagination, and his excellent memory, enabled him in a short time to get the start of all his fellow students.* He made especially rapid progress in the dead languages, in rhetoric, and in poetry. He wrote sermons, and made verses. Cheerful, obliging, and what is called good-hearted, he was beloved by his masters and his companions.

Among the professors, he was particularly attached to John Trebonius, a learned man, of an agreeable address, and who had that regard for the young which is so encouraging to them. Martin had observed, that when Trebonius came into the school-room, he took off his hat and bowed to the scholars; a great condescension in those pedantic times. This had pleased the young man. He began to perceive that he himself was something. The respect paid him by his master had raised the scholar in his own estimation. The colleagues of Trebonius, whose custom was different, having one day expressed their astonishment at this extreme condescension, he answered them; and his answer made an impression on young Luther. "There are," said he, "among these youths, some whom God will one day raise to the ranks of burgomasters, chancellors, doctors, and magistrates. Though you do not now see the outward signs of their respective dignities, it is yet proper to treat them with respect." Doubtless the young scholar heard these words with pleasure, and perhaps he then saw himself, in prospect, adorned with a doctor's cap.

Luther had attained his eighteenth year. He had tasted the sweets of learning. He thirsted after knowledge. He sighed for a university education. He longed to go to one of those fountains of all knowledge, where his thirst for it might be satisfied.† His father required him to study the law. Full of confidence in his son's talents, he desired to see him cultivate them, and make them known in the world. Already, in anticipation, he beheld him filling honourable offices among his fellow-citizens, gaining the favour of princes, and shining on the great stage of the world. It was

* Cumque et vis ingenii accorrina esset, et imprimis ad eloquentiam idonea, celeriter aequalibus suis præcurrit.—(Melanct. Vita Luth.)

† Degustata igitur litterarum dulcedine, natura flagrans cupiditate discendi appetit academiam. (Mel. Vit. Luth.)

determined that the young man should be sent to Erfurth.

Luther arrived at that university in the year 1501; Jodocus, surnamed the Doctor of Eisenach, was then teaching scholastic philosophy in that place with great success. Melancthon regrets that there was at that time nothing taught at Erfurth but a logic beset with difficulties. He expresses the opinion, that if Luther had met with professors of a different character, if he had been taught the milder and more tranquilizing doctrines of true philosophy, it might have moderated and softened the natural vehemence of his character.* The new pupil, however, began to study the philosophy of the times in the writings of Occam, Scotus, Bonaventura, and Thomas Aquinas. In later years he looked upon this class of writers with abhorrence; he trembled with rage when even the name of Aristotle was pronounced in his presence; and he went so far as to say, that if Aristotle had not been a man, he should be tempted to take him for the devil. But his mind, eager for instruction, required better food; and he applied himself to the study of the best ancient authors, Cicero, Virgil, and others. He did not satisfy himself, like the generality of students, with learning by heart the works of these writers; but he endeavoured especially to fathom their thoughts, to imbibe the spirit by which they were animated, to make their wisdom his own, to comprehend the object they aimed at in their writings, and to enrich his understanding with their weighty sentences and brilliant descriptions. He often pressed his tutors with inquiries, and soon outstripped his school-fellows.† Gifted with a retentive memory, and a vivid imagination, all that he had read or heard remained fixed on his memory; it was as if he had seen it himself. Thus did Luther distinguish himself in his early youth. "The whole University," says Melancthon, "admired his genius."‡

But even at this early period the young man of eighteen did not study merely with a view of cultivating his understanding; there was within him a serious thoughtfulness, a heart looking upward, which God gives to those whom he designs to make his most zealous servants. Luther felt that he depended entirely upon God—a simple and powerful conviction, which is at once a principle of deep humility and an incentive to great undertakings. He fervently invoked the divine blessing upon his labours. Every morning he began the day with prayer; then he went to church; afterward he commenced his studies, and he never lost a moment in the course of the day. "To pray well," he was wont to say, "was the better half of study."§

The young student spent in the library of the university the moments he could snatch from his academical labours. Books being then scarce, it was, in his eyes, a great privilege to be able to profit by the treasures of this vast collection. One day, (he had been then two years at Erfurth, and was twenty years of age,) he was opening the books in the library, one after another, in order to read the names of the authors. One which he opened in its turn drew his attention. He had not seen anything like it till that hour. He reads the title: it is a Bible! a rare book, unknown at that time.¶ His interest is strongly excited; he is filled with astonishment at finding more in this volume than those fragments of the gospels and epistles which

* Et fortassis ad leniendam vehementiam naturæ mitiora studia verè philosophia. (Ibid.)

† Et quidem inter primos, ut ingenio studioque multos coequalium antecelleret. (Cochlaus, Acta Lutheri, p. 1.)

‡ Sic igitur in juventute eminebat ut toti academici Lutheri ingenium admirationi esset. (Vita Luth.)

§ Fleissig gebet, ist über die Heilft studet. (Mathes. 3.)

¶ Auf ein Zeit, wie er die Bücher fein nacheinander besicht, . . . kommt et über die lateinische Biblia. . . (Mathes. 3.)

the Church has selected to be read to the people in their places of worship every Sunday in the year. Till then he had thought that they were the word of God. And here are so many pages, so many chapters, so many books, of which he had no idea! His heart beats as he holds in his hand all the Scripture divinely inspired. With eagerness and indescribable feelings, he turns over these leaves of God's word. The first page that arrests his attention, relates the history of Hannah, and the young Samuel. He reads, and can scarcely restrain his joyful emotion. This child, whom his parents lend to the Lord as long as he liveth; Hannah's song, in which she declares that the Lord raiseth up the poor out of the dust, and lifteth up the beggar from the dunghill, to set him among princes; the young Samuel, who grows up in the temple before the Lord: all this history, all this revelation which he has discovered, excites feelings till then unknown. He returns home with a full heart. "Oh!" thought he, "if God would but give me such a book for my own!"* Luther did not yet understand either Greek or Hebrew. It is not probable that he should have studied those languages during the first two or three years of his residence in the university. The Bible, that had filled him with such transport, was in Latin. He soon returned to the library to find his treasure again. He read and re-read; and then, in his surprise and joy, he went back to read again. The first gleams of a new truth then arose in his mind.

Thus has God caused him to find His word! He has now discovered that book, of which he is one day to give to his countrymen that admirable translation in which the Germans for three centuries have read the oracles of God. For the first time, perhaps, this precious volume has been removed from the place that it occupied in the library of Erfurth. This book, deposited upon the unknown shelves of a dark room, is soon to become the book of life to a whole nation. The Reformation lay hid in that Bible.

It was in this same year that Luther took his first academical degree, that of a bachelor.

The excessive labour he had undergone, in preparing for his examination, occasioned a dangerous illness. Death seemed at hand. Serious reflections filled his mind. He thought his earthly career was at an end. All were interested about the young man. "It was a pity," thought they, "to see so many hopes so early extinguished." Several friends came to visit him on his sick bed. Among them was an old man, a venerable priest, who had observed with interest the labours and academical life of the student of Mansfield. Luther could not conceal the thoughts that filled his mind. "Soon," said he, "I shall be summoned hence." But the prophetic old man kindly answered. "My dear bachelor, take courage! you will not die this time. Our God will yet make you his instrument in comforting many others.† For God lays his cross upon those whom he loves, and those who bear it patiently gain much wisdom." The words impressed the sick youth. It was as he lay in the dust of death that he heard the voice of a priest remind him, that God, as Samuel's mother had said, raiseth up the poor. The old man has poured sweet consolation into his heart, and revived his spirits; he will never forget it. "This was the first prophecy the doctor ever heard," says Mathesius, the friend of Luther, who relates this circumstance, "and he often recollected it." We may easily comprehend in what sense Mathesius calls this speech a prophecy.

When Luther was restored to health there was in him a something new. The Bible, his sickness, the words of the old priest, seemed to have called him to a new vocation. There was, however, as yet, no settled purpose in his mind. He resumed his studies. In 1505 he was made master of arts, or doctor in philosophy. The university of Erfurth was then the most celebrated in all Germany. The others were in comparison, but inferior schools. The ceremony was performed according to custom, with much pomp. A procession with torches came to do honour to Luther.* The festival was magnificent. There was general rejoicing. Luther, perhaps, encouraged by these honours, prepared to apply himself entirely to the study of the law, agreeably to the wishes of his father.

But God willed otherwise. While Luther was engaged in various studies, and beginning to teach natural philosophy and the ethics of Aristotle, with other branches of philosophy, his conscience incessantly reminded him that religion was the one thing needful, and that his first care should be the salvation of his soul. He had learned God's hatred of sin; he remembered the penalties that his word denounces against the sinner; and he asked himself tremblingly, if he was sure that he possessed the favour of God. His conscience answered: No! His character was prompt and decided; he resolved to do all that depended upon himself, to ensure a well-grounded hope of immortality. Two events occurred, one after the other, to rouse his soul and confirm his resolution.

Among his college friends there was one, named Alexis, with whom he was very intimate. One morning a report was spread in Erfurth that Alexis had been assassinated. Luther hurried to the spot and ascertained the truth of the report. This sudden loss of his friend affected him, and the question which he asked himself: "What would become of me, if I were thus suddenly called away?" filled his mind with the liveliest apprehension.†

It was then the summer of 1505. Luther availed himself of the leisure afforded him by the university vacation, to take a journey to Mansfield, to revisit the beloved abode of his infancy, and to see his affectionate parents. Perhaps, also, he intended to open his heart to his father, to sound him upon the plan that was forming in his mind, and obtain his permission to engage in a different vocation. He foresaw all the difficulties that awaited him. The idle life of the greater part of the priests was particularly offensive to the active miner of Mansfield. The ecclesiastics were, moreover, little esteemed in society: most of them possessed but a scanty revenue, and the father, who had made many sacrifices to keep his son at the university, and saw him lecturing publicly in his twentieth year, in a celebrated school, was not likely readily to renounce his proud hopes.

We are not informed of what passed during Luther's abode at Mansfield. Perhaps the decided wish of his father made him fear to open his mind to him. He again left his father's house for the halls of the academy. He was within a short distance of Erfurth when he was overtaken by a violent storm. The thunder roared; a thunderbolt sunk into the ground by his side. Luther threw himself on his knees. His hour is perhaps come. Death, judgment, eternity, are before him in all their terrors, and speak with a voice which he can no longer resist. "Encompassed with the anguish and terror of death," as he himself says,‡ he makes a vow, if God will deliver him from this danger,

* L. Opp. W. xxii., p. 2229.

† Interitu sodalis sui contristatus. (Cochleus, p. 1.)

‡ Mit Erschrecken und Angst des Todes umgeben. (L. Epp. ii., 101.)

* *Avide percurrit, cœpitque optare ut olim talem librum et ipse nancisci posset.* (M. Adami Vit. Luth., p. 103.)

† *Deus te virum faciet qui alios multos iterum consolabitur.* (M. Adami Vit. Luth., p. 103.)

to forsake the world, and devote himself to His service. Risen from the earth, having still before his eyes that death that must one day overtake him, he examines himself seriously, and inquires what he must do.* The thoughts that formerly troubled him return with redoubled power. He has endeavoured, it is true, to fulfil all his duties. But what is the state of his soul? Can he, with a polluted soul, appear before the tribunal of so terrible a God? He *must* become holy. He now thirsts after holiness as he had thirsted after knowledge. But where shall he find it? How is it to be attained? The university has furnished him with the means of satisfying his first wish. Who will assuage this anguish, this vehement desire that consumes him now? To what school of holiness can he direct his steps? He will go into a cloister; the monastic life will ensure his salvation. How often has he been told of its power to change the heart, to cleanse the sinner, to make man perfect! He will enter into a monastic order. He will there become holy. He will thus insure his eternal salvation.†

Such was the event that changed the vocation and the whole destiny of Luther. The hand of God was in it. It was that powerful hand that cast to the ground the young master of arts, the aspirant to the bar, the intended jurisconsult, to give an entirely new direction to his after life. Rubianus, one of Luther's friends at the university of Erfurth, wrote to him in later times: "Divine Providence foresaw what you would one day become, when, on your return from your parents, the fire of Heaven struck you to the ground, like another Paul, near the city of Erfurth, and separating you from us, led you to enter the Augustine order." Thus, similar circumstances marked the conversion of two of the greatest instruments chosen by Divine Providence to effect the two greatest revolutions that have ever taken place upon the earth: Saint Paul and Luther.‡

Luther re-enters Erfurth. His resolution is unalterable. Still it is with reluctance that he prepares to break ties that are so dear to him. He does not communicate his design to any of his companions. But one evening he invites his college friends to a cheerful and simple repast. Music once more enlivens their social meeting. It is Luther's farewell to the world. Henceforth the companions of his pleasures and studies are to be exchanged for the society of monks; cheerful and witty discourse for the silence of the cloister; merry voices for the solemn harmony of the quiet chapel. God calls him; he must sacrifice all things. Now, however, for the last time, let him give way to the joys of his youth! The repast excites his friends. Luther himself encourages their joy. But at the moment when their gaiety is at its height, the young man can no longer repress the serious thoughts that occupy his mind. He speaks. He declares his intention to his astonished friends; they endeavour to oppose it; but in vain. And that very night Luther, perhaps dreading their importunity, quits his lodgings. He leaves behind his books and furniture, taking with him only Virgil and Plautus. (He had not yet a Bible.) Virgil and Plautus! an epic poem and comedies! Singular picture of Luther's mind! There were, in fact, in his character, the

materials of a complete epic poem; beauty, grandeur, and sublimity; but his disposition inclined to gaiety, wit, and mirth; and more than one ludicrous trait broke forth from the serious and noble ground-work of his life.

Furnished with these two books, he goes alone in the darkness of the night to the convent of the hermits of St. Augustine. He asks admittance. The door opens and closes again. Behold him for ever separated from his parents, from his companions in study, and from the world. It was the 17th of August, 1505. Luther was then twenty-one years and nine months old.

At length he is *with God*. His soul is safe. He is now to obtain that holiness he so ardently desired. The monks, who gathered round the young doctor, were full of admiration, commending his decision and renunciation of the world.* But Luther did not forget his friends. He wrote to them, bidding adieu to them and to the world, and the next day he sent them these letters, together with the clothes he had till then worn, and the ring he received, when made master of arts, which he returned to the university, that nothing might remind him of the world he had renounced.

His friends at Erfurth were struck with astonishment. Must it be, thought they, that such eminent talents should be lost in that monastic life, which is but a kind of burial alive.† Full of grief, they immediately repaired to the convent, in hopes of inducing Luther to retract so fatal a resolution; but in vain. The doors were closed against them. A whole month was to elapse before any one could be permitted to see the new monk, or to speak to him.

Luther had almost immediately communicated to his parents the great change that had now taken place. His father was thunderstruck. He trembled for his son, as Luther himself tells in the dedication of his book on monastic vows, addressed to his father. His weakness, his youth, the strength of his passions, made his father fear that, after the first moments of enthusiasm should have passed, the indolent life of a monk might either tempt the young man to despair, or occasion him to fall into some grievous sin. He knew that a monastic life had already ruined many. Besides, the miner of Mansfeld had formed other plans for his son. He had hoped that he would contract a rich and honorable marriage. And now, all his ambitious projects were overthrown in one night by this imprudent step.

John wrote an angry letter to his son, in which he used a tone of authority that he had laid aside from the period when his son had been made Master of Arts. He withdrew all his favour, and declared him disinherited from a father's love. In vain did John Luther's friends, and doubtless his wife, endeavour to soften his displeasure, by saying: "If you would make a sacrifice to God, let it be the best and dearest of your possessions, your son, your Isaac." The inexorable town-councillor of Mansfeld would listen to nothing.

After some time, however, (Luther tells us this in a sermon preached at Wittenberg, the 20th of January, 1544,) the plague visited the neighbourhood, and deprived John Luther of two of his sons. Just then there came one who told the father, who was in deep affliction: "The monk of Erfurth is also dead." His friends took that opportunity of reconciling the father to the young novice. "If it should be a false report," said they, "at least sanctify your present affliction by consenting that your son should be a monk." "Well,

* Cum esset in campo, fulminis ictu territus. (Cochlæus, 1.)
† Occasione autem fuit ingrediendi illud vita genus quod pietati et studiis doctrinæ de Deo existimavit esse convenientius. (Mél. Vit. Luth.)

‡ Some historians relate that Alexis was killed by the thunderbolt that alarmed Luther; but two contemporaries, Mathesius and Selneccker (in Orat. de Luth.) distinguish between these two events; we may even add to their testimony that of Melancthon, who says, "Sodalem nescio quo casu interfectum." (Vita Luth.)

* Hujus mundi contemptū, ingressus est repente, multis admirantibus, monasterium. . . . (Cochlæus, 1.)

† In vitâ semimortuâ.—(Mélch. Adami V. L. p. 102.)

be it so," said John Luther, with a heart broken and yet struggling, "and God grant he may prosper!" When Luther, at a later period, reconciled to his father, related the event that had induced him to embrace a monastic life: "God grant," replied the worthy minister, "that you may not have mistaken a delusion of the devil for a sign from heaven."*

There was then in Luther little of that which made him in after life the Reformer of the Church. His entering into a convent is a proof of this. It was an act in that spirit of a past age from which he was to contribute to deliver the Church. He who was about to become the teacher of the world, was as yet only its servile imitator. A new stone was added to the edifice of superstition by the very person who was shortly to overturn it. Luther was then looking for salvation in himself, in works and observances; he knew not that salvation cometh of God only. He sought to establish his own righteousness and his own glory,—being ignorant of the righteousness and glory of God. But what he was then ignorant of he soon learned. It was in the cloister of Erfurth that the great change effected which substituted in his heart God and His wisdom for the world and its traditions, and prepared the mighty revolution of which he was the most illustrious instrument.

Martin Luther, on entering the convent, changed his name, and took that of Augustine. "What can be more mad and impious," said he, in relating this circumstance, "than to renounce one's Christian name for the sake of a cow! It is thus the popes are ashamed of their Christian names, and show thereby that they are deserters from Jesus Christ."†

The monks had received him joyfully. It was no small gratification to their self-love to see the university forsaken by one of its most eminent scholars, for a house of their order. Nevertheless, they treated him harshly, and imposed upon him the meanest offices. They perhaps wished to humble the doctor of philosophy, and to teach him that his learning did not raise him above his brethren; and thought, moreover, by this method, to prevent his devoting himself to his studies, from which the convent would derive no advantage. The former master of arts was obliged to perform the functions of door-keeper, to open and shut the gates, to wind up the clock, to sweep the church, to clean the rooms.‡ Then, when the poor monk, who was at once porter, sexton, and servant of the cloister, had finished his work: "*Cum sacco per civitatem*—With your bag through the town!" cried the brothers; and, loaded with his bread-bag, he was obliged to go through the streets of Erfurth, begging from house to house, and perhaps at the doors of those very persons who had been either his friends or his inferiors. But he bore it all. Inclined, from his natural disposition, to devote himself heartily to whatever he undertook, it was with his whole soul that he had become a monk. Besides, could he wish to spare the body? To regard the satisfying of the flesh? Not thus could he acquire the humility, the holiness, that he had come to seek within the walls of a cloister!

The poor monk, overwhelmed with toil, eagerly availed himself of every moment he could snatch from his degrading occupations. He sought to retire apart from his companions, and give himself up to his beloved studies. But the brethren soon perceived this, came about him with murmurs, and forced him to leave his books: "Come, come! it is not by study, but by

begging bread, corn, eggs, fish, meat, and money, that you can benefit the cloister."* And Luther submitted, put away his books, and resumed his bag. Far from repenting of the yoke he had taken upon himself, he resolved to go through with it. Then it was that the inflexible perseverance, with which he ever prosecuted the resolutions he had once formed, began to develop itself. His patient endurance of this rough usage gave a powerful energy to his will. God was exercising him first with small trials, that he might learn to stand firm in great ones. Besides, to be able to deliver the age in which he lived from the miserable superstitions under which it groaned, it was necessary that he should feel the weight of them. To empty the cup, he must drink it to the very dregs.

This severe apprenticeship did not, however, last so long as Luther might have feared. The prior of the convent, upon the intercession of the university of which Luther was a member, freed him from the mean offices the monks had imposed upon him. The young monk then resumed his studies with fresh zeal. The works of the fathers of the Church, especially those of St. Augustine, attracted his attention. The exposition which this celebrated doctor has written upon the Psalms, and his book concerning the letter and the spirit, were his favourite reading. Nothing struck him so much as the opinions of this father upon the corruption of man's will, and upon the grace of God. He felt, in his own experience, the reality of that corruption, and the necessity for that grace. The words of St. Augustine found an echo in his heart: if he could have belonged to any other school than that of Christ, it would have undoubtedly been that of the doctor of Hippo. He almost knew by heart the words of Peter d'Ailly and of Gabriel Biel. He was struck with an observation of the former, that if the Church had not decided otherwise, it would have been preferable to allow that we really receive the bread and wine in the Holy sacrament, and not mere accidents.

He also studied with attention Occam and Gerson, who had so freely expressed themselves concerning the authority of the popes. To this course of reading he united other exercises. He was heard publicly to unravel the most complicated arguments, and extricate himself from labyrinths whence others could find no outlet. His hearers were astonished.†

But it was not to gain the credit of being a great genius that he entered a cloister; it was to find the aliments of piety to God.‡ He regarded these pursuits only as recreations.

He loved, above all, to draw wisdom from the pure spring of the Word of God. He found in the convent a Bible, fastened by a chain. He had constant recourse to this chained Bible. He understood but little of the Word; but still it was his most absorbing study. Sometimes he would meditate on a single passage for a whole day; another time he learned by heart some parts of the prophets; but, above all, he wished to acquire, from the writings of the apostles and prophets, the knowledge of God's will—to increase in reverence for His name—and to nourish his faith by the sure testimony of the word.§

It was apparently at this period, that he began to study the Scriptures in the originals, and, by this means, to lay the foundation of the most perfect and useful of his printed works—the translation of the Bible. He made use of the Hebrew Lexicon, by Reuchlin, which

* *Selnecceri Orat. de Luth.*

† In disputationibus publicis labyrinthos allis inextricabiles, diserte multis admirantibus explicabat. (*Melancthi Vit. Luth.*)

‡ In eo vixit genere non famam ingenii, sed alimenta pietatis quærebat. (*Melancthi Vit. Luth.*)

§ Ut firmis testimoniis aleret timorem et fidem. (*Ibid.*)

* Gott geb dass es nicht ein Betrug und teuflisch Gespenst sey. (L. Epp. ii. p. 101.)

† On Genesis, xxxiv. 3.

‡ Loca immunda purgare coactus fuit. (*M. Adami Vit. Luth.* p. 103.)

had just appeared. John Lange, a brother in the convent, who was skilled in the Greek and Hebrew, and with whom he always maintained an intimate acquaintance, probably assisted him at the outset. He also made much use of the learned comments of Nicholas Lyra, who died in 1340. It was this circumstance that made Pflug (afterward bishop of Naumburg) remark: "*Si Lyra non lyrasset, Lutherus non saltasset*—If Lyra had not played his lyre, Luther had never danced."

The young monk applied himself to his studies with so much zeal, that often, for two or three weeks together, he would omit the prescribed prayers. But he was soon alarmed by the thought that he had transgressed the rules of his order. Then he shut himself up to redeem his negligence; he set himself to repeat conscientiously all his omitted prayers without thinking of his necessary food. On one occasion he passed seven weeks almost without sleep.

Burning with the desire after that holiness which he had sought in the cloister, Luther gave himself up to all the rigour of an ascetic life. He endeavoured to crucify the flesh by fasting, macerations, and watchings.† Shut up in his cell, as in a prison, he was continually struggling against the evil thoughts and inclinations of his heart. A little bread, a single herring, were often his only food. Indeed, he was constitutionally abstemious. So it was that his friends have often seen him—even after he had learned that heaven was not to be purchased by abstinence—content himself with the poorest food, and go four days together without eating or drinking.‡ This is stated on the authority of a credible witness, Melancthon; and we see from this how little attention is due to the fables which ignorance and prejudice have circulated as to intemperance in Luther. Nothing was too great a sacrifice, at the period we speak of, for the sake of becoming holy to gain heaven. Never did the Romish Church contain a monk of more piety; never did a cloister witness efforts more sincere and unwearied to purchase eternal happiness.§ When Luther, become a Reformer, declared that heaven could not be thus purchased, he knew well what he said: "Verily," wrote he, to Duke George of Saxony, "I was a devout monk, and followed the rules of my order so strictly, that I cannot tell you all. If ever a monk entered into heaven by his monkish merits, certainly I should have obtained an entrance there. All the monks who knew me will confirm this; and if it had lasted much longer, I should have become literally a martyr, through watchings, prayer, reading, and other labours."||

We approach the period which made Luther a new man; and, by discovering to him the unfathomable love of God, created in him the power to declare it to the world.

Luther did not find, in the tranquillity of the cloister and monkish perfection, the peace he was in quest of. He wanted an assurance that he was saved. This was the great want of his soul; without it he could not rest. But the fears which had shaken him in the world, pursued him to his cell. Nay more, they increased there, and the least cry of his conscience seemed to resound beneath the vaulted roofs of the cloister. God had led him thither, that he might learn to know himself, and to despair of his own strength or virtues.

* Gesch. d. deutsch. Bibelübersetzung.

† Summa disciplinae severitate se ipse regit, et omnibus exercitiis lectionum, disputationum, jejuniorum, precum, omnes longe superat. (Melancthon. Vita Luth.)

‡ Erat enim natura valde modici cibi et potus; vidi continuos quatuor diebus, cum quidem recte valeretur, prorsus nihil edentem aut bibentem. (Melancthon. Vita Luth.)

§ Strenue in studiis et exercitiis spiritualibus militavit ille Deo annis quatuor. (Cochlaus, l.)

|| L. Opp. (W.) xix. 2299.

His conscience, enlightened by the Divine Word, taught him what it was to be holy; but he was filled with terror at finding, neither in his heart nor in his life, the transcript of that holiness which he contemplated with wonder in the Word of God. Melancholy discovery! and one that is made by every sincere man. No righteousness within; no righteousness in outward action: everywhere omission of duty—sin, pollution. The more ardent Luther's natural character, the more powerful was this secret and constant resistance of his nature to that which is good, and the deeper did it plunge him into despair.

The monks and theologians encouraged him to do good works, and in that way satisfy the divine justice. "But what works," thought he, "can proceed out of a heart like mine? How can I, with works polluted even in their source and motive, stand before a Holy Judge?" "I was, in the sight of God, a great sinner," says he; "and I could not think it possible for me to appease him with my merits."

He was agitated and dejected; shunning the trivial and dull discourse of the monks. The latter, unable to comprehend the tempestuous heavings of his soul, watched him with astonishment,* while they complained of his silent and unsocial manners. One day, Cochlaus tells us, while mass was performing in the chapel, Luther's abstraction led him thither, and he found himself in the choir in the midst of the monks, dejected and in anguish of mind. The priest had bowed before the altar—the incense was offered, the *Gloria* chaunted, and the gospel was being read, when the unhappy monk, unable to suppress his mental torment, exclaimed, falling upon his knees, "It is not I—it is not I."† The monks were all amazement, and the solemnity was for an instant interrupted. Luther may, perhaps, have thought he heard some reproach of which he knew himself guiltless; or he may have meant, at the moment, to declare himself undeserving of being of the number of those to whom Christ's death had brought eternal life. According to Cochlaus, the gospel of the day was the account of the dumb man out of whom Jesus cast a devil. Possibly Luther's exclamation (if the story be true,) had reference to this fact, and that resembling the dæmoniac, in being like him speechless, he by his cry protested that his silence was owing to a different cause from dæmoniacal possession. Indeed, Cochlaus tells us, that the monks did sometimes ascribe the mental distresses of their brother to a secret intercourse with the devil, and that writer appears himself to have shared in the opinion.‡

A tender conscience led him to regard the least sin as a great crime. No sooner had he detected it, than he laboured to expiate it by the strictest self-denial; and that served only to make him feel the inutility of all human remedies. "I tormented myself to death," says he, "to procure for my troubled heart and agitated conscience peace in the presence of God; but encompassed with thick darkness, I nowhere found peace."

All the practices of monkish holiness, which quieted so many drowsy consciences around him, and to which in his agony of mind he had recourse, soon evinced themselves to be useless prescriptions of an empirical quackery in religion. "When during the time I was a monk, I felt temptations assail me, I am a lost man, thought I. Immediately I resorted to a thousand methods to appease the reproaches of my heart. I confessed every day. But all that was of no use. Then, overwhelmed with dejection, I distressed myself by the

* Visus est fratribus non nihil singularitatis habere. (Cochlaus, l.)

† Cum . . . repente ceciderit vociferans: Non sum! non sum! (Cochlaus, l.)

‡ Ex occulto aliquo cum sermone cominatio. (Ib.)

multitude of my thoughts. See, said I to myself, thou art envious, impatient, passionate; therefore, wretch that thou art! it is of no use to thee to have entered into this holy order."

And yet Luther, imbued with the prejudices of the age, had from his youth deemed the remedies of which he now experienced the inefficacy, the certain cure of a sick soul. What was to be thought of this strange discovery which he had just made in the solitude of his cloister? One may then live in the sanctuary, and yet carry within a man of sin. He has obtained another garment, but not another heart; his hopes are disappointed; where shall he turn? All these rules and observances, can they be mere inventions? Such a supposition appeared to him one moment as a temptation of the devil—and the next, an irresistible truth. Struggling either against the holy voice which spoke in his heart, or against the venerable institutions which had the sanction of ages, Luther's existence was a continued conflict. The young monk moved, like a spectre, through the long corridors of the cloisters with sighs and groans. His bodily powers failed, his strength forsook him; sometimes he was motionless, as if dead.*

One day, overcome with sadness, he shut himself in his cell, and for several days and nights suffered no one to approach him. One of his friends, Lucas Edemberger, uneasy about the unhappy monk, and having some presentiment of his state, took with him some young boys, choral singers, and went and knocked at the door of his cell. No one opened or answered. The good Edemberger, still more alarmed, broke open the door, and discovered Luther stretched on the floor in unconsciousness, and without any sign of life. His friend tried in vain to recall his senses, but he continued motionless. Then the young choristers began to sing a sweet hymn. Their clear voices acted like a charm on the poor monk, to whom music had always been a source of delight, and by slow degrees his strength and consciousness returned.† But if for a few instants music could restore to him a degree of serenity, another and more powerful remedy was needed for the cure of his malady; there was needed that sweet and penetrating sound of the Gospel, which is the voice of God. He felt *this* to be his want. Accordingly his sufferings and fears impelled him to study with unwearied zeal the writings of the Apostles and Prophets.‡

Luther was not the first monk who had passed through these conflicts. The cloisters often enveloped in their dark walls abominable vices, which, if they had been revealed, would have made an upright mind shudder; but often also they concealed Christian virtues, which grew up beneath the shelter of a salutary retirement; and which, if they had been brought forth to view, would have been the admiration of the world. They who possessed these virtues, living only with each other and with God, drew no attention from without, and were often unknown even to the small convent in which they were enclosed; their life was known only to God. At times these humble recluses fell into that mystic theology, the melancholy failing of the noblest minds, which in an earlier age had been the delight of the first monks on the banks of the Nile, and which wears out unprofitably the souls in which it reigns.

But whenever one of these men was called to fill a distinguished post, he manifested virtues of which the salutary effects were long and widely felt. The candle

being placed on the candlestick, gave light to all the house; many were awakened by this light. Thus it was that these pious souls were propagated from generation to generation: and they were shining like distant torches in the very periods when the cloisters were often only the impure receptacles of darkness.

There was a young man who had thus distinguished himself in one of the convents in Germany. His name was John Staupitz; he was descended from a noble family in Misnia. From early youth he had been marked by a taste for letters and a love of virtue.* He felt the necessity of retirement, that he might devote himself to learning. But he soon found that philosophy, and the study of nature, could do nothing for our eternal salvation.

He, therefore, began to study divinity. But he especially endeavoured to join obedience with knowledge. "For," says one of his biographers, "it is in vain to call ourselves divines, if we do not confirm that noble title by our lives." The study of the Bible and of St. Augustine, the knowledge of himself, the war he, like Luther, had to wage with the deceitfulness and lusts of his own heart—led him to the Saviour. He found in faith in Christ, *peace* to his soul. The doctrine of the Election by Grace especially engaged his thoughts. The uprightness of his life, the depth of his learning, the eloquence of his speech, no less than a striking exterior and dignified manners,‡ recommended him to his contemporaries. The Elector of Saxony, Frederic the Wise, honoured him with his friendship, employed him in several embassies, and founded under his direction the University of Wittemberg. Staupitz was the first professor of divinity in that school, from whence the light was one day to issue to enlighten the schools and churches of so many nations. He was present at the Council of Lateran, in place of the archbishop of Salzburg, became provincial of his order in Thuringia and Saxony, and afterward Vicar-general of the Augustines for all Germany.

Staupitz deeply lamented the corruption of morals and the errors of doctrine which then devastated the Church. His writings on "the love of God," "on Christian faith," and "conformity with the death of Christ," as well as the testimony of Luther, give proof of this. But he considered the first of these two evils as much greater than the latter. Besides, the gentleness and indecision of his character, his desire not to go beyond the sphere of action which he thought assigned to him, made him more fit to be the restorer of a convent than the Reformer of the Church. He would have wished to raise none but men of distinguished characters to offices of importance, but not finding them, he submitted to the necessity of employing others. "We must," said he, "plough with such horses as we can find; and if we cannot find horses, we must plough with oxen."†

We have seen the anguish and internal struggles which Luther underwent in the convent of Erfurth. At this period the visit of the vicar-general was announced. Staupitz, in fact, arrived in his usual visitation of inspection. The friend of Frederic, the founder of the University of Wittemberg, the chief of the Augustines, cast a benevolent look upon those monks who were subject to his authority. Soon one of the brothers attracted his notice. He was a young man of middle stature, reduced by study, fasting, and watching, so that you might count his bones.§ His eyes, which were afterward compared to a falcon's,

* Sæpe eum cogitantem attentius de ira Dei, aut de mirandis pœnarum exemplis, subito tanti terrores concutiebat, ut pene exanimaretur. (Melanct. Vita Luth.)

† Sæckend. p. 63.

‡ Hoc studium ut magis expecteret, illis suis doloribus et pavoribus movebatur. (Melanct. Vita Luth.)

* A teneris unguiculis generoso animi impetu ad virtutem et eruditam doctrinam contendit. (Melch. Adam. Vita Staupitzi.)

† Corporis forma atque statura conspicuus. (Cochl. 3.)

‡ L. Opp. (W.) v. 2189.

§ P. Mossellani Epist.

were sunk; his demeanour was dejected; his countenance expressed a soul agitated with severe conflicts, but yet strong and capable of endurance. There was in his whole appearance something grave, melancholy, and solemn. Staupitz, who had acquired discernment by long experience, easily discerned what was passing in that mind, and at once distinguished the young monk from all his companions. He felt drawn toward him, had a kind of presentiment of his singular destiny, and soon experienced for his inferior a paternal interest. He, like Luther, had been called to struggle; he could, therefore, understand his feelings. He could, above all, show him the path to that peace which he had himself found. What he was told of the circumstances that had induced the young Augustine to enter the convent, increased his sympathy. He enjoined the prior to treat him with more mildness. He availed himself of the opportunities his office afforded for gaining the confidence of the young monk. He approached him affectionately, and endeavoured in every way to overcome the timidity of the novice—a timidity increased by the respect and fear that he felt for a person of rank so exalted as that of Staupitz.

The heart of Luther, which had remained closed under harsh treatment, at last opened and expanded to the sweet beams of love. "As in water, face answereth to face, so the heart of man to man." (Prov. 27 : 9.) Staupitz's heart responded to that of Luther. The vicar-general understood him. The monk felt toward him a confidence till then unknown. He opened to him the cause of his sadness, he described the horrid thoughts that distressed him, and hence ensued, in the cloister of Erfurth, conversations full of wisdom and instruction.

"It is in vain," said the dejected Luther to Staupitz, "that I make promises to God; sin is always too strong for me."

"Oh, my friend," answered the vicar-general, looking back on his own experience, "I have vowed to the holy God more than a thousand times that I would live a holy life, and never have I kept my vow! I now make no more vows, for I know well I shall not keep them. If God will not be merciful to me for Christ's sake, and grant me a happy death when I leave this world, I cannot, with all my vows and good works, stand before him. I must perish."*

The young monk is terrified at the thought of divine justice. He confesses all his fears. The unspeakable holiness of God—his sovereign majesty fill him with awe. Who can endure the day of his coming? Who can stand when He appeareth?

Staupitz resumed. He knew where he had found peace, and it was in his heart to tell the young man. "Why," said he, "do you distress yourself with these speculations and high thoughts? Look to the wounds of Jesus Christ, to the blood which he has shed for you; it is there you will see the mercy of God. Instead of torturing yourself for your faults, cast yourself into the arms of the Redeemer. Trust in him—in the righteousness of his life, in the expiatory sacrifice of his death. Do not shrink from him; God is not against you; it is you who are estranged and averse from God. Listen to the Son of God. He became man to assure you of the divine favour. He says to you, 'You are my sheep; you hear my voice; none shall pluck you out of my hand.'"[†]

But Luther could not find in himself the repentance he thought necessary to his salvation; he answered, (and it is the usual answer of distressed and timid minds,) "How can I dare believe in the favour of God, so long as there is no real conversion? I must be changed before He can receive me."

His venerable guide proves to him that there can be no real conversion, so long as man fears God as a severe judge. "What will you say, then," cries Luther, "to so many consciences, to whom are prescribed a thousand insupportable penances in order to gain heaven?"

Then he hears this answer from the vicar-general; or rather, he does not believe that it comes from a man; it seems to him a voice resounding from heaven.* "There is," said Staupitz, "no true repentance but that which begins in the love of God and of righteousness.† That which some fancy to be the end of repentance is only its beginning. In order to be filled with the love of that which is good, you must first be filled with the love of God. If you wish to be really converted, do not follow these mortifications and penances. Love him who has first loved you.

Luther listens and listens again. These consolations fill him with a joy before unknown, and impart to him new light. "It is Jesus Christ," thinks he in his heart; "yes, it is Jesus Christ himself who comforts me so wonderfully by these sweet and salutary words."[‡]

These words, indeed, penetrated the heart of the young monk like a sharp arrow from the bow of a strong man.§ In order to repentance, we must love God! Guided by this new light, he consulted the Scriptures. He looked to all the passages which speak of repentance and conversion. These words, so dreaded hitherto, (to use his own expressions,) became to him an agreeable pastime and the sweetest refreshment. All the passages of Scripture which once alarmed him, seemed now to run to him from all sides, to smile, to spring up, and play around him.||

"Before," he exclaims, "though I carefully dissembled with God as to the state of my heart, and though I tried to express a love for him, which was only a constraint and a mere fiction, there was no word in the Scripture more bitter to me than that of repentance. But now there is not one more sweet and pleasant to me.¶ Oh! how blessed are all God's precepts, when we read them not in books alone, but in the precious words of the Saviour."***

However, Luther, though comforted by the words of Staupitz, sometimes relapsed into depression. Sin was again felt in his timid conscience, and then, to the joy of salvation, succeeded all his former despair. "Oh, my sin! my sin! my sin!" cried the young monk, one day in the presence of the vicar-general, and in a tone of the bitterest grief. "Well, would you be only the semblance of a sinner," replied the latter, "and have only the semblance of a Saviour?" And then Staupitz added, with authority: "Know that Jesus Christ is the Saviour of those even who are real and great sinners, and deserving of utter condemnation."

It was not only the sin that he found in his heart that troubled Luther: to the doubts of his conscience were added those of his reason. If the holy precepts of the Bible distressed him, some of the doctrines of the divine word increased his distress. The truth, which is the great instrument by means of which God

* Te velut e celo sonantem accepimus. (L. Epp. i. 115, ad Staupitzum, 30 Maii, 1518.)

† Penitentia vero non est, nisi quæ ab amore justitiæ et Dei incipit, &c. (Ibid.)

‡ Memini inter jucundissimas et salutaris fabulas tuas, quibus me solet Dominus Jesus mirifice consolari. (Ibid.)

§ Hæsit hoc verbum tuum in me, sicut sagitta potentis acuta. (Ibid.)

|| Ecce jucundissimum ludum; verba undique mihi colludebant planeque huic sententiæ ardebat et assultabant. (L. Epp. i. 115, ad Staupitzum, 30 Maii, 1518.)

¶ Nunc nihil dulcius aut gratius mihi sonat quam penitentia, &c. (Ibid.)

** Ita enim dulcesunt præcepta Dei, quando non in libris tantum, sed in vulneribus dulcissimi Salvatoris legenda intelligimus. (Ibid.)

gives peace to man, must necessarily begin by taking from him that false confidence which is his ruin. The doctrine of election especially troubled the young man, and launched him into a field difficult indeed to explore. Must he believe that it was man who first chose God for his portion? or that it was God who first chose man? The Bible, history, daily experience, the writings of Augustine, all had shown him that we must always and in everything refer in the last case to that sovereign will by which everything exists, and upon which everything depends. But his ardent mind desired to go farther. He wished to penetrate into the secret counsels of God, to unveil his mysteries, to see the invisible, and comprehend the incomprehensible. Staupitz checked him. He persuaded him not to attempt to fathom God, who hideth himself; but to confine himself to what he has revealed of his character in Christ. "Look at the wounds of Christ," said he, "and you will there see shining clearly the purpose of God toward men. We cannot understand God out of Christ. 'In Christ you will see what I am and what I require,' hath the Lord said; 'you will not see it elsewhere, either in heaven or on earth.'"

The vicar-general did yet more. He brought Luther to acknowledge the fatherly design of God's providence in permitting these temptations and varied struggles with which his soul had to contend. He made him see them in a light well suited to revive his spirit. God prepares for himself by such trials the souls which he destines to some important work. We must prove the vessel before we launch it on the mighty deep. If education is necessary for every man, there is a particular education necessary for those who are to influence the generation in which they live. This was what Staupitz represented to the monk of Erfurth. "It is not for nothing," said he, "that God proves you by so many trials; however, you will see, there are great things in which he will make use of you as his minister."

These words, which Luther heard with wonder and humility, filled him with courage, and discovered to him, in himself, powers which he had not even suspected. The wisdom and prudence of an enlightened friend gradually revealed the strong man to himself. Staupitz did not stop there. He gave him valuable directions for his studies. He advised him to derive henceforth all his divinity from the Bible, laying aside the systems of the schools. "Let the study of the Scriptures," said he, "be your favourite occupation." Never was better advice, or better followed. But what especially delighted Luther, was the present that Staupitz made him of a Bible. At last he himself possessed that treasure which, until that hour, he had been obliged to seek either in the library of the University, or at the chain in the convent, or in the cell of a friend. From that time he studied the Scriptures, and especially St. Paul's Epistles, with increasing zeal. His only other reading was the works of St. Augustine. All that he read was powerfully impressed upon his mind. His struggles had prepared him to understand the work. The soil had been deeply ploughed; the incorruptible seed took deep root. When Staupitz left Erfurth, a new light had arisen upon Luther.

Still the work was not finished. The vicar-general had prepared it. God reserved the completion of it for a more humble instrument. The conscience of the young Augustine had not yet found repose. His health at last sunk under the exertions and stretch of his mind. He was attacked with a malady that brought him to the gates of the grave. It was then the second year of his abode at the convent. All his anguish and terrors returned in the prospect of death. His own impurity

and God's holiness again disturbed his mind. One day, when he was overwhelmed with despair, an old monk entered his cell, and spoke kindly to him. Luther opened his heart to him, and acquainted him with the fears that disquieted him. The respectable old man was incapable of entering into all his doubts, as Staupitz had done; but he knew his *Credo*, and he had found there something to comfort his own heart. He thought he would apply the same remedy to the young brother. Calling his attention therefore to the Apostles' creed, which Luther had learnt in his early childhood at the school of Mansfeld, the old monk uttered in simplicity this article: "*I believe in the forgiveness of sins.*" These simple words, ingeniously recited by the pious brother at a critical moment, shed sweet consolation in the mind of Luther. "*I believe,*" repeated he to himself on his bed of suffering, "*I believe the remission of sins.*" "Ah," said the monk, "you must not only believe that David's or Peter's sins are forgiven: the devils believe that. The commandment of God is, that we believe *our own sins* are forgiven." How sweet did this commandment appear to poor Luther! "Hear what St. Bernard says in his discourse on the Annunciation," added the old brother. "The testimony which the Holy Ghost applies to your heart is this: '*Thy sins are forgiven thee.*'"

From that moment the light shone into the heart of the young monk of Erfurth. The word of Grace was pronounced, and he believed it. He renounced the thought of meriting salvation; and trusted himself with confidence to God's grace in Christ Jesus. He did not perceive the consequence of the principle he admitted; he was still sincerely attached to the church: and yet he was thenceforward independent of it; for he had received salvation from God himself; and Romish Catholicism was virtually extinct to him. From that hour Luther went forward; he sought in the writings of the Apostles and Prophets for all that might strengthen the hope which filled his heart. Every day he implored help from above, and every day new light was imparted to his soul.

This comfort to his spirit restored health to his body. He quickly arose from his sick-bed. He had received new life in more than one sense. The festival of Christmas, which soon after arrived, was to him an occasion of rich enjoyment of all the consolations of faith. He took part in the solemnities of that sacred season with sweet emotion; and when, in the services of the day, he had to sing these words, "*O beata culpa quæ talem meruisti Redemptorem!*"[†] his whole soul joyfully responded—*Amen*.

Luther had now been two years in the cloister. The time drew near when he was to be ordained priest. He had received largely; and he looked forward with joy to the liberty afforded, by the priest's office, of freely giving what he had so freely received. He resolved to take advantage of the approaching solemnity, to be perfectly reconciled to his father. He invited him to be present at it, and even asked him to fix the day. John Luther, who had not yet entirely forgiven his son, nevertheless accepted this invitation, and named Sunday, May 2, 1507.

Amongst the number of Luther's friends was John Braun, vicar of Eisenach, who had been his faithful adviser during his abode in that town. Luther wrote to him on the 22d of April: this is the earliest letter extant of the Reformer. It is addressed: "To John Braun, holy and venerable priest of Christ and of Mary."

* Davidi aut Petro . . . Sed mandatum Dei esse, ut singuli homines nobis remitti peccata credamus. —(Melanct. Vit. L.)

† Keil p. 16.

It is only in the two earliest letters of Luther that the name of the Virgin occurs.

"God, who is glorious and holy in all his works," said the candidate for the priesthood, "having condescended to raise me up, who am but a wretched man, and in every way an unworthy sinner, and to call me, by his alone and most free mercy, to his high and holy ministry, I, that I may testify my gratitude for goodness so divine and munificent, ought (as far as dust and ashes can) to fulfil, with all my heart, the office entrusted to me.

"For this cause, my beloved father, lord, and brother, I ask you, if you have time, and your ecclesiastical and domestic affairs allow it, to deign to assist me by your presence and your prayers, that my sacrifice may be acceptable in the sight of God.

"But I give you notice, that you must come straight to our monastery, and spend some time with us, without seeking any other lodging; you must become an inhabitant of our cells."

At length the day arrived. The miner of Mansfield did not fail to be present at the consecration of his son. He even gave him an unequivocal proof of his affection and generosity, by making him a present, on this occasion, of twenty florins.

The ceremony took place. Jerome, Bishop of Brandenburg, officiated. At the moment in which he conferred upon Luther the power of celebrating the mass, he put the cup into his hand, and addressed him in these solemn words: "*Accipe potestatem sacrificandi pro vivis et mortuis*—Receive the power of offering sacrifice for the living and the dead." Luther, at that moment, listened calmly to these words, which granted him power to do the work of the Son of God himself; but, at a later period, they made him shudder. "That the earth did not then swallow us both up," says he, "was an instance of the patience and long-suffering of the Lord."*

His father afterward dined in the convent with his son, the friends of the young priest, and the monks. The conversation turned on Martin's entrance into the cloister. The brethren commended it as a highly meritorious action; on which the inflexible John, turning to them, remarked: "Have you not read in the Scripture, that it is a duty to obey father and mother?" These words struck Luther. They exhibited the action which brought him into the convent in a totally different light; and long afterward they resounded in his heart.

Luther, after his consecration, acting by the advice of Staupitz, made several short excursions on foot to the parishes and convents of the environs; either to occupy his mind, or for the sake of necessary exercise; or else to accustom himself to preaching.

It had been appointed that Corpus-Christi should be kept with much ceremony at Eisleben. The vicar-general was to be present: Luther attended. He still felt his need of Staupitz, and took every opportunity of being in the company of that enlightened guide, who helped forward his soul in the way of life. The procession was numerous and gaudy. Staupitz himself carried the host: Luther followed next in his priestly garments. The thought that Jesus Christ himself was borne before him by the vicar-general—the idea that the Lord in person was present—suddenly struck upon Luther's imagination, and so overawed him, that it was with difficulty he went forward: a cold sweat came over him; he staggered, and thought he should die in the agony of his fear: at last, the procession stopped. The host which had awakened the monk's terrors was reverently deposited in the sacristy, and Luther, left alone with Staupitz, threw himself into his arms, and confessed the cause of his fear. Then the vicar-general,

* L. Opp. xvi. (W.) 1144.

who had long known that gracious Saviour who breaks not the bruised reed, gently whispered: "Dear brother, it was not Jesus Christ; for Christ does not terrify; he ever comforts."*

Luther was not destined to remain hidden in an obscure convent. The time had arrived which was to transfer him to a wider theatre. Staupitz, with whom he still maintained a regular correspondence, was well persuaded that there was in the young monk a spirit too stirring to be confined within a narrow range. He spoke of him to Frederic, the Elector of Saxony; and that enlightened prince invited Luther, in 1508, probably near the close of that year, to become professor of the University of Wittemberg. Wittemberg was the field on which Luther was ordained to fight many a hard battle. He felt himself called thither. He was pressed to repair quickly to his new post. He answered the call immediately; and in the haste of his removal, he had not time even to write to one whom he called his master and well-beloved father, the curate of Eisenach, John Braun. He wrote to him from Wittemberg, a few months after: "My departure was so sudden," said he, "that it was almost unknown to those with whom I was living. It is true, I am at a greater distance, but the better half of me remains still with you; and the farther I am removed in bodily presence, the more closely my spirit is drawn to you."† Luther had been three years in the cloister of Erfurth.

Arriving at Wittemberg, he repaired to the convent of the Augustines, where a cell was assigned him; for though a professor, he ceased not to be a monk. He was appointed to teach physics and dialectics. This appointment was probably conferred upon him in consideration of his philosophical studies at Erfurth, and his degree of master of arts. Thus Luther, who was then hungering and thirsting for the word of God, was obliged to apply himself almost exclusively to the scholastic philosophy of Aristotle. He felt the need of that bread of life which God gives to the world; and he was forced to bury himself in mere human subtleties. Hard necessity! how did he sigh under it! "I am very well, by God's favour," wrote he to Braun; "but that I am compelled to give my whole attention to philosophy. From the moment of my arrival at Wittemberg, I have longed to exchange that study for theology; but," added he, lest he should be thought to mean the theology of that age, "I mean that theology which seeks the kernel of the nut, the pulp of the wheat, the marrow of the bone.‡ However things may go, God is God," continued he, with that confidence which was the life of his soul, "man almost always errs in his judgment; but this is our God for ever and ever; he will be our guide unto death." The labours that were then imposed upon Luther were at a later period of great use in enabling him to combat the errors of the schools.

He could not rest there. The desire of his heart was destined to be fulfilled. That same power, which some years before had driven Luther from the bar to a religious life, now impelled him to the Bible. He applied himself zealously to the study of the ancient languages, especially the Greek and Hebrew, that he might draw knowledge and doctrine from the fountain head. He was, through life, indefatigable in his studies.§ Some months after his arrival at the university, he solicited the degree of bachelor in divinity.

* Es ist nicht Christus, denn Christus schreckt nicht, sondern tröstet nur. (L. Opp. (W.) xxii. p. 513, & 724.)

† Epp. i. p. 5.—17th March, 1509.

‡ Theologia quæ nucleum nucis et medullam tritici et medullam ossium scrutatur. (L. Opp. i. 6.)

§ In studiis litterarum corpore ac mente indefessus. (Pallavicini Hist. Concil. Trid. i. p. 16.)

He obtained it at the end of March, 1509, with a particular direction to Biblical theology.

Every day at one o'clock Luther was expected to discourse upon the Bible; a precious hour for the professor and the pupils, and which always gave them deeper insight into the divine sense of those discoveries so long lost to the people and to the schools.

He began these lectures, by explaining the Psalms, and he soon passed to the Epistles to the Romans. It was especially in meditating upon this book that the light of truth entered his heart. In the retirement of his tranquil cell, he devoted whole hours to the study of the divine word, with St. Paul's Epistle open before him. One day, having proceeded as far as the seventeenth verse of the first chapter, he there read this passage of the Prophet Habakkuk: "*The just shall live by faith.*" The precept strikes him. There is then for the just another life than that possessed by the rest of men; and this life is the fruit of faith. This word, which he receives into his heart, as if God himself had planted it there, discloses to him the mystery of the Christian life, and increases that life in his soul. In the midst of his struggles in after life, the words often recurred to him, "*The just shall live by faith.*"*

The lectures of Luther, with such a preparation, were very different from any that had been heard before. It was not now an eloquent rhetorician, or a pedantic schoolman, who spoke; it was a Christian who had experienced the power of revealed truths; who derived them from the Bible; who drew them from the treasury of his own heart, and presented them in full life to his astonished auditors. It was no longer man's teaching; but God's.

This altogether new way of exhibiting the truth made some noise: the rumour of it spread far, and attracted to the newly founded university a crowd of young and foreign students. Several even of the professors attended Luther's lectures, and among others, the celebrated Martin Pollich, of Mellerstadt, doctor of physic, law, and philosophy, who, with Staupitz, had organized the university of Wittemberg, and had been its first rector. Mellerstadt, who has been often called "the light of the world," modestly mixed with the pupils of the new professor. "This monk," said he, "will put all doctors to the rout; he will introduce a new style of doctrine, and will reform the whole Church: he builds upon the word of Christ; and no one in this world can either resist or overthrow that word, though it should be attacked with all the weapons of Philosophers, Sophists, Scotists, Albertists, and Thomists."†

Staupitz, who was as the hand of Providence to develop the gifts and treasures that lay hidden in Luther, invited him to preach in the church of the Augustines. The young professor shrunk from this proposal. He wished to confine himself to his academical duties; he trembled at the thought of adding to them those of public preaching. In vain Staupitz entreated him: "No, no," replied he, "it is no light thing to speak to men in God's stead."‡ An affecting instance of humility in this great Reformer of the Church! Staupitz persisted. "But the ingenious Luther found," says one of his historians, "fifteen arguments, pretexts, or evasions, to excuse himself from this summons." At last the chief of the Augustines, still persevering in his application: "Ah, worthy doctor," said Luther, "it would be the death of me. I could not stand it three months." "And what then?" replied the vicar-general; "in God's name so be it;

for in heaven also the Lord requires devoted and able servants." Luther was obliged to yield.

In the middle of the square of Wittemberg stood an old wooden chapel, thirty feet long and twenty broad, whose walls, propped on all sides, were falling to ruins. A pulpit made of planks, raised three feet above the ground, received the preacher. It was in this chapel that the Reformation was first preached. It was the will of God that this work for the restoration of his glory should have the humblest beginnings. The foundation of the church of the Augustines was only just laid, and till it should be completed they made use of this mean place of worship. "That building," adds the contemporary of Luther, who relates these circumstances, "may be aptly compared to the stable in which Christ was born.* It was in that enclosure that God willed, if we may so speak, that his well-beloved Son should be born a second time. Among the thousand cathedrals and parish churches with which the world is filled, not one was chosen for the glorious announcement of everlasting life."

Luther preached: everything was striking in the new preacher. His expressive countenance and dignified demeanour, his clear and sonorous voice, charmed the audience. Before his time, the greater number of preachers had sought to amuse their hearers rather than to convert them. The deep seriousness that marked the preaching of Luther, and the joy with which the knowledge of the Gospel filled his own heart, gave to his eloquence an authority, energy, and unction, which none of his predecessors had possessed. "Gifted with a ready and lively intelligence," says one of his adversaries,† "having a retentive memory, and speaking his mother tongue with remarkable fluency, Luther was surpassed in eloquence by none of his contemporaries. Addressing his hearers from his place in the pulpit, as if he had been agitated by some powerful passion, and adapting his action to the words, he affected their minds in a surprising manner, and carried them like a torrent whither he would. So much power, action, and eloquence are rarely found among the people of the north." "He had," says Bossuet, "a lively and impetuous eloquence, which delighted and captivated his auditory."‡

In a short time the little chapel could no longer contain the crowds that flocked thither. The council of Wittemberg then chose Luther for their preacher, and called upon him to preach in the church of that city. The impression which he there produced was still greater. His wonderful genius, his eloquent style, and the excellency of the doctrines he proclaimed, equally astonished his auditors. His reputation spread far and wide, and Frederic the Wise himself came once to Wittemberg to hear him.

It was as if a new existence was opening for Luther. To the drowsiness of the cloister had succeeded a life of active exertion. Freedom, employment, earnest and regular action completed the re-establishment of harmony and peace in his spirit. He was now at last in his proper place, and the work of God was about to open out its majestic course. Luther was continuing his teaching both in the hall of the academy and in the church, when he was interrupted in his labours. In 1510, or according to some, not till 1511 or 1512, he was despatched to Rome. A difference had arisen between seven convents of his order and the vicar-general.§ Luther's acuteness, eloquence, and talents in discussion, led to his being chosen to

* Myconius.

† Florimond Raymond, Hist. hæres. cap. 5.

‡ Bossuet, Hist. des Variations, l. 1.

§ Quod septem conventus a vicario in quibusdam dissentirent. (Cochlæus, 2.)

* Seeckend. p. 55.

† Melch. Adam. Vita Lutheri, p. 104.

‡ Fabricius, Centifolium Lutheri, p. 33. Mathesius, p. 6.

represent these seven monasteries.* This dispensation of divine Providence was needed. It was fit that Luther should know what Rome was. Full of the prejudices and illusions of the cloister, he had always pictured it to himself as the seat of holiness.

He set out; he crossed the Alps. But hardly had he descended into the plains of rich and voluptuous Italy, than he found at every step matter of surprise and scandal. The poor German monk was entertained at a wealthy convent of the Benedictines, situate on the Po, in Lombardy. This convent enjoyed a revenue of thirty-six thousand ducats; twelve thousand were spent for the table, twelve thousand on the buildings, and twelve thousand to supply the other wants of the monks.† The magnificence of the apartments, the richness of the dresses, and the delicacy of the viands, astonished Luther. Marble, silk, and luxury of every kind; what a novel spectacle to the humble brother of the convent of Wittenberg! He was amazed and silent; but Friday came, and what was his surprise! The table of the Benedictines was spread with abundance of meats. Then he found courage to speak out. "The church," said he, "and the Pope, forbid such things." The Benedictines were offended at this rebuke from the unmannerly German. But Luther, having repeated his remark, and perhaps threatened to report their irregularity, some of them thought it easiest to get rid of their troublesome guest. The porter of the convent hinted to him that he incurred danger by his stay. He accordingly took his departure from this epicurean monastery, and pursued his journey to Bologna, where he fell sick.‡ Some have seen in this sickness the effect of poison. It is more probable that the change in his mode of living disordered the frugal monk of Wittenberg, who had been used to subsist for the most part on dry bread and herrings. This sickness was not "unto death," but for the glory of God. His constitutional sadness and depression returned. What a fate was before him, to perish thus far away from Germany, under a scorching sun, in a foreign land. The distress of mind he had experienced at Erfurth again oppressed him. A sense of his sins disturbed him; and the prospect of the judgment of God filled him with dismay. But in the moment when his terror was at its height, that word of Paul, "*The just shall live by Faith*," recurred with power to his thought, and beamed upon his soul like a ray from heaven. Raised and comforted, he rapidly regained health, and again set forth for Rome, expecting to find there a very different manner of life from that of the Lombard convents, and eager to efface, by the contemplation of Roman sanctity, the sad impression left upon his memory by his sojourn on the banks of the Po.

At last, after a fatiguing journey, under the burning sun of Italy, he approached the seven-hilled city. His heart was moved within him. His eyes longed to behold the queen of the earth, and of the Church! As soon as he discovered from a distance the Eternal City—the city of St. Peter and St. Paul, the metropolis of the Catholic World, he threw himself on the earth, exclaiming, "Holy Rome, I salute thee!"

Luther was now in Rome; the professor of Wittenberg was in the midst of the eloquent ruins of the Rome of Consuls and of Emperors, the Rome of Confessors of Christ, and of Martyrs. There had lived Plautus and Virgil, whose works he had carried with him into his cloister; and all those great men whose history had so often stirred his heart. He beheld their statues, and the ruined monuments which still attested their glory. But, all this glory and power had passed away.

He trod under foot the dust of them. He called to mind, at every step he took, the melancholy presentiments of Scipio, when, shedding tears over the ruins of Carthage, its palaces in flames, and its walls broken down, he exclaimed: "*It will one day be thus with Rome!*" "And truly," said Luther, "the Rome of Scipios and Cæsars is but a corpse. There are such heaps of ruin that the foundations of the houses rest at this hour where once their roofs were. There," said he, turning a melancholy look on its ruins, "*there were once the riches and treasures of this world!*"* All these fragments of wreck, which his foot encountered, whispered to Luther, within Rome herself, that what is strongest in the sight of men, may be destroyed by the breath of the Lord.

But with these profane ruins were mixed holy ashes: the thought of this came to his mind. The burial places of the martyrs are hard by those of Roman generals and conquerors. Christian Rome, and her trials, had more power over the heart of the Saxon Monk, than Pagan Rome with all her glory. In this very place arrived that epistle wherein Paul wrote, "*the just shall live by faith*." He is not far from the forum of Appius, and the Three Taverns. In that spot was the house of Narcissus; here stood the palace of Cæsar, where the Lord delivered the Apostle from the jaws of the lion. Oh, how did these recollections strengthen the heart of the monk of Wittenberg!

Rome then presented a widely different aspect. The warlike Julius II. filled the pontifical chair, and not Leo X., as some distinguished historians of Germany have said, doubtless for want of attention. Luther often related an incident of this Pope's life. When the news was brought him that his army had been defeated by the French before Ravenna, he was reading his prayers; he threw the book on the floor, exclaiming, with a dreadful oath, "Well, now thou art become a Frenchman.—Is it thus thou guardest thy church?" Then, turning himself in the direction of the country to whose arms he thought to have recourse, he uttered these words, "Holy Swiss! pray for us."† Ignorance, levity, and dissolute morals, a profane contempt of everything sacred, and a shameful traffic in divine things; such was the spectacle presented by this wretched city. Yet the pious monk continued for a while in his illusions.

Having arrived about the period of the festival of St. John, he heard the Romans repeating around him a proverb current among the people: "Blessed is that mother," said they, "whose son says mass on St. John's eve." Oh, thought Luther, how gladly would I make my mother blessed. The pious son of Margaret made some attempts to say mass on that day, but he could not, the crowd was too great.‡

Warm in his feeling, and confiding in disposition, he visited all the churches and chapels, gave credit to all the marvellous stories there told him, went through with devotion the observances required, and was pleased at being able to perform so many pious acts, from which his friends at home were debarred. "How do I regret," thought the pious monk, "that my father and mother are still living: how happy should I be to deliver them from the fire of purgatory by my masses, my prayers, and other admirable works."§ He had found the light; but the darkness was far from being wholly chased from his mind; he had the faith and love of the Gospel, but not the knowledge of it. It was no easy matter to emerge from that deep gloom that had for so many ages overspread the earth.

* L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 2374, 2377.

† Sancte Swizere! ora pro nobis. (L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1314, 1332.)

‡ L. Opp. (W.) Dedication of the 117 Psm. VI. vol. L. g.

§ Ibid.

* Quod esset acer ingenio et ad contradicendum auidax et vehemens. (Ibid.)

† L. Opp. (W.) xxii. p. 1468.

‡ Matth. Dresser Hist. Lutheri.

Luther said mass several times at Rome. He went through it with all the unction and dignity that such an act seemed to him to require. But how was the heart of the Saxon monk distressed, when he saw the profane and heartless formality with which the Roman clergy celebrated this Sacrament! The priests, on their part, laughed at his simplicity. One day, when he was officiating, he found that at the altar they had read seven masses while he was reading one. "Quick! quick!" said one of the priests, "send *Our Lady* her Son back speedily;" thus impiously alluding to the transubstantiation of the bread into the body and blood of Christ. Another time Luther had only got as far as the Gospel, when the priest who was at his side had already finished the mass: "Make haste, make haste!" whispered the latter, "do have done with it."*

His astonishment was still greater, when he found, in the dignitaries of the church, the same corruption he had observed in the inferior clergy. He had hoped better things of them.

It was the fashion at the papal court to attack Christianity; and a person was not counted a man of sense, if he did not hold some eccentric and heretical opinion in relation to the dogmas of the Church.† Some would have convinced Erasmus, by certain passages from Pliny, that there was no difference between the souls of men and of beasts; and there were young courtiers of the Pope, who affirmed that the orthodox faith was the growth of the cunning invention of the saints.

Luther's office of envoy from the Augustines of Germany, procured him invitations to several meetings of distinguished ecclesiastics. One day, in particular, he was at table with several prelates: the latter exhibited openly their buffoonery in manners and impious conversation; and did not scruple to give utterance before him to many indecent jokes, doubtless thinking him one like themselves. They related, among other things, laughing, and priding themselves upon it, how, when saying mass at the altar, instead of the sacramental words which were to transform the elements into the body and blood of the Saviour, they pronounced over the bread and wine these sarcastic words: "Bread thou art, and bread thou shalt remain; wine thou art, and wine thou shalt remain—*Panis es et panis manebis; vinum es et vinum manebis.*" "Then," continued they, "we elevate the pyx, and all the people worship." Luther could scarcely believe his ears. His mind, gifted with much vivacity, and even gaiety, in the society of his friends, was remarkable for gravity when treating on serious things. These Romish mockeries shocked him. "I," says he, "was a serious and pious young monk; such language deeply grieved me. If at Rome they speak thus openly at table, thought I, what, if their actions should correspond with their words, and popes, cardinals, and courtiers should thus say mass. And I, who have so often heard them recite it so devoutly, how, in that case, must I have been deceived?"

Luther often mixed with the monks and citizens of Rome. If some among them extolled the Pope and the clergy, the greater number gave vent to their complaints and sarcasms. What stories had they to tell of the reigning Pope, of Alexander VI., and of so many others! One day, his Roman friends related, how Cæsar Borgia, having fled from Rome, had been taken in Spain. On the eve of trial, he prayed for mercy, and asked for a priest to visit him in his prison. They sent him a monk. He murdered him, disguised him-

self in his cowl, and effected his escape. "I heard that at Rome; it is a thing well known," says Luther.* Another day, passing along the principal street that led to St. Peter's church, he stopped in astonishment before a statue, representing a pope, under the figure of a woman holding a sceptre, clothed in the papal mantle, bearing a child in her arms. "It is a girl of Mentz," said the people, "who was chosen Pope by the Cardinals, and was delivered of a child on this spot: therefore no pope ever passes through this street." "I wonder," observed Luther, "that the popes allow the statue to remain."†

Luther had expected to find the edifice of the church encompassed with splendour and strength; but its doors were broken in, and its walls consumed by fire. He saw the desolation of the sanctuary, and drew back in alarm. He had dreamed of sanctity; he found nothing but profanation.

He was not less struck with the disorders committed in the city. "The police is strict and severe in Rome," said he. "The judge, or captain, rides through the city every night, with three hundred attendants. He stops all he finds in the streets; if he meets an armed man, he hangs him, or throws him into the Tiber. And yet the city is full of disorders and murders; whilst, in places where the word of God is truly and faithfully preached, we see peace and order prevail, without the necessity for law or severity."‡ "It is incredible what sins and atrocities are committed in Rome," he says again; "they must be seen and heard to be believed. So that it is usual to say; 'If there be a hell, Rome is built above it; it is an abyss from whence all sins proceed.'"[§]

This sight made at the time a great impression on Luther's mind; an impression which was afterward deepened. "The nearer we approach to Rome, the greater number of bad Christians do we find," said he, several years after. "It is commonly observed that he who goes to Rome for the first time, goes to seek a knave there; the second time, he finds him; and the third time, he brings him away with him under his cloak. But now, people are become so clever, that they make the three journeys in one."|| One of the most profound geniuses of Italy, though of deplorable celebrity, Macchiavelli, who was living at Florence when Luther passed through that city to go to Rome, has made a similar remark: "The greatest symptom," said he, "of the approaching ruin of Christianity, (by which he meant the Roman Catholic religion,) is, that the nearer we approach the capital of Christendom, the less do we find of the Christian spirit in the people. The scandalous example and the crimes of the court of Rome have caused Italy to lose every principle of piety and every religious sentiment. We Italians," continues the great historian, "are principally indebted to the Church, and to the priests, for having become impious and profligate."¶ Luther felt, later in life, all the importance of this journey: "If any one would give me a hundred thousand florins," said he, "I would not have missed seeing Rome."**

This journey was also of advantage to him in regard to learning. Like Reuchlin, Luther profited by his residence in Italy, to obtain a deeper understanding of the Holy Scriptures. He there took lessons in Hebrew from a celebrated Rabbín, named Elias Levita.

* Das habe ich zu Rom fur gewiss gehöri. (Table Talk; p. 1322.)

† Es nimmt mich Wunder dass die Papste solches Bild leiden können.—(Ibid. p. 1320.)

‡ L. Opp. (W.) xxii. p. 2376.

§ Address to the Christian Nobles of Germany.

|| Ist irgend eine Helle, so muss Rom darauf gebaut seyn. (lb. 2377.)

¶ Diss. on the 1st. Decade of Livy.

** L. Opp. (W.) xxii. p. 2374.

* L. Opp. (W.) xix. von der Winkelnesse, &c.

† In quel tempo mon pareva fosse galantuomo e buon cortegiano colui che de dogmi della chiesa non aveva qualche opinione erronea ed heretica. (Caracciola Vit. MS. Paul IV.) cited by Rancke.

He acquired, partly at Rome, the knowledge of that divine word, under the assault of which Rome was doomed to fall.

But this journey was, above all, of great importance to Luther in another respect. Not only was the veil withdrawn, and the sardonic laugh, the jesting incredulity, which lay concealed behind the Romish superstitions, revealed to the future Reformer: but also the living faith which God had implanted in him, was then powerfully strengthened.

We have seen how he had at first submitted to all the vain practices which the Church enjoins, in order to purchase the remission of sins. One day, in particular, wishing to obtain an indulgence promised by the pope to any one who should ascend, on his knees, what is called *Pilate's staircase*, the poor Saxon monk was slowly climbing those steps which, they told him, had been miraculously transported from Jerusalem to Rome. But while he was going through this meritorious work, he thought he heard a voice like thunder speaking from the depth of his heart: "*The just shall live by faith.*" These words, which already on two occasions had struck upon his ear as the voice of an angel of God, resounded instantaneously and powerfully within him. He started up in terror on the steps up which he had been crawling; he was horrified at himself; and, struck with shame for the degradation to which superstition had debased him, he fled from the scene of his folly.*

This powerful text had a mysterious influence on the life of Luther. It was a creative word for the Reformer and for the Reformation. It was by means of that word that God then said: "Let there be light, and there was light."

It is frequently necessary that a truth should be repeatedly presented to our minds, in order to produce its due effect. Luther had often studied the Epistle to the Romans, and yet never had justification by faith, as there taught, appeared so clear to him. He now understood that righteousness which alone can stand in the sight of God; he was now partaker of that perfect obedience of Christ which God imputes freely to the sinner as soon as he looks in humility to the God-man crucified. This was the decisive epoch in the inward life of Luther. That faith which had saved him from the fear of death, became henceforward the soul of his theology; a strong hold in every danger, giving power to his preaching, and strength to his charity, constituting a ground of peace, a motive to service, and a consolation in life and death.

But this great doctrine of a salvation which proceeds from God, and not from man, was not merely the power of God unto salvation to Luther, it also became the power of God to reform the Church. It was the same weapon which the Apostles had once wielded, and now, after long disuse, it was drawn forth in its original brightness from the arsenal of Almighty God. At the moment when Luther started from his knees, transported with emotion at that word which St. Paul had addressed to the inhabitants of Rome, the truth, hitherto held captive and fettered in the Church, stood up also to fall no more.

We must here quote his own words. "Though as a monk I was holy and irreproachable," says he, "my conscience was still filled with trouble and torment. I could not endure the expression—the righteous justice of God. I did not love that just and holy Being who punishes sinners. I felt a secret anger against him; I hated him because, not satisfied with terrifying by his law, and by the miseries of life, poor creatures already ruined by original sin, he aggravated our sufferings by the Gospel. But when, by the Spirit of God,

I understood these words,—when I learnt how the justification of the sinner proceeds from God's mere mercy by the way of faith,*—then I felt myself born again as a new man, and I entered by an opened door into the very paradise of God.† From that hour I saw the precious and holy Scriptures with new eyes. I went through the whole Bible. I collected a multitude of passages which taught me what the work of God was. And, as I had before heartily hated that expression, 'the righteousness of God,' I began, from that time, to value and to love it, as the sweetest and most consolatory truth. Truly this text of St. Paul was to me as the very gate of heaven."

Hence it was, that, when he was called upon on some solemn occasions to confess this doctrine, it ever roused his enthusiasm and rough eloquence. "I see," said he in a critical moment,‡ "that the devil, by means of his teachers and doctors, is incessantly attacking this fundamental article, and that he cannot rest to cease from this object. Well, then, I, Doctor Martin Luther, an unworthy evangelist of our Lord Jesus Christ, do confess this article, "that faith alone, without works, justifies in the sight of God, and I declare, that in spite of the emperor of the Romans, the emperor of the Turks, the emperor of the Tartars, the emperor of the Persians, the pope, all the cardinals, bishops, priests, monks, nuns, kings, princes, nobles, all the world and all the devils, it shall stand unshaken for ever! that if they will persist in opposing this truth, they will draw upon their heads the flames of hell. This is the true and holy gospel, and the declaration of me, Doctor Luther, according to the light given to me by the Holy Spirit. . . . There is no one," he continues, "who has died for our sins, but Jesus Christ the Son of God. I repeat it once more: let all the evil spirits of earth and hell foam and rage as they will, this is nevertheless true. And if Christ alone takes away sin, we cannot do so by all our works. But good works follow redemption,—as surely as fruit appears upon a living tree. This is our doctrine; this the Holy Spirit teacheth, together with all holy Christian people. We hold it in God's name. Amen!"

It was thus that Luther discovered what hitherto even the most illustrious teachers and reformers had overlooked. It was in Rome that God gave him this clear view of the fundamental doctrine of Christianity. He had come to seek in that city of the Pontiffs, the solution of some difficulties concerning a monastic order; he brought back in his heart, that which was to emancipate the Church.

Luther left Rome and returned to Wittenberg, full of grief and indignation. Turning away his eyes in disgust from the pontifical city, he directed them trustfully to the Holy Scriptures, and to that new life which the word of God seemed then to offer to the world. This word gained ground in his heart in proportion as the Church lost its hold upon him. He disengaged himself from the one to turn to the other. All the Reformation was comprised in that change; for it put God in the place the priest had usurped.

Staupitz and the Elector did not lose sight of the monk they had called to the university of Wittenberg. It seems as if the vicar-general had a presentiment of the work that was to be accomplished in the world, and that, finding it too hard for him, he desired to urge Luther to undertake it. Nothing is more remarkable, or perhaps more inexplicable, than the character of the man who was ever ready to impel the monk onward in the path to which God called him, and yet himself

* Quæ vos Deus misericors justificat per fidem. (L. Opp. lat.)

† Hic me prorsus reatum esse sensi et apertis portis in ipsum paradysum intrasse. (Ibid.)

‡ Gloss on the Imperial Edict, 1531. (L. Opp. (L.) tom. xxx.)

* Seck. p. 56.

went and ended his days sadly in a convent. The preaching of the young professor had made an impression on the prince; he admired the strength of his understanding, the power of his eloquence, and the excellence of the subjects that he handled.* The Elector and his friends, wishing to promote a man of such great promise, resolved to raise him to the distinction of doctor of divinity. Staupitz repaired to the convent. He led Luther into the cloister garden, and there talking with him alone under a tree, which Luther afterwards took pleasure in pointing out to his disciples,† the venerable father said to him: "My friend, you must now become Doctor of the Holy Scriptures." Luther drew back. The thought of this distinguished honour overcame him. "Seek one more worthy of it," said he; "for my part, I cannot consent to it." The vicar-general pressed the point. "The Lord has much to do in the Church, he requires just now young and vigorous doctors." "This was said perhaps jestingly," adds Melancthon, "yet the event corresponded to it, for usually many presages announce great revolutions."‡ There is no reason to suppose that Melancthon here speaks of prophecy, strictly so called. The last century, though remarkable for incredulity, saw this exemplified:—how many presages, without miracles, preceded the revolution at the close of that century!

"But I am weak and ailing," said Luther; "I have not long to live. Look for a strong man." "The Lord has work in heaven as in earth; dead or alive, God requires you."§

"The Holy Spirit alone can make a doctor of divinity,"|| exclaimed the monk, more and more overcome with fear. "Do as your convent desires," said Staupitz, "and what I your Vicar-General require you to do, for you have promised to obey us." "But think of my poverty," resumed the friar; "I have nothing wherewith to pay the expenses incident to such a promotion." "Do not make yourself uneasy about that," said his friend, "the prince is so kind as to take the charges upon himself." Urged on all sides, Luther was obliged to submit.

It was toward the summer of 1512, Luther set out for Leipsic to receive from the treasurers of the Elector, the money requisite on his promotion. But, according to court custom, the money did not arrive. Luther, becoming impatient, wished to depart; but the obedience becoming the character of a monk restrained him. At last, on the 4th of October, he received from Pfeffinger and John Doltzig, fifty florins. He gave them a receipt, in which he assumed no other designation than monk. "I, Martin," said he, "brother of the order of the Eremites,"¶ Luther hastened back to Wittemberg.

Andrew Bodenstein of Carlstadt was at that time the Dean of the Faculty of Theology. Carlstadt is the name under which this doctor is best known. He was also called the A. B. C. Melancthon first gave him that name, alluding to the three initials of his name. Bodenstein acquired in his native country the first elements of education. He was of grave and sombre character—perhaps inclined to jealousy, of unquiet temper, but very eager for learning, and gifted with great capacity. He visited several universities to en-

large his knowledge, and studied theology at Rome itself. On his return from Italy to Germany, he established himself at Wittemberg, and there became doctor of theology. At this time, as he himself afterwards declared, he had not read the Holy Scriptures.* This trait gives a very just idea of what then constituted theology. Carlstadt, besides his functions as professor, was canon and archdeacon. This was the man who was, one day, to divide the Reformation. He then saw in Luther only an inferior; but the Augustine soon became an object of his jealousy. One day he remarked, "I will not be less distinguished than Luther."† Far from anticipating at this time the future greatness of the young professor, Carlstadt conferred on his destined rival the first degree of the university.

On the 18th October, 1512, Luther was made licentiate in theology, and took the following oath:

"I swear to defend the truth of the Gospel with all my strength."‡ The following day, Bodenstein solemnly delivered to him, in presence of a numerous assembly, the insignia of Doctor in Theology.

He was made Biblical Doctor, and not Doctor of Sentences, and was therefore specially bound to devote himself to the study of the Bible, instead of human traditions. Then it was, as he himself tells us, that he espoused his well-beloved and Holy Scriptures.§ He promised to preach them faithfully, to teach them in purity, to study them all his life, and to defend them so far as God should enable him, by disputation, and by writing against false teachers.||

This solemn vow was to Luther his vocation as a Reformer. Binding upon his conscience the sacred obligation to investigate freely, and declare openly evangelical truth, that oath lifted the new made doctor above the narrow bounds to which his monastic vow might have restricted him. Called by the University, by his Sovereign, in the name of the Imperial Majesty, and of the Roman See itself, and bound before God, by the most sacred of oaths, he was from that time the intrepid herald of the word of life. On that memorable day Luther was installed Champion of the Bible.

Therefore it is that this oath, pledged to the holy Scriptures, may be regarded as one of the immediate causes of the revival of the Church. The infallible authority of the word of God was the first and fundamental principle of the Reformation. Every reform in detail afterwards effected in doctrine, morals, church government, and public worship, was but a consequence of this first principle. In these days we can hardly imagine the sensation produced by this elementary truth, so simple, yet for ages neglected. A few men, of more enlarged discernment than the vulgar, alone foresaw its important consequences. Speedily the courageous voices of all the Reformers proclaimed this powerful principle, at the sound of which the influence of Rome crumbled into the dust: "Christians receive no other doctrines than those which rest on the express words of Christ, the apostles, and prophets. No man, nor any assembly of men, has power to prescribe new doctrines."

The situation of Luther was changed. The call he had received became to the Reformer as one of those extraordinary commissions which the Lord entrusted to prophets under the old dispensation, and to apostles under the new. The solemn engagement he had contracted, made so profound an impression on his soul, that the recollection of this vow sufficed, at a later period, to comfort him in the midst of the greatest dan-

* Weismann. Hist. Eccles. p. 1416.

† Weismann. Hist. Eccles. p. 1416.

‡ Juro me veritatem evangelicam viriliter defensurum,

§ Doctor biblicus non sententiarum. (Melancth.)

|| L. Opp. (W.) xvi. p. 2061.—Mathesius, p. 7.

* Vim ingenii, nervos orationis, ac rerum bonitatem expositurum in concionibus admiratus fuerat. (Melancthon. Vita Luth.)

† Unter einem Baum den er mir und andern gezeigt. (Math. 6.)

‡ Multa præcedunt mutationes præsagia. (Vita Luth.)

§ Ihr lebet nun oder sterbet, so darff euch Gott in seinem Rathe. (Math. 6.)

|| Neminem nisi Spiritum Sanctum creare posse doctorem theologicum. (Weismann Hist. Eccles. i. p. 1404.)

¶ L. Epp. i. 11.

gers and the rudest conflicts. And when he saw all Europe agitated and disturbed by the doctrine he had proclaimed—when the accusations of Rome, the reproaches of many pious men, and the doubts and fears of his own heart (so easily moved), might have caused him to falter, to fear, and fall into despondency, he called to mind the oath he had taken, and remained firm, tranquil, and rejoicing. "I came forward," said he, "in a critical moment, and I put myself into the Lord's hands. Let his will be done. Who asked of him that he would make of me a teacher? If he has made me such, let him support me;—or, if he change his purpose, let him deprive me. This tribulation then does not intimidate me. I seek but one thing—to have his favour in all he calls me to do in his work." Another time he said, "He who undertakes anything without a divine call seeks his own glory. But I, Doctor Martin Luther, was constrained to become a Doctor. The Papacy endeavoured to stop me in the discharge of my duty, but you see what has happened to it;—and much worse shall yet befall it; they cannot defend themselves against me. By God's help I am resolved to press on, to force a passage through, and trample dragons and vipers under foot. This will begin in my life time, and finish after I am gone."*

From the hour of this oath, Luther no longer sought the truth for himself alone, but for the Church. Still retaining his recollections of Rome, he perceived indistinctly before him a path in which he purposed to go forward with all the energy of his soul. The spiritual life which hitherto had grown up within him, began to manifest itself in outward action. This was the third period of his progress. His entrance into the convent had turned his thoughts toward God; the knowledge of the remission of sins, and of the righteousness of faith, had delivered his soul from bondage. The oath he had now taken had given him that baptism by fire which constituted him the Reformer of the Church.

The first adversaries he attacked were those celebrated schoolmen whom he had studied so deeply, and who then reigned supreme in every university. He accused them of Pelagianism; boldly opposing Aristotle (the father of the school), and Thomas Aquinas, he undertook to hurl them from the throne whence they exercised so commanding an influence, the one over philosophy, and the other over theology.†

"Aristotle, Porphyry, the theologians of the sentences," said he, writing to Lange, "these are the unprofitable study of this age. I desire nothing more ardently than to lay open before all eyes this false system, which has tricked the Church, by covering itself with a Greek mask; and to expose its worthlessness before the world."‡ In all his public disputations he was accustomed to repeat—"The writings of the Apostles and Prophets are more certain and sublime than all the sophisms and theology of the schools." Such language was new, but gradually people became familiarized with it; and about one year after this he was able exultingly to write, "God works among us; our theology and St. Augustine make wonderful progress, and are already paramount in our university. Aristotle is on the wane, and already totters to his fall, which is near at hand and irreversible. The lectures on the Sentences are received with utter distaste. None can hope for hearers unless he profess the scriptural theology."§ Happy the university where such testimony could be given!

At the same time that Luther attacked Aristotle, he took part with Erasmus and Reuchlin against their enemies. He entered into correspondence with those great men, and others of the learned, such as Pirckheimer, Mutian, Hütten, who belonged more or less to the same party. He formed also, at this period, another friendship, which was yet more important in its influence on his after life.

There was then at the court of the elector a person remarkable for wisdom and candour. This was George Spalatin, a native of Spaltus, or Spalt, in the bishopric of Eichstätt. He had been curate of the village of Hohenkirch, near the forests of Thuringia. He was afterwards chosen by Frederic the wise, as his secretary and chaplain, and private teacher of his nephew, John Frederic, heir of the electoral crown. Spalatin was a man of simple manners, in the midst of a court; timid in emergencies, and circumspect and prudent as his master;* contrasting with the energetic Luther, with whom he was in daily communication. Like Staupitz, he was fitted rather for peaceable than for stirring times. Such men are necessary: they are like that soft covering in which we wrap jewels and crystals, to protect them from injury in transporting them from place to place. They seem of no use, and yet without them the precious gems would be broken or lost. Spalatin was not capable of great actions, but he faithfully and noiselessly discharged the task assigned to him.† He was at first one of the principal aids of his master in collecting those relics of the saints of which Frederic was long an amateur. But by slow degrees he, like his master, turned toward the truth. The faith which was then re-appearing in the Church did not so suddenly lay hold on him as on Luther—he was led on by more circuitous paths. He became the friend of Luther at the court, the agent through which matters of business were transacted between the Reformer and the princes, the go-between of the Church and the state. The elector honored Spalatin with the closest intimacy, and in his journeys admitted him to share his carriage.‡ In other respects the air of the court was often oppressive to the worthy Spalatin, and affected him with deep sadness; he would have wished to leave all these honours, and again to become a simple pastor in the woods of Thuringia. But Luther comforted him, and persuaded him to remain at his post. Spalatin acquired general esteem. The princes and scholars of his age evinced the sincerest respect for him. Erasmus was accustomed to say "The name of Spalatin is inscribed not only as one of my dearest friends, but of my most revered protectors, and that not on paper, but on my heart."§

The affair of Reuchlin and the monks was then making much noise in Germany. The most pious persons often hesitated which side to take, for the monks were bent upon destroying the Jewish books which contained blasphemies against Christ. The elector commissioned his chaplain to consult the doctor of Wittenberg, whose reputation was considerable. Luther replied by letter, and it is the earliest of his letters to the court preacher.

"What shall I say? these monks pretend to expel Beelzebub,—but it is not by the finger of God. I never fail to complain and grieve at it. We Christians begin to be wise in things that are without, and senseless at home.¶ There are, in all the public places of

* L. Opp. (W.) xxi. 2061.

† Aristotelem in philosophicis, Sanctum Thomam in theologicis, evertendos, suscepit. (Pallav. i. 16.)

‡ Perdita studia nostri seculi. (Epp. i. 15. 3 Feb. 1516.)

§ Ep. i. 57. May 18, 1517.

* Secundum genium heri sui. Weismann. Hist. Eccles. p. 1434.

† Fideliter et sine strepitu fungens. (Weismann. Hist. Eccles. p. 1434.)

‡ Qui cum principe in rheda sive lectico solitus est ferri. (Corp. Ref. i. 33.)

§ Melch. Ad. Vita Spalat. p. 100.

¶ Foris sapere et domi desipere. (L. Epp. i. p. 3.)

our Jerusalem, blasphemies a hundred times worse than those of the Jews, and in every corner of it spiritual idols. We ought in holy zeal to carry forth and destroy these enemies within. But we neglect what is most pressing, and the devil himself persuades us to abandon our own concerns, while he hinders us from reforming what is amiss in others."

Luther never lost himself in this quarrel. A living faith in Christ was that which especially filled his heart and life. "Within my heart," says he, "reigns alone, and must alone reign, faith in my Lord Jesus Christ, who alone is the beginning, the middle, and the end of the thoughts that occupy me day and night."*

His hearers listened with admiration as he spoke from the professor's chair, or from the pulpit, of that faith in Christ. His instructions diffused light. The people marvelled that they had not earlier acknowledged truths which appeared so evident in his mouth. "The desire to justify ourselves is the spring of all our distress of heart," said he, "but he who receives Christ as a Saviour has peace, and not only peace, but purity of heart. All sanctification of the heart is a fruit of faith. For faith in us is a divine work which changes us, and gives us a new birth, emanating from God himself. It kills Adam in us; and, through the Holy Spirit, which it communicates, it gives us a new heart, and makes us new men. It is not by empty speculations," he again exclaims, "but by this practical method that we obtain a saving knowledge of Jesus Christ."†

It was at this time that Luther preached, on the Ten Commandments, a series of discourses, which have been preserved to us under the name of Declamations for the People. Doubtless they are not free from errors. Luther was only gradually gaining light: "The path of the just is as the shining light, which shineth more and more unto the perfect day." But still what truth in these discourses! what simplicity! what eloquence! how well can we conceive the effect that the new preacher would produce on his audience and on his age. We will cite only one passage at the opening of his discourses.

Luther ascended the pulpit of Wittemberg, and read these words: "Thou shalt have no other gods than Me." Then turning to the people, who thronged the sanctuary, he said: "All the sons of Adam are idolaters, and guilty transgressors of this first commandment."‡ Doubtless this strange assertion startled his audience. He must justify it. The speaker continued: "There are two kinds of idolatry; the one in outward action, the other within our hearts.

"The outward, by which man worships wood, stone, reptiles, or stars.

"The inward, by which man, dreading chastisement, or seeking his own pleasure, renders no outward worship to the creature, but yet in his heart loves it and trusts in it.

"But, what kind of religion is this? you do not bend the knee before riches and honour, but you give them your heart, the noblest part of your nature. Alas! with your bodies you worship God, and with your *spirits* the creature.

"This idolatry pervades every man, until he is freely recovered by faith that is in Jesus Christ.

"And how is this recovery brought about?

"In this way: Faith in Christ strips you of all confidence in your own wisdom, and righteousness, and

strength; it teaches you, that if Christ had not died for you, and saved you by his death, neither you nor any created power could have done so. Then you begin to despise all these things which you see to be unavailing.*

Nothing remains but Jesus—Jesus only; Jesus, abundantly sufficient for your soul. Hoping nothing from all created things, you have no dependence save on Christ, from whom you look for all, and whom you love above all.

"But Jesus is the one sole and true God. When you have him for your God, you have no other gods."† It was thus that Luther pointed out how the soul is brought to God, its sovereign good by the Gospel;—agreeable to that declaration of Christ: "I am the way, and no man cometh unto the Father but by me."

The man who thus spoke to this generation was surely intent not merely on overturning some abuses; his aim, above all, was to establish true religion. His work was not merely negative; it was primarily positive.

Luther then turned his discourse against the superstitions which filled Christendom; signs and mysterious omens; observances of particular days and months; familiar demons, phantoms, influences of the stars, incantations, metamorphoses, incubi and succubi; patronage of saints, &c. &c. &c. He attacked them all, one after the other, and with a strong arm cast down these false gods.

But it was especially before the academy, before that youth, enlightened and eager for instruction, that Luther spread out the treasures of the word of God. "He so explained the Scriptures," says his illustrious friend, Melancthon, "that, in the judgment of all pious and enlightened men, it was as if a new light had arisen on the doctrine after a long and dark night. He pointed out the difference between the Law and the Gospel. He refuted that error, then predominant in the Church and schools, that men, by their own works, obtain remission of sins, and are made righteous before God by an external discipline. He thus brought back the hearts of men to the Son of God.‡ Like John the Baptist, he pointed to the Lamb of God who has taken away the sins of the world. He explained that sin is freely pardoned on account of God's Son, and that man receives this blessing through faith. He in no way interfered with the usual ceremonies. The established discipline had not in all his order a more faithful observer and defender. But he laboured more and more to make all understand the grand essential doctrines of Conversion; of the Forgiveness of Sins; of Faith; and of the true consolations of the Cross. Pious souls were attracted and penetrated by the sweetness of this doctrine; the learned received it joyfully.§ One might have said that Christ, and his Apostles, and Prophets, had come forth from darkness, or from some impure dungeon.||

The firmness with which Luther appealed to and rested on the Gospel, gave great authority to his teaching. But other circumstances added yet further to his power. With him, action corresponded with his words. It was known that these discourses were not merely the fruit of his lips.¶ They came from the heart, and

* Nisi ipse pro te mortuus esset teque servaret, nec tu, nec omnis creatura tibi posset prodere. (Ibid.)

† At Jesus est verus, unus, solus Deus, quem cum habes, non habes alienum Deum. (Ibid.)

‡ Revocavit igitur Lutherus hominum mentes ad filium Dei. (Melancthon, Vit. Luth.)

§ Hujus doctrinæ dulcedine pii omnes valde capiebantur et eruditus gratum erat. (Ibid.)

¶ Quasi ex tenebris, carcere, squalore educi Christum, prophetas, apostolos. (Ibid.)

¶ Oraciones non e labris nasci, sed in pectore. (Ibid.)

* Pref. ad Gal.

† Non per speculationem sed per hanc viam practicam.

‡ Omnes filii Adæ sunt idolatræ.—Decem Precepta Wittembergensi populo prædicata per R. P. D. Martinum Lutherum, Aug. anno 1516.—(They were preached in German. The quotation is from the Latin edition, l. p. 1.)

were practised in his daily walk. And when, at a later period, the Reformation burst forth, many influential men, who saw with grief the divisions of the Church, won before-hand by the holy life of the Reformer, and his remarkable genius, not only did not oppose him, but embraced the doctrine to which his life gave testimony.* The more men loved the Christian virtues, the more did they incline toward the Reformer;—all the most upright divines were in favour of him.† This is what those who knew him, said of him, and especially the wisest man of his age, Melancthon, and Luther's celebrated opponent, Erasmus. Envy and detraction have dared to talk of his dissolute life. Wittenberg was changed by this preaching of Faith. This city became the focus of a light which was soon to illuminate Germany, and spread over the whole Church.

Luther, whose heart was tender and affectionate, desired to see those whom he loved in possession of the light which had guided him in the paths of peace. He availed himself of all the opportunities he possessed as professor, teacher, and monk, as well as of his extensive correspondence, to communicate his treasure to others. One of his old associates of the convent of Erfurth, the monk George Spenlein, was then in the convent of Memmingen, having, perhaps, spent a short time at Wittenberg. Spenlein had commissioned Luther to sell some effects that he had left in his hands: a cloak of Brussels stuff, a work by the doctor Isenac, and a monk's hood. Luther carefully executed this commission. "He got," says he, "a florin for the cloak, half a florin for the book, and a florin for the hood," and had forwarded the amount to the Father Vicar, to whom Spenlein was indebted the three florins. But Luther passed quickly from this account of a monk's effects to a more important subject.

"I should like," says he to brother George, "to know how it is with your soul? Is it weary of its own righteousness! In a word, does it breathe freely! and put its trust in the righteousness of Christ? In these days pride has drawn many aside, and especially those who labour with all their strength to be righteous. Not understanding the righteousness of God, which is given to us freely in Jesus Christ, they would stand before him on their own merits. But that can never be. When you and I were living together, you were under this delusion, and so was I. I contend against it unceasingly, and I have not yet entirely overcome it."

"Oh, my dear brother, learn to know Christ, and him crucified. Learn to sing a new song—to despair of your own work, and to cry unto him, Lord Jesus, thou art my righteousness, and I am thy sin. Thou hast taken on thee what was mine, and given to me what is thine; † what thou wast not, thou becamest, that I might become what I was not. Beware, my dear George, of aspiring after such a purity as that thou mayest not have to acknowledge thyself a sinner; for Christ dwells only with sinners. He came down from heaven, where he abode with the just, to dwell also with sinners. Meditate often on this love of Christ, and you will taste its unspeakable comfort. If our labours and afflictions could give peace to the conscience, why did Christ die upon the cross? You will find peace in him alone; despairing of yourself and of your works, and beholding with what love he spreads

his arms to you; taking all your sins on himself, and bestowing on you all his righteousness.

Thus, the doctrine of power, which had already been the saving of the world in the days of the Apostles, and which was a second time to save it in the days of the Reformers, was set forth by Luther fearlessly and clearly. Reaching across many centuries of ignorance and superstition, he, in this, gave his hand to St. Paul.

Spenlein was not the only one whom he sought to instruct in this fundamental doctrine. The little of the truth he found on this subject in the writings of Erasmus distressed him. It was desirable to enlighten on this matter a man of such great authority and such admirable genius. But how to do this. His friend at the court, the chaplain of the Elector, was much respected by Erasmus; to him Luther addressed himself thus: "What displeases me in Erasmus, that man of rare erudition, is, that where the Apostle speaks of the righteousness of works and of the law, he understands the fulfilment of the *cerimonial* law. The righteousness of the law consists not alone in ceremonies, but in all the works of the Ten Commandments. When these works are done without faith in Christ, they may, it is true, make a Fabricius, a Regulus, or a man of perfect integrity in man's sight, but they, in that case, are as little entitled to the name of righteousness, as the fruit of the medlar-tree is entitled to be called a fig. For we do not become righteous, as Aristotle asserts, by doing works of righteousness, but when we are righteous, we do righteous works.* It is necessary that the agent be changed, and then the works by consequence. Abel was first acceptable to God, and then his sacrifice was accepted." Luther continues: "I entreat you, fulfil the duty of a friend and of a Christian, in pressing these things on Erasmus." This letter is dated, "in great haste, from the corner of our convent, the 19th of October, 1516." It exhibits in its true light the relation between Luther and Erasmus. It shows the sincere interest he took in what he thought really for the good of that illustrious writer. Doubtless at a later period Erasmus's opposition to the truth obliged him to oppose him openly; but he did so only after having sought to set his adversary right.

The world, then, heard at length ideas at once clear and deep on the nature of that which is good. The principle was at last proclaimed, that what constitutes the real goodness of an action is not its outward character, but the spirit in which it is performed. This was aiming a death-blow at all the superstitious observances, which had for centuries oppressed the Church, and prevented the Christian virtues from growing and prospering.

"I read Erasmus," writes Luther elsewhere, "but he every day loses weight with me. I love to see him rebuke, with so much learning and firmness, the grovelling ignorance of the priests and monks; but I fear he does no great service to the doctrine of Christ. What is of man, is nearer to his heart than what is of God.† We live in critical times. To make a good and judicious Christian, it is not enough to understand Greek and Hebrew. St. Jerome, who knew five languages, is inferior to St. Augustine, who understood but one; though Erasmus thinks the contrary. I carefully conceal my opinion of Erasmus, lest I should give an advantage to his adversaries. It may be, that the Lord will give him understanding in his good time."‡

The inability of man—the almighty power of God—

* Eique, propter auctoritatem quam sanctitate morum antea preperat, adseverunt. (Ibid.)

† Puto et hodie theologos omnes probos favere Luthero. Erasmus. Epp. i. 692.

‡ Tu Domine Jesu es justitia mea; ego autem sum peccatum tuum; tu assumptisti meum, et dedisti mihi tuum. (L. Epp. i. p. 17.)

* Non enim juste agendo justif. effimur: sed justif. sendo et essendo operamur justa. (L. Epp. i. p. 22.)

† Humana prevalent in eo pliusquam divina.

‡ Dabit ei Dominus intellectum suo forte tempore (L. Epp. i. p. 62.)

these were the two truths that Luther sought to re-establish. That is but a melancholy religion, and a poor philosophy, which directs man to his own natural strength. Past ages have made a trial of that strength; and while, in earthly things, man has attained admirable excellence, he has never been able to dissipate the darkness which hides God from his soul, or to change a single inclination to evil. The highest attainment in wisdom of the most aspiring minds, or of the souls most eager after perfection, has been to despair of themselves.* It is, therefore, a generous, consoling, and supremely true doctrine, which discovers to us our impotence, that it may declare a power—of God—by which we can do all things; and that is a noble Reformation, which vindicates on earth the glory of heaven, and pleads before man the rights of the mighty God.

But no one knew better than Luther the intimate connection that unites the free salvation which cometh of God, with the free works of man. No one shewed better than he, that it is only in receiving *all* from Christ, that man gives freely to his brethren. He ever presented, in the same picture, these two procedures—that of God, and that of man. Thus, after having declared to Spemlein the righteousness which saves us, he added: "If thou firmly believest these things, as thou oughtest, (for cursed is he whosoever doth not believe them,) receive thine erring and ignorant brethren as Jesus Christ hath received thee. Bear with them patiently; make their sins your own; and if you have any good thing to communicate to them, do it. Receive you one another, said the Apostle, as Christ also hath received us, to the glory of God. It is a wretched righteousness which will not bear with others, because it deems them evil, and seeks the solitude of the desert, instead of doing good to such, by long-suffering, by prayer, and example. If thou art the lily and the rose of Christ, know that thy dwelling place is among thorns. Only take heed, lest by impatience, rash judgments, and pride, thou thyself become a thorn. Christ reigns in the midst of his enemies. If he had desired to live only among the good, and die only for such as loved him, would he have died at all? and among whom would he have lived?"

It is affecting to see how Luther himself put in practice these precepts of charity. An Augustine of Erfurth, George Leiffer, was exposed to many trials. Luther heard of it, and a week after he wrote this letter, he went to him with expressions of compassion: "I hear," said he, "that you are driven about by many tempests, and that your soul is impelled hither and thither by the waves. The cross of Christ is divided over the earth, and each one has his share. Do not you, refuse your portion; rather receive it as a holy relic; not, indeed, into a gold or silver vase, but what is much preferable, into a heart of gold—a heart imbued with meekness. If the wood of the cross was so sanctified by the blood and body of Christ, that we deem it the most venerable of relics, how much more should we count, as holy relics, the wrongs, persecutions, sufferings and hatred of men, since they were not only touched by Christ's flesh, but embraced, kissed, and made blessed by his boundless love."†

The teaching of Luther bore fruit. Many of his disciples felt themselves impelled to a public profession of the truths which their master's lessons had revealed to them. Among his hearers was a young scholar, Bernard of Feldkirchen, professor of Aristotle-

lian physics in the university, and, five years later, the first of the ecclesiastics who entered into the marriage state.

Luther desired Feldkirchen to maintain, under his presidency, *theses* in which his principles were set forth. The doctrines professed by Luther acquired by this means additional publicity. The disputation took place in 1516.

This was Luther's first attack on the reign of the sophists and on the Papacy, as he says himself. Feble as it was, it cost him many misgivings. "I consent to the printing of these propositions," said he, many years after, when publishing them in his works, "chiefly that the greatness of my cause, and the success with which God hath crowned it, may not lift me up; for they manifest abundantly my shame, that is to say, the infirmity and ignorance, the fear and trembling, with which I began this contest. I was alone; I had thrown myself rashly into the affair. Not being able to draw back, I gave up to the Pope many important points; I even worshiped his authority."*

The following were some of these propositions: ‡
"The old man is the vanity of vanities; he is the universal vanity, and he makes other creatures vain, whatever goodness may be in them.

"The old man is called 'the flesh,' not merely because, he is led by the desires of the flesh, but also, because though he should even be chaste, virtuous, and just, he is not born again of God, by the Spirit.

"A man who is a stranger to the grace of God, cannot keep the commandments of God, nor prepare himself wholly, or in part, to receive grace, but remains necessarily under sin.

"The will of man, without divine grace, is not free, but enslaved, and willing to be so.

"Jesus Christ, our strength, our righteousness, he who searches the hearts and reins, is the only discernor and judge of our deserts.

"Since all things are possible through Christ to him that believeth, it is superstitious to seek for other help, either in man's will or in the saints."†

This disputation made a great noise, and it has been considered as the commencement of the Reformation.

The moment drew nigh when that Reformation was to burst forth. God hastened the preparation of the instrument he designed to use. The Elector having built a new church at Wittenberg, and gave it the name of All Saints, despatched Staupitz to the Low Countries to collect relics to enrich the new temple. The Vicar-general commissioned Luther to take his place in his absence, and, in particular, to make a visitation to forty monasteries of Misnia and Thuringia.

Luther went first to Grimma, and thence to Dresden. Everywhere he endeavoured to establish the truths he had discovered, and to enlighten the members of his order. "Do not join yourself to Aristotle," said he to the monks, "or to the other teachers of a misleading philosophy, but apply yourselves to the reading of the word of God. Seek not your salvation in your own strength and good works, but in the merits of Christ, and in the grace of God."‡

An Augustine monk of Dresden had eloped from his convent, and was residing at Mentz, where the prior of the Augustines had received him. Luther wrote to the prior,‡ desiring him to send back this stray

* Sed etiam ultro adorabam. (L. Opp. lat. i. p. 50.)

† L. W. (L.) xviii. p. 142, and in the Latin works. Tom. i. p. 51.

‡ Cum credenti omnia sint, auctore Christo, possibilia, superstitiosum est, humano arbitrio, aliis sanctis, alia deputari auxilia. (Ibid.)

§ Hilscher, *Luthers Anwesenheit in Alt-Dresden*, 1728.

|| 1 May, 1516. *Epp. i.* p. 20.

* *τί οὐκ; ὁυαυτὸν ἀναμαρτητὸν εἶναι ᾄδῃ;—What! is it possible to help sinning?* I asks Epictetus, iv. 12, 19, *ἀμύχανον*. Impossible! he answers.

† . . . Sanctissimæ reliquæ . . . deificæ voluntatis suæ charitate amplexæ, osculatæ. (L. Epp. i. 18.)

sheep; and he added these words of truth and charity: "I know—I know that it cannot be but that offences must come. It is no wonder when man falls, but it is a miracle when he rises and continues standing. Peter fell that he might know that he was a man. Even at this day we see cedars of Lebanon falling: The angels, even, (difficult as it is to conceive it,) fell in heaven, and Adam in Paradise. Why, then, should we wonder, when a reed is shaken by the whirlwind, or a flickering taper is extinguished?"

From Dresden, Luther repaired to Erfurth, and reappeared, to exercise the functions of Vicar-general in that same convent, where, eleven years before, he had wound up the clock, opened the gates, and swept the floor of the church. He placed in the post of prior of the convent his friend the bachelor, John Lange, a man of learning and piety, but austere in his disposition. Therefore it was he exhorted him to affability and patience. "Put on," said he, writing to him shortly after, "put on a spirit of meekness toward the prior of Nuremberg. It is proper that you should do so, since the prior has assumed a harsh and bitter tone. Bitterness is not expelled by bitterness—that is to say, the devil is not cast out by the devil; but the sweet overcomes and expels the bitter—in other words, the finger of God casts out devils."* Perhaps we may regret that Luther himself, on some occasions, forgot to follow these excellent directions.

At Neustadt, on the Orla, there was nothing but disunion. Disturbances and dissensions reigned in the convent. The whole body of the monks were in open war with their prior. They beset Luther with their complaints. The prior Michael Dressel—or Tornator, as Luther calls him, translating his name into Latin—enumerated to the Doctor all his grievances. "Oh, for peace!" said the prior. "You seek peace," said Luther, "but it is only the peace of the world, and not the peace that is of Christ. Do you not know that our God has set His peace in the midst of opposition? He whom nobody disturbs has not peace, but he who, harassed by all men, and by the things of this life, bears all tranquilly and joyfully; he it is that has the true peace. You cry, with Israel, *peace, peace*, when there is no peace. Say rather with Christ, *the cross, the cross*, and there will be no cross: for the cross ceases to be a cross, when we can say, with love: 'O, blessed cross! there is no wood like thine!'"† On his return to Wittemberg, Luther, desiring to put a stop to these dissensions, allowed the monks to elect another prior. Luther returned to Wittemberg after six weeks' absence. What he had witnessed saddened him: but his journey gave him a better knowledge of the Church and of the world, and more confidence in his intercourse with mankind, besides offering many opportunities of pressing the fundamental truth, that "Holy Scripture alone shows us the way to heaven," and at the same time exhorting the brethren to live holily, and at peace one with another.‡ Doubtless a plentiful seed was sown in the different Augustine convents during that journey of the Reformer. The monastic orders, which had long been the support of Rome, did more, perhaps, for the Reformation than against it. This is especially true of the Augustines. Almost all the men of liberal and enlightened piety who were living in the cloisters, turned toward the Gospel. A new and generous blood seemed to circulate through these orders, which were as the arteries of the Catholic body in Germany. In public, little was

as yet heard of the new ideas of the Augustine of Wittemberg; while they were already the chief subject of conversation in chapters and monasteries. More than one cloister was, in this way, the nursery of the Reformers. When the great struggle came, pious and brave men came forth from their retirement, and exchanged the solitude of monkish life for the active service of ministers of God's word. Even as early as this visit of inspection, in 1516, Luther aroused by his words many a drowsy spirit. Hence that year has been named "the Morning Star of the Reformation."

Luther now resumed his usual occupation. He was at this period overwhelmed with labour. Besides his duties as professor, preacher, and confessor, he was burthened with many temporal concerns of his order and convent. "I require almost continually," said he, "two secretaries; for I do scarce anything else all day long than write letters. I am preacher to the convent, reader of prayers at table, pastor and parish minister, director of studies, vicar of the priory, (that is to say, prior ten times over,) inspector of the fishponds of Litzkau, counsel to the inns of Herzberg at Torgau, lecturer on St. Paul, and commentator on the Psalms. Seldom have I time to say my prayers, or to sing a hymn; not to mention my struggle with flesh and blood, the devil and the world. See what an idle man I am!"*

About this time the plague showed itself at Wittemberg. A great number of the students and doctors quitted the town. Luther remained. "I do not very well know," wrote he to his friend at Erfurth, "whether the plague will suffer me to finish the Epistle to the Galatians. Quick and sudden in its attacks, it makes great havoc, especially among the young. You advise me to flee—but whither shall I flee? I hope the world will not go to pieces if brother Martin should fall.† If the plague spreads, I will send the brethren away in all directions, but for my part I am placed here; obedience does not allow me to leave the spot until He who called me hither shall call me away. Not that I am above the fear of death, (for I am not the Apostle Paul, but only his commentator,) but I trust the Lord will deliver me from the fear of it." Such was the firm resolution of the Doctor of Wittemberg. He whom the plague could not force to retire a single step, would he draw back from the fear of Rome? would he recede in the prospect of a scaffold?

The same courage that Luther evinced in the presence of the most formidable evils, he manifested before the great ones of the world. The Elector was well satisfied with the Vicar-general. He had reaped a rich harvest of relics in the Low Countries. Luther gave an account of it to Spalatin. This affair of the relics is singular enough, occurring as it did at the moment when the Reformation was about to open. Assuredly the Reformers did not see clearly whither they were tending. The Elector deemed that nothing less than a bishopric was a reward commensurate with the services of the Vicar-general. Luther, to whom Spalatin wrote on the subject, highly disapproved of the suggestion. "There are many things," answered he, "that are pleasing to your prince, which yet displease God. I do not deny that he is skilled in the concerns of the world, but in what relates to God, and the salvation of souls, I consider him altogether blind, as well as his adviser, Pfeffinger. I do not say that behind his back, like a calumniator; I do not conceal my opinion from them; for I am at all times ready myself to tell them both to their faces. Why will you?" continued he, "seek to surround that man (Staupitz)

* L. Epp. i. p. 36. Non enim asper asperum, id est non diabolus diabolum, sed suavis asperum, id est digitus Dei eiecit diemonia.

† Tam cito enim crux cessat esse crux quam cito lætus dixeris: Crux benedicta! inter ligna nullum tale. (Epp. i. 27.)

‡ Heiliglich, friedlich und züchtig. (Math. p. 10.)

* Epp. i. p. 41 to Lange, 26 Oct. 1516.

† Quo fugiam? spero quod non corruet orbis ruente fratre Martino. (Epp. i. p. 42, 26 Oct. 1516.)

with all the heavings and tempests of episcopal cares?"*

The elector did not take amiss the frankness of Luther. "The prince," wrote Spalatin, often speaks of you in honorable terms." Frederic sent the monk some stuff for a gown. It was of very fine cloth. "It would be too fine," said Luther, if it were not a prince's gift. I am not worthy that any man should think of me, much less a prince, and so noble a prince. Those are most useful to me who think worst of me.† Present my thanks to our prince for his favour, but know that I desire neither the praise of thyself nor of others; all the praise of man is vain, the praise that cometh of God being alone true."

The worthy chaplain would not confine himself to his functions at the court. He wished to make himself useful to the people, but, like many others in all ages, he wished to do it without offence, without irritating any one, and so as to conciliate general favour. "Point out to me," said he, in a letter to Luther, "some writing to translate, but one that shall give general satisfaction, and at the same time be useful." "Agreeable and useful!" replied Luther, "that is beyond my skill. The better things are, the less they please. What is more salutary than Christ? and yet he is to most a savour of death. You will say that what you intend is to be useful to those who love Christ—then cause them to hear his voice; you will thus be agreeable and useful—never doubt it—but to a small number, for the sheep are but rare in this dreary region of wolves."‡

Luther, however, recommended to his friend the sermons of Tauler, the Dominican. "I never saw," said he, "either in Latin or in our language, a theology more sound or more conformable to the Gospel. Taste them and see how gracious the Lord is, but not till you have first tasted and experienced how bitter is everything in ourselves."§

It was in the course of the year 1517, that Luther became connected with Duke George of Saxony. The house of Saxony had at that time two chiefs. Two princes, Ernest and Albert, carried off in their childhood from the castle of Altenburg, by Kunz of Kaufungen, had, by the treaty of Leipsic, been acknowledged as the founders of the two houses which still bear their names. The Elector Frederic, son of Ernest, was, at the period we are recording, the head of the Ernestine branch, as his cousin, Duke George, was head of the Albertine branch. Dresden and Leipsic were situated in the states of this duke, and he himself resided in the former of these cities. His mother, Sidonia, was daughter of the King of Bohemia, George Podibrad. The long struggle which Bohemia had maintained with Rome, since the time of John Huss, had had some influence on the Prince of Saxony. He had often manifested a desire of a Reformation. "He sucked it with his mother's milk," said they; "he is, by his nature, an enemy to the clergy."|| He annoyed, in many ways, the bishops, abbots, canons, and monks; and his cousin, the Elector Frederic, often had to interpose in their behalf. It must have seemed that Duke George would be the warmest patron of a Reformation. The devout Frederic, on the contrary, who had in early life assumed, in the holy sepulchre, the spurs of Godfrey, and armed himself with the long and heavy sword of the conqueror of Jerusalem, making

oath to fight for the Church, like that valiant knight, seemed marked out to be the most ardent champion of Rome. But in what pertains to the Gospel, all the calculations of human wisdom are often deceived. The very reverse ensued. The Duke would have taken pleasure in bringing down the Church and the clergy, in humbling the bishops, whose princely retinue much exceeded his own; but to receive into his heart the doctrine of the Gospel, which was to humble him—to confess himself a guilty sinner, incapable of being saved except by grace—was quite another thing. He would have willingly reformed others, but he had no idea of reforming himself. He would perhaps have put his hand to the work, to oblige the Bishop of Mentz to limit himself to one bishopric, and to have only fourteen horses in his stables, as he said more than once;* but, when he saw one altogether unlike himself appear as the Reformer—when he beheld a plain monk undertake this work, and the Reformation gaining ground among the people—the proud grandson of the Hussite King became the most violent adversary of the Reform to which he had shown himself favourable.

In the month of July, 1517, Duke George requested Staupitz to send him a learned and eloquent preacher. Staupitz sent Luther, recommending him as a man of great learning and irreproachable conduct. The prince invited him to preach at Dresden, in the chapel of the castle, on St. James the Elder's day.

The day came. The duke and his court repaired to the chapel to hear the preacher from Wittenberg. Luther seized with joy the opportunity of giving his testimony to the truth before such an assembly. He chose as his text the gospel of the day: "Then the mother of Zebedee's children came to him, with her sons," &c. (Matt. xx. 20.) He preached on the desires and unreasonable prayers of men, and then proceeded to speak with energy on the assurance of salvation. He rested it on this foundation:—that they who hear the word of God and believe it, are the true disciples of Christ, elect unto eternal life. Then he spoke of free election; he shewed that this doctrine, viewed in connection with Christ's work, has power to dispel the terrors of conscience, so that men, instead of fleeing far from the Holy God, in the consciousness of their unworthiness, are brought by grace to seek refuge in Him. In conclusion, he related a story of three virgins, from which he deduced edifying instructions.

The word of truth made a profound impression on the hearers. Two of them, especially, seemed to pay particular attention to the sermon of the monk of Wittenberg. The first was a lady of respectable appearance, seated on the benches of the court, and on whose features might be traced a deep emotion. This was Madame de la Sale, lady of the bedchamber to the duchess. The other was Jerome Emser, licentiate of canon law, and secretary and counsellor to the duke. Emser was gifted with talents and extensive acquisitions. A courtier, a skilful politician, he would have wished, at once, to satisfy two opposite parties—to pass at Rome as a defender of the Papacy, and, at the same time, shine among the learned men of Germany. But beneath this dexterous policy, lay hid much violence of character. It was the chapel of the castle of Dresden, that was the scene of the first meeting of Luther and Emser, who were destined afterward to break more than one lance together.

The dinner hour sounded in the castle, and soon the ducal family and the different persons of the court were assembled round the table. The conversation naturally turned on the morning preacher. "How did you like the sermon?" said the duke to Madame de la Sa.e.

* Multa placent principi tuo, quæ Deo displicent (L. Epp. l. p. 26.)

† Si mihi maxime prosunt qui mei pessime meminerint. (L. Epp. l. p. 45.)

‡ Quæ sunt aliqua salubriora, eo minus placent. (L. Epp. l. p. 46.)

§ Quam amarum est, quicquid nos sumus. (Ibid.)

|| L. Opp. (W.) xxii. p. 1840.

"If I could but hear one other such sermon," answered she, "I would die in peace." "And I," replied Duke George, angrily, "would give something not to have heard it; for such sermons are good for nothing, and serve only to encourage men in sin."

The master having thus made known his opinion, the courtiers gave vent to their dissatisfaction. Each was ready with his remark. Some asserted, that in Luther's story of the three virgins, he had in his eye three ladies of the court;—hereupon much talk and whispering ensued. The three ladies were rallied on the circumstance of the monk of Wittenberg having, as they said, publicly pointed them out.* "He is an ignorant fellow," said some. "A proud monk," said others. Each one criticised the sermon in his own manner, and made the preacher say what he pleased. The truth had fallen in the midst of a court little prepared to receive it. Every one mangled it at his will. But, while the word of God was thus, to some, an occasion of falling, it was to the lady of the bedchamber a corner-stone of edification. One month afterward, she fell sick, embraced with confidence the grace of the Saviour, and died with joy.†

As to the Duke, it was not perhaps in vain that he heard this testimony to the truth. Whatever had been his opposition to the Reformation during his life, he is known to have declared, on his death-bed, that he had no other hope than in the merits of Christ.

It was a matter of course that Emser should do the honours to Luther in the name of his master. He invited him to supper. Luther declined. But Emser pressed him till he assented. Luther expected to meet only a few friends, but he soon saw it was a trap laid for him.‡ A master of arts of Leipsic, and several Dominicans, were with the Prince's secretary. The master of arts, full of confidence in himself, and hatred against Luther, accosted him with a friendly and gentle air, but soon lost his temper, and talked loudly.§ The debate was opened. The discussion turned, says Luther, on the solemn trifling of Aristotle and St. Thomas.|| In conclusion, Luther challenged the master of arts to define, with all the learning of the Thomists, in what obedience to God's commandments consisted. The master of arts, though puzzled, put a good face upon it. "Pay me my fees first," said he holding out his hand, "*Da pastum*," as though he were called on to give a formal lecture, treating the guests as his scholars. "At this ridiculous reply," adds the Reformer, "we all laughed outright, and hereupon we separated."

During this conversation, a Dominican had listened at the door. He wanted to enter, that he might spit in Luther's face.¶ He, however, restrained himself; but publicly boasted of it afterward. Emser, delighted to see his guests contending with each other, while he himself appeared to maintain a guarded medium, took pains to excuse himself to Luther on the incident of the evening.** The latter returned to Wittenberg.

He again applied himself laboriously to work. He was preparing six or seven young divines, who were about to undergo examination for license to teach. What most pleased him was, that their promotion would contribute to the downfall of Aristotle. "I would lose no time," said he, "in adding to the number of his opponents."†† And with this object, he,

about that time, published some theses, which deserve our attention.

The Freedom of the Will was his high subject. He had already slightly touched on it in the theses of Feldkirchen; he now went more fully into the question. Ever since the promulgation of Christianity, a controversy has been carried on, with more or less keenness, between the two doctrines of the liberty and the bondage of the human will. Certain scholastic writers, as Pelagius, and others, had taught that man possessed, from his own nature, a freedom of will, or the power of loving God and doing righteousness. Luther denied this doctrine; not in order to deprive man of liberty, but that he might lead him to obtain it. The point of dispute, then, is not, as has been commonly said, between liberty and slavery; it is between a liberty proceeding from man's nature, and a liberty that cometh of God. The one party who called themselves the advocates of liberty, say to man: "Thou hast the power to do right, thou hast no need of more liberty!" the others who have been styled the partizans of slavery, say to him the very reverse: "True liberty is what thou needest, and it is what God offers to thee in the Gospel." On the one side they talk of liberty so as to perpetuate servitude; on the other they proclaim to us our bondage, that we may obtain liberty. Such has been the contest in St. Paul's time; in the days of St. Augustine; and, again, in the days of Luther. The one party congratulating man on his freedom, would, in effect, reconcile him to slavery; the other, showing how his fetters may be struck off, are the true advocates of liberty.

But we should be deceiving ourselves, if we are to sugn up, in this question, the whole of the Reformation. It is one, and only one, of many doctrines that the professor of Wittenberg contended for. It would especially be a strange error to assert, that the Reformation was a fatalism—an opposition to the notion of human liberty. It was a noble emancipation of the mind of man. Bursting the many cords with which the hierarchy had tied down the thoughts of men—restoring the ideas of liberty, of right of free investigation—it liberated its own age, ourselves, and the remotest posterity. And let none say: "True, the Reformation did liberate man from all human despotism; but, at the same time, reduced him to slavery in other things, by proclaiming the sovereignty of grace." Doubtless, its aim was to bring the human will into harmony with the divine will, to subject the former absolutely to the latter, and to blend them together. But where is the philosopher who does not know, that perfect conformity to the will of God, is the sole, sovereign, and complete liberty; and that man will never be truly free, until perfect righteousness and unchanging truth reign unrivalled in his heart and mind.

The following are a few of the ninety-nine propositions which Luther put forth in the church against the Pelagian rationalism of the scholastic theology:

"It is true that man, who is become 'a bad tree,' can but will, and do what is evil.

"It is false that the will, left to itself, can do good as well as evil; for it is not free, but led captive.

"It is not in the power of man's will to purpose or not purpose all that is suggested to him.

"Man, by nature, cannot wish that God should be God." He would prefer that himself should be God, and that God should not be God.

"The excellent, infallible, and sole preparation for grace, is the election and the everlasting predestination of God.*

* Has tres postea in aula principis, a me notatas garriunt.

(L. Epp. i. p. 85.)

† Keith. Leb. Luth. p. 32.

‡ Inter medias me invidias conjectum. (L. Epp. i. 85.)

§ In me acriter et clamorè invectus est. (Ibid.)

|| Super Aristotelis et Thomæ nugis. (Ibid.)

¶ Ne prodiret et in faciem mei spueret. (Ibid.)

** Enixè sese excusavit.

†† Cujus vellem hostes cito quamplurimos fieri. (Epp. i. 89.)

* Optima et infallibilis ad gratiam preparatio et unica dis-

"It is false to say, that man, if he does all in his power, dissipates the obstacles to divine grace.

"In one word, nature possesses neither a pure reason nor a good will.*

"On man's part, there is nothing that goes before grace—nothing but impotency and rebellion.

"There is no moral virtue without pride or sadness—that is to say, without sin.

"From first to last, we are not the masters of our actions, but their slaves.

"We do not become righteous by doing that which is righteous: but having become righteous, we do that which is righteous.

"He who says a theologian, unacquainted with logic, is an heretic and empiric, makes an empirical and heretical assertion.

"There is no form of reasoning or syllogism suited to the things of God.†

"If the syllogistic method were applicable to divine things, the doctrine of the Holy Trinity would be *known* and not *believed*.

"In a word, Aristotle is to theology as darkness is to light.

"Man is more opposed to the *grace* of God than to the law itself.

"He who is destitute of the grace of God sins incessantly, though he should neither kill, nor steal, nor commit adultery.

"He sins because he does not fulfil the law *spiritually*.

"It is the righteousness of hypocrites not to kill, and to commit adultery in outward acts.

"The law of God and the will of man are two opposites, which, without the grace of God, cannot be made to meet.‡

"What the law prescribes the will never seeks, unless, from fear or interest, it effects to seek it.

"The law is a task-master of our will, which is not brought into obedience, save only by the young child born unto us.§ (Isa. 9: 6.)

"The law makes sin to abound, for it irritates and repels the will.

"But the grace of God makes righteousness to abound 'by Jesus Christ;' who leads us to love the law.

"All the works of the law seem fair without, but are sin within.

"The will, when it turns toward the law, without the grace of God, does so only for its own self-pleasing.

"They are still under the curse who do the works of the law.

"Blessed are all they who do works of the grace of God.

"The law, which is good, and in which we have life, is the love of God shed abroad in our hearts by the Holy Ghost.

"Grace is not given, that works may be done of easier; but because, without grace, no work of love can be done.

"To love God is to abhor ourselves, and to have nothing out of God."||

Thus, Luther attributes to God all good that man can do. It is not enough to repair and patch up, if we

positio est eterna Dei electio et prædestinatio. (L. Opp. lat. i. 56.)

* Breviter nec rectum dictamen habet natura nec bonam voluntatem. (Ib.)

† Nulla forma syllogistica tenet in terminis divinis. (L. Opp. lat. i. 56.)

‡ Lex et voluntas sunt adversarii duo sine gratia Dei implacabiles. (Ib. p. 57.)

§ Lex est exactor voluntatis, qui non superatur nisi per Parvulum qui natus est nobis. (L. Opp. lat. i. 57.)

|| L. Opp. Lips. xvii. p. 143; and Opp. lat. i.

may so speak man's will; an entirely new will *must* be given him. God only could have said this; because God only could accomplish it. This is one of the greatest and most important truths that the human mind can receive.

But Luther, while proclaiming the impotency of man, did not fall into a contrary extreme to that he opposed. He says, in his 8th thesis; "It does not follow, from this statement, that the will is in its nature bad; that is, that its nature is that of evil itself, as the Manicheans have asserted."* The nature of man was at first essentially good: it has turned aside from good—that is from God—and inclined to evil. Still its holy and glorious origin remains, and it may, by the power of God, be restored and renewed. The office of Christianity is thus to restore it. It is true, the Gospel represents man in a condition of humiliation and impotence, but between two states of glory and of grandeur—a past glory, from which he has been hurled, and a future glory, to which he is called. That is the real truth: man knows it, and on the slightest consideration, he perceives that all that is said of his present purity, power, and glory, is nothing but a fiction, designed to lull and soothe his pride.

Luther, in his theses, protested not only against the pretended goodness of man's will, but also against the asserted illumination of his understanding in regard to divine things. The schoolmen had exalted human reason as well as man's will. This theology, as it had been represented by some of its teachers, was, at the bottom, a kind of rationalism. The propositions that we have quoted, shew this. We might suppose them directed against the rationalism of our day. In the theses, which were the signal of the Reformation, Luther censured the Church and the popular superstitions which had overloaded the Gospel with indulgences, purgatory, and so many other abuses. In the theses we have now quoted, he attacked the schools and rationalism which had retrenched from the Gospel the doctrine of God's sovereign grace. The Reformation turned against rationalism before it attacked superstition. It proclaimed the rights of God before it lopped off the excrescences of man. It was positive—before it was negative. This has not been sufficiently adverted to, and yet, if we do not keep it in mind, it is impossible to appreciate this religious revolution and its true nature.

However this may be, the truths that Luther had just expressed with so much energy, were quite new to his hearers. To maintain these theses at Wittenberg would have been an easy thing. His influence prevailed there. It might have been said that he was choosing a field in which he knew no antagonist could oppose him. By offering battle in another university, he was giving them a wider publicity; and it was through publicity that the Reformation was to be effected. He chose Erfurth, whose divines had shewn themselves so offended with him.

He therefore sent these theses to John Lange, prior of Erfurth, and wrote to him thus: "My anxiety to know your mind on these paradoxes is great, perhaps extreme. I strongly suspect that your theologians will consider as paradox, and even as *cacodox*, that which I must always consider very orthodox.† Tell me, therefore, your opinion, as soon as you can. Pray inform the faculty of theology, and all others, that I am ready to come among you, and publicly maintain these propositions, either in the University or in the monastery." It does not appear that Luther's challenge was accepted. The monks of Erfurth contented themselves with let-

* Nec igitur sequitur quod sit naturaliter mala, id est natura mali, secundum Manicheos. (Ibid.)

† Imo cacodoxa videri. (L. Epp. i. 60.)

ting him know that these theses had greatly displeased them.

But he determined to send them into another part of Germany. He turned his eyes, for that purpose, on one who played a remarkable part in the history of the Reformation, and whose character it is necessary we should understand.

John Meyer, a distinguished professor, was then teaching at the university of Ingolstadt, in Bavaria. He was a native of Eck, a village of Suabia, and was commonly called Doctor Eck. He was a friend of Luther, who highly esteemed his talents and information. He was full of intelligence, well read, and gifted with an extraordinary memory. To his learning he united eloquence. His action and voice expressed the liveliness of his genius. Eck was, as to talent, in southern Germany, what Luther was in the north. They were the two most distinguished theologians of that period, though differing widely in their tendency, as the sequel showed. Ingolstadt almost rivalled Wittenberg. The reputation of the two Doctors drew from all sides, to their respective universities, a crowd of students eager to listen to their lectures. Their personal qualities, not less than their learning, endeared them to their scholars. The character of Eck has been censured. An incident of his life will shew, that, at this period at least, his heart was not closed against generous impulses.

Among the students, whom his reputation had attracted to Ingolstadt, was a young man named Urban Regius, born on the banks of one of the Swiss lakes. He had studied first at the university of Friburg in Brisgau. Arriving at Ingolstadt, whither the reputation of Eck had attracted him, Urban there attended courses of philosophy, and won the doctor's favour. Obligated to provide for his own necessities, he found himself compelled to take charge of the education of some young nobles. He was not only to overlook their conduct and studies, but himself to buy for them the books and clothes they needed. These youths were accustomed to dress well and live expensively. Regius, uneasy at this, requested the parents to remove their sons. "Take courage," answered they. His debts increased, his creditors became clamorous, he knew not what would become of him. The Emperor was then collecting an army against the Turks. Some recruiting parties arrived at Ingolstadt. In his desperation Urban enlisted. He appeared in the ranks in military garb, at a review preparatory to marching. Just then, Doctor Eck arrived in the square with some of his colleagues. To his great surprise, he recognised his student in the midst of the recruits. "Urban Regius!" said he, approaching him, and fixing on him a scrutinizing eye. "I am here!" answered the con-

script. "What, I pray you, is the cause of this change?" The young man told his story. "I will settle the affair," answered Eck. He then proceeded to take away his halberd, and bought his discharge from the recruiting officers. The parents, threatened by the Doctor with the displeasure of their prince, sent the necessary funds for their children's expenditure. Urban Regius was preserved to become, at a later period, one of the supporters of the Reformation.

It was Doctor Eck that Luther pitched on to make known in the southern states, his theses on Pelagianism and the Rationalism of the schools. He did not, however, send them direct to the Professor of Ingolstadt, but addressed them to their common friend, the worthy Christopher Scheurl, town-clerk of the city of Nuremberg, requesting him to forward them to Eck, at Ingolstadt, which was not far from Nuremberg. "I send you," said he, "my propositions, (merely paradoxical, or even *kakistodoxical* as they seem to many;) communicate them to our dear Eck, that learned and sagacious man, that I may know what he thinks of them."* It was thus Luther then spoke of Doctor Eck; such was the friendship which united them. Luther was not the first to break off this good understanding.

But the combat was not to be fought on that field. These *theses* turned, it may be thought, on doctrines of higher importance than those which, two months after, set the whole Church in a flame. And yet, notwithstanding Luther's challenge, they passed unnoticed. They were read, at the most, in the precincts of the school, and they made no sensation beyond its bounds. The reason of this was that they contained only academic propositions, and theological doctrines; whilst the theses which followed had immediate reference to an evil, which had grown up in the midst of the people, and overflowed Germany on all sides. So long as Luther confined himself to bringing forth long-forgotten doctrine, no response was heard. When he pointed to the abuses which offended all minds, every one gave ear.

Nevertheless, Luther, in both cases, did but design to raise one of those theological discussions then frequent in the University. His ideas did not range beyond that circle. He had no thought of becoming a Reformer. He had a low opinion of his own powers, and his humility even amounted to mistrust and anxiety. "I deserve—such is my ignorance"—said he, "nothing better than to be hidden in a corner, unknown to every one."[†] But a powerful hand drew him forth from this corner, where he would have wished to remain unknown to the world. An occurrence, which did not depend on Luther's will, threw him on the field of battle, and the conflict began. It is this providential circumstance that the progress of events calls on us to narrate,

BOOK III.

THE INDULGENCES, AND THE THESES.

1517—1518.

A GREAT agitation reigned, at that time, among the people of Germany. The Church had opened a vast market on the earth. Judging from the crowd of buyers, and the noise and jests of the dealers, we might call it a fair; but a fair held by monks. The merchandise they extolled, offering it at a reduced price, was, said they, the salvation of souls!

The dealers passed through the country in a gay carriage, escorted by three horsemen, in great state, and spending freely. One might have thought it some dignitary on a royal progress, with his attendants and

* *Eccio nostro eruditissimo et ingeniosissimo viro exhibete, ut audiam et videam quid vocet illas.* (L. Epp. i. p. 63.)

† L. Opp. (W.) xviii. 1944.

officers, and not a common dealer, or a begging monk. When the procession approached a town, a messenger waited on the magistrate: "The grace of God, and of the Holy Father, is at your gates!" said the envoy. Instantly every thing was in motion in the place. The clergy, the priests, the nuns, the council, the schoolmasters, the trades, with their flags—men and women, young and old, went forth to meet the merchants, with lighted tapers in their hands, advancing to the sound of music, and of all the bells of the place; "so that," says an historian, "they could not have given a grander welcome to God himself. Salutations being exchanged, the whole procession moved toward the church. The pontiff's bull of grace was borne in front, on a velvet cushion, or on cloth of gold. The chief vender of indulgences followed, supporting a large red wooden cross; and the whole procession moved in this manner, amidst singing, prayers, and the smoke of incense. The sound of organs, and a concert of instruments, received the monkish dealer and his attendants into the church. The cross he bore with him was erected in front of the altar: on it was hung the Pope's arms; and, as long as it remained there, the clergy of the place, the penitentiaries, and the sub-commissioners, with white wands in their hands, came every day after vespers, or before the salutation, to do homage to it.* This great bustle excited a lively sensation in the quiet towns of Germany.

One person in particular drew the attention of the spectators in these sales. It was he who bore the great red cross, and had the most prominent part assigned to him. He was clothed in the habit of the Dominicans, and his port was lofty. His voice was sonorous, and he seemed yet in the prime of his strength, though he was past his sixty-third year.† This man, who was the son of a goldsmith of Leipsic named Diez, bore the name of John Diezel or Tetzel. He had studied in his native town, had taken his bachelor's degree in 1487, and entered two years later into the order of the Dominicans. Numerous honours had been accumulated on him. Bachelor of Theology, Prior of the Dominicans, Apostolical Commissioner, Inquisitor, (*hereticæ pravitatis inquisitor*), he had, ever since the year 1502, filled the office of an agent for the sale of indulgences. The experience he had acquired as a subordinate functionary had very early raised him to the station of chief commissioner. He had an allowance of 80 florins per month, all his expenses defrayed, and he was allowed a carriage and three horses; but we may readily imagine that his indirect emoluments far exceeded his allowances. In 1507, he gained in two days at Freyberg 2000 florins. If his occupation resembled that of a mountebank, he had also the morals of one. Convicted at Inspruck of adultery and abominable profligacy, he was near paying the forfeit of his life. The Emperor Maximilian had ordered that he should be put into a sack and thrown into the river. The Elector Frederic of Saxony had interceded for him, and obtained his pardon.‡ But the lesson he had received had not taught him more decency. He carried about with him two of his children. Mültitz, the Pope's legate, cites the fact in one of his letters.§ It would have been hard to find in all the cloisters of Germany a man more adapted to the traffic with which he was charged. To the theology of a monk, and the zeal and spirit of an inquisitor, he united the greatest effrontery. What most helped him in his office was the facility he

displayed in the invention of the strange stories with which the taste of the common people is generally pleased. No means came amiss to him to fill his coffers. Lifting up his voice, and giving loose to a coarse volubility, he offered his indulgences to all comers, and excelled any salesman at a fair in recommending his merchandise.*

As soon as the cross was elevated with the Pope's arms suspended upon it, Tetzel ascended the pulpit, and, with a bold tone, began, in the presence of the crowd whom the ceremony had drawn to the sacred spot, to exalt the efficacy of indulgences. The people listened and wondered at the admirable virtues ascribed to them. A Jesuit historian says himself, in speaking of the Dominican friars, whom Tetzel had associated with him:—"Some of these preachers did not fail, as usual, to distort their subject, and so to exaggerate the value of the indulgences, as to lead the people to believe that, as soon as they gave their money, they were certain of salvation and of the deliverance of souls from purgatory."†

If such were the pupils, we may imagine what lengths the master went. Let us hear one of these harangues, pronounced after the erection of the cross.

"Indulgences," said he, "are the most precious and sublime of God's gifts.

"This cross"—(pointing to the red cross)—"has as much efficacy as the cross of Jesus Christ.‡

"Draw near, and I will give you letters, duly sealed, by which even the sins you shall hereafter desire to commit, shall be all forgiven you.

"I would not exchange my privileges for those of Saint Peter in heaven, for I have saved more souls with my indulgences than he with his sermons.

"There is no sin so great that the indulgence cannot remit it, and even if any one should (which is doubtless impossible) ravish the Holy Virgin Mother of God, let him pay—let him only pay largely, and it shall be forgiven him.§

"Even repentance is not indispensable.

"But more than all this: indulgences save not the living alone, they also save the dead.

"Ye priests, ye nobles, ye tradesmen, ye wives, ye maidens, and ye young men, hearken to your departed parents and friends, who cry to you from the bottomless abyss: 'We are enduring horrible torment! a small alms would deliver us;—you can give it, and you will not!' "

A shudder ran through his hearers at these words, uttered by the formidable voice of the mountebank monk.

"This very moment," continued Tetzel, "that the money clinks against the bottom of the chest, the soul escapes from purgatory and flies free to heaven.¶

"O, senseless people, and almost like to beasts, who do not comprehend the grace so richly offered! This day, heaven is on all sides open. Do you now refuse to enter? When then do you intend to come in? This day you may redeem many souls. Dull and heedless man, with ten groschen you can deliver your father from purgatory, and you are so ungrateful that you will not rescue him. In the day of judgment, my con-

* *Circumferuntur venales indulgentie in his regionibus a Teceleio, Dominicano impudentissimo sycophanta.* (Melanctho. Vita Luth.)

† Hist. de Lutheranism par le P. Maimbourg de la compagnie de Jesus. 1681, p. 21.

‡ L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1303.

§ Tetzel defended and maintained this assertion in his anathemes, published the same year. (Th. 99, 100, 101.)—Sub-commissionariis, insuper ac predicatoribus veniarum imponere, ut si quis per impossibile Dei genericum semper virginem violasset, quod eundem indulgentiarum vigore absolvere possent, luce clarius est. (Positiones fratris I. Tezelii quibus defendit indulgentias contra Lutherum.)

¶ Th. 56. (Ibid.)

* Instruction of the Archbishop of Mentz to the sub-commissioners of the Indulgence, &c. art. 8.

† Ingenio ferax et corpore robustus. (Cochl. x.)

‡ Welchen Churfürst Friederich vom Sack zu Inspruck erbeten Hatte. (Mathes. x.)

§ L. Opp. (W.) xv. 863.

science will be clear; but you will be punished the more severely for neglecting so great a salvation. I protest that though you should have only one coat, you ought to strip it off and sell it, to purchase this grace. Our Lord God no longer deals with us as God. He has given all power to the Pope!"

Then, having recourse to other inducements, he added:—"Do you know why our most Holy Lord distributes so rich a grace? The dilapidated Church of St. Peter and St. Paul is to be restored, so as to be unparalleled in the whole earth. That church contains the bodies of the holy apostles, Peter and Paul, and a vast company of martyrs. Those sacred bodies, owing to the present condition of the edifice, are now, alas! continually trodden, flooded, polluted, dishonoured, and rotting in rain and hail. Ah! shall those holy ashes be suffered to remain degraded in the mire?"*

This touch of description never failed to produce an impression on many hearers. There was an eager desire to aid poor Leo X. who had not the means of sheltering from the rain the bodies of St. Peter and St. Paul!

The speaker next proceeded to declaim against the disputers who should question, and the traitors who should oppose, his mission:—"I declare them all excommunicated!"

Then turning to the docile souls among his hearers, and impiously perverting the Scriptures: "Blessed," said he, "blessed are the eyes that see what you see, for I tell you, that many prophets and many kings have desired to see the things which ye see, and have not seen them, and to hear the things which ye hear, and have not heard them." And as a finish to his address, pointing to the strong box in which the money was received, he generally concluded his moving discourse, by thrice calling on the people: "Bring your money! bring money! bring money!" "He uttered this cry with such a dreadful bellowing," observed Luther, "that one might have thought some wild bull was rushing among the people, and goring them with his horns."† The moment he had made an end, he came down the steps of the pulpit, ran toward the strong box, and in sight of all the people, threw in a piece of silver with a loud sound.‡

Such were the discourses that Germany heard, with astonishment, in the days when God was preparing Luther.

The sermon ended, the indulgence was considered as having "established its throne in the place with due solemnity." Confessionals, surmounted with the pope's arms, were prepared. The sub-commissioners and confessors chosen were held to represent the apostolic penitentiaries, or absolving priests of Rome, at the period of a great jubilee: and on each of their confessionals were inscribed their names and titles.§

Then the people came in crowds to the confessors. They came, not with contrite hearts, but with money in their hands. Men, women, the young, the poor, and those who lived by alms,—every one then found money. The absolving priest, after again setting forth the indulgence, thus addressed the penitents: "How much money can you, in your conscience, spare to obtain so perfect a remission?" "This question," said the Archbishop of Mentz, in his instructions to the commissioners, "must be put at the moment, in order that the penitents may be better disposed to contribute."

These conditions fulfilled were all that was neces-

sary. In the pope's bull, something was indeed said of the repentance of the heart, and the confession of the lips; but Tetzel and his companions cautiously abstained from all mention of these; otherwise their coffers might have remained empty. The archiepiscopal instructions forbade even to mention conversion or contrition. Three great benefits were proclaimed. It is sufficient to notice the first. "The first benefit we announce," said the commissioners, acting on their instructions, "is the complete pardon of all sins; and it is not possible to speak of any greater benefit than this, since man who lives in sin is deprived of the divine favour, and by this complete pardon he recovers the grace of God.* Now we affirm, that to obtain these great blessings, it is only necessary to purchase an indulgence.† And as to those who desire to deliver souls from purgatory, and to procure for them the forgiveness of all their sins, let them put their money in the chest; but it is not needful that they should feel sorrow of heart, or make confession with the lips.‡ Let them only hasten to bring their money, for they will thus do a work, most profitable to departed souls, and to the building of the Church of St. Peter." Greater blessings could not be proposed, nor at a lower cost.

Confession being gone through, (and it was soon despatched), the faithful hastened to the vender. Only one was commissioned to sell. He had his counter close to the cross. He turned a scrutinising glance on those who came. He examined their manner, step, and attire, and demanded a sum in proportion to the apparent circumstances of the party presenting himself. Kings, queens, princes, archbishops, bishops, &c. were to pay, according to the regulation, for an ordinary indulgence, twenty-five ducats; abbots, counts, barons, &c., ten. The other nobles, superiors, and all who had an annual income of 500 florins, were to pay six. Those who had an income of 200 florins, one; the rest, half a florin. And further, if this scale could not in every instance be observed, full power was given to the apostolic commissary, and the whole might be arranged according to the dictates of sound reason, and the generosity of the giver.§ For particular sins Tetzel had a private scale. Polygamy cost six ducats; sacrilege and perjury, nine ducats; murder, eight; witchcraft, two. Samson, who carried on in Switzerland the same traffic as Tetzel in Germany, had rather a different scale. He charged for infanticide four livres tournois; for a parricide or fratricide, one ducat.||

The apostolic commissaries sometimes encountered difficulties in their commerce. It often happened, as well in the towns as in the villages, that husbands were opposed to the traffic, and forbade their wives to carry any thing to the dealers. What were their superstitious partners to do? "Have you not your marriage portion, or some other property, at your disposal?" asked the vendors. "In that case you can dispose of it for this holy purpose, without your husband's consent."¶

The hand that delivered the indulgence could not receive the money: that was forbidden under the severest penalties;—there was good reason to fear that hand might not always be trustworthy. The penitent was himself to drop the price of his pardon into the chest.** An angry look was cast on those who dared to close their purses.††

* Die erste Gnade ist die vollkommene Vergebung aller Sünden, &c. Instruction 19.

† Nur den Beichtbrief zu kaufen. (Ibid. 36.)

‡ Auch ist nicht nöthig das sie in dem Herzen zerknirscht sind, und mit dem Mund gebeichtet haben. (Ibid. 38.)

§ Nach den Sätzen der gesunden Vernunft, nach ihrer Magnificenz und Freigebigkeit. (Instruction, &c. 26.)

|| Müller reliq. iii. p. 264.

¶ Wider den Willen ihres mannes. (Instruction, 27.)

** Ib. 27, 30, 31.

†† Luth. Opp. Leipz. xvii. 79

* Instruction of the Archbishop of Mentz, &c.

† Resolut. on the 32d Thesis.

‡ Tetzel, Reformationgesch. Myconii Ref. Hist. Instruction of the Archbishop of Mentz to the Sub-commissioners of the indulgence.—Theses of Luther.

§ Instruction, &c. 5. 69.

If, among those who pressed into the confessionals, there came one whose crimes had been public, and yet untouched by the civil laws, such person was obliged, first of all, to do public penance. He was conducted to a chapel, or sacristy; there he was stripped of his clothes, his shoes taken off his feet, and he left in his shirt. They made him fold his arms upon his breast, placed a light in one hand, and a wax taper in the other. Then the penitent walked at the head of the procession, which passed to the head of the red cross. He kneeled till the singing and the collect were concluded; then the commissary gave out the psalm, "*Miserere mei.*" The confessors immediately approached the penitent, and led him across the station toward the commissary, who, taking the rod, and striking him thrice gently on the back,* said: "God take pity on thee, and pardon thy sin!" After this, he gave out the *Kyrie eleison*, &c. Then the penitent being led back, and placed before the cross, the confessor pronounced the apostolical absolution, and declared him reinstated in the company of the faithful. Wretched mummeries, concluded by a passage of Scripture, which, at such a time, was a profanation!

We will give one of these letters of absolution. It is worth while to know the contents of these diplomas, which gave occasion to the Reformation.

"Our Lord Jesus Christ have mercy on thee, N. N., and absolve thee by the merits of his most holy sufferings! And I, in virtue of the apostolic power committed to me, absolve thee from all ecclesiastical censures, judgments, and penalties that thou mayst have merited; and further, from all excesses, sins, and crimes that thou mayst have committed, however great and enormous they may be, and of whatever kind—even though they should be reserved to our holy father the Pope, and to the Apostolic See. I efface all the stains of weakness, and all traces of the shame that thou mayst have drawn upon thyself by such actions. I remit the pains thou wouldst have had to endure in purgatory. I receive thee again to the sacraments of the Church. I hereby reincorporate thee in the communion of the saints, and restore thee to the innocence and purity of thy baptism; so that, at the moment of death, the gate of the place of torment shall be shut against thee, and the gate of the paradise of joy shall be opened unto thee. And if thou shouldst live long, this grace continueth unchangeable, till the time of thy end.

"In the name of the Father, of the Son, and of the Holy Spirit. Amen.

"The Brother, John Tetzel, commissary, hath signed this with his own hand."

In this document, we see with what art presumptuous and false doctrines were interspersed among sacred and Christian expressions.

All the faithful were to come and confess in the spot where the red cross was set up. None but the sick, old men, and women with child, were exempt. If, however, there was in the neighbourhood any noble in his castle, or wealthy man in his palace, his personal attendance was dispensed with.* For he might not care to mingle with this mob of people, and his money was worth fetching from his residence.

If there was any convent whose superiors, disapproving Tetzel's traffic, forbade their monks to resort to the places where the indulgence was offered—means were still found to remedy this. Confessors were sent to them commissioned to absolve them contrary to the rules of their order, and the will of their superiors.† Not a vein of the mine was left unexplored.

Then came what was the object and end of the

whole affair—the reckoning of the money. To guard against all risks, the chest had three keys—one was in the keeping of Tetzel, the other with the delegated treasurer of the house of Fugger, of Augsburg, to whom sometime before this vast speculation had been farmed; and the third was lodged with the civil authority. When the appointed day arrived, the chest was opened in presence of a public notary, and the whole contents carefully counted, and entered in the books. Was it not fit that Christ should arise and drive out these buyers and sellers from the temple?

The mission being ended, the dealers relaxed in amusement, after their labours. The instruction of the commissary-general did, it is true, forbid their frequenting taverns and disreputable places.* But they paid little regard to this interdict. Sin must have had few terrors for men who carried on so easy a traffic in it. "The mendicant friars led an irregular life," says a Roman Catholic historian; "they spent in taverns, gaming houses, and houses of ill-fame, what the people had scraped together from their poverty."† It is even affirmed that, when they were in the taverns, they would sometimes stake on dice the salvation of souls.‡

But let us see to what scenes this sale of the pardon of sins gave rise in Germany. There are some incidents, which of themselves, are a picture of the times. We like to let those whose history we write speak for themselves.

At Magdeburg, Tetzel refused to absolve a rich lady, unless she paid down one hundred florins. The lady consulted her usual confessor, who was a Franciscan. "God gives us remission of sins freely," answered he; "He does not sell it." Yet he entreated her not to mention what he had said. But the report of an opinion so adverse to his gains having reached the ears of Tetzel—"Such an adviser," he exclaimed, "deserves to be expelled or burnt alive."§

Tetzel found but few sufficiently enlightened, and still fewer bold enough to resist him. In general he could easily manage a superstitious crowd. He had erected the red cross of indulgences at Zwickau, and the good people of the place had hastened to pour in the money that was to liberate souls. He was about to leave with a full purse. The evening before his departure, the chaplains and their acolytes called upon him to give them a farewell repast. The request was reasonable; but what was to be done—the money was already counted and sealed up. In the morning he had the large bell tolled. A crowd hurried to the church—every one thought that something extraordinary had happened since the period of the station had expired. "I had intended," said he, "to take my departure this morning, but last night I was awakened by groans. I listened: they proceeded from the cemetery. Alas! it was a poor soul that called me, and entreated to be delivered from the torment that consumed it. I therefore have tarried one day longer, that I might move Christian hearts to compassion for this unhappy soul. Myself will be the first to contribute—but he who will not follow my example, will be worthy of all condemnation."|| What heart would not answer to such an appeal. Besides, who can tell what soul thus cries from the tomb! The gifts were many; and Tetzel, with the chaplains and acolytes, sat down to a merry feast paid for by offerings for the poor soul of Zwickau.||

The dealers in indulgences had established them-

* Ibid. 4.

† Sarpi, Concile de Trente, p. 5.

‡ Schröck, K. G. v. d. R. 1. 116.

§ Schultet, Annal. Evangel. p. iv.

|| Löschers, Ref. Acta, I. 404. L. Opp.xv. 443, &c.

* Dreimal gelind auf den Rücken. (Instruction.)

† Instr. 9.

‡ Ibid. 69

selves at Hagenau in 1517. The wife of a shoemaker, profiting by the permission given in the instruction of the Commissary-general, had procured, against her husband's will, a letter of indulgence, and had paid for it a gold florin. Shortly after she died; and the widower, omitting to have mass said for the repose of her soul, the curate charged him with contempt of religion, and the judge of Hagenau summoned him to appear before him. The shoemaker put in his pocket his wife's indulgence, and repaired to the place of summons. "Is your wife dead?" asked the judge. "Yes," answered the shoemaker. "What have you done with her?" "I buried her, and commended her soul to God." "But have you had a mass said for the salvation of her soul?" "I have not—it was not necessary—she went to heaven in the moment of her death." "How do you know that?" "Here is the evidence of it." The widower drew from his pocket the indulgence, and the judge, in presence of the curate, read, in so many words, that in the moment of death, the woman who had received it would go, not into purgatory, but straight into heaven. "If the curate pretends that a mass is necessary after that," said the shoemaker, "my wife has been cheated by our Holy Father the Pope; but if she has not been cheated, then the curate is deceiving me." There was no reply to this defence, and the accused was acquitted.* It was thus that the good sense of the people disposed of the impostures.

One day, when Tetzel was preaching at Leipsic, and had introduced into his preaching some of these stories of which we have given a specimen, two students indignantly left the church, exclaiming—"It is not possible to listen any longer to the ridiculous and childish tales of our monk."† One of these students, it is affirmed, was young Camerarius, who was subsequently the friend of Melancthon, and wrote his life.

But of all the young men of that period, Tetzel made the strongest impression on Myconius—subsequently celebrated as a reformer and an historian of the Reformation. Myconius had received a religious education. "My son," said his father, who was a pious Franconian, "pray frequently; for all things are freely given to us by God alone. The blood of Christ," he added, "is the only ransom for the sins of the whole world. Oh, my son! if there were but three men to be saved by the blood of Christ, only believe, and be sure that you shall be one of those three.‡ It is an insult to the Saviour's blood to doubt its power to save." Then, proceeding to warn his son against the trade that was beginning in Germany—"The Roman indulgences," said he, "are nets to fish for money, and delude the simple. Remission of sins and eternal life are not to be purchased by money."

At thirteen, Frederic was sent to the school of Annaberg, to finish his studies. Soon after, Tetzel arrived in this town, and remained there for two months. The people flocked in crowds to hear him preach. "There is," exclaimed Tetzel, with a voice of thunder, "no other means of obtaining eternal life save the satisfaction of good works. But this satisfaction is out of man's power. His only resource is to purchase it from the Roman Pontiff."§

When Tetzel was on the point of leaving Annaberg, his appeal became more urgent. "Soon," said he, with a threatening accent, "I shall take down that cross, and close the gate of heaven,|| and put out that

sun of grace which shines before your eyes." Then, resuming a tenderer strain of exhortation, "This," said he, "is the day of salvation, this is the accepted time." And, as a last effort, the pontifical Stentor,* speaking to the inhabitants of a country rich in mines, exclaimed, "Inhabitants of Annaberg! bring hither your money: contribute liberally in aid of indulgences, and all your mines and mountains shall be filled with pure silver." Finally, at Easter, he proclaimed that he would distribute his letters to the poor gratuitously, and for the love of God.

The young Myconius happened to be among the hearers. He felt a wish to take advantage of this offer. "I am a poor sinner," said he, addressing in Latin the commissioners to whom he applied, "and I need a free pardon." "Those only," answered the dealers, "can share in the merits of Christ who stretch forth a helping hand to the church—that is, give their money." "What mean, then," said Myconius, "those promises of free distribution, posted up on the gates and walls of the churches?" "Give at least a *gros*," said Tetzel's people, after having vainly interceded for the young man with their master. "I cannot."—"Only six deniers."—"I have not even so much." The Dominicans then began to apprehend that he meant to entrap them. "Listen," said they, "we will give you six deniers." On which the young man, raising his voice, with indignation replied, "I will have none of the indulgences that are bought and sold! If I desired to purchase them, I should only have to sell one of my books. What I want is a free pardon, and for the love of God. You will have to account to God for having, for the sake of six deniers, misused the salvation of a soul." "Ah! ah!" said they, who sent you to tempt us?" "No one," replied the young man: "the desire of receiving the grace of God could alone induce me to appear before such great lords." He left them.

"I was grieved," says he, "at being thus sent away without pity. But I felt in myself a comforter, who whispered that there is a God in heaven who forgives repentant souls without money and without price, for the sake of his son, Jesus Christ. As I left these people, the Holy Spirit touched my heart. I burst into tears; and with sighs and groans prayed to the Lord: 'Oh God, since these men have refused remission of sins, because I had no money to pay, do thou, Lord, take pity on me, and forgive them in mere mercy.' I retired to my chamber. I took my crucifix from my desk, placed it on my chair, and kneeled before it. I cannot here put down what I experienced. I asked of God to be my father, and to make me what he would have me. I felt my nature changed, converted, transformed. What had before delighted me was now distasteful. To live with God, and to please him, became my most ardent—my single desire."†

Thus Tetzel himself was preparing the Reformation. By scandalous abuses he made way for a purer teaching; and the generous indignation which he excited in youthful minds, was destined one day to break forth with power. We may judge of this by the following incident:

A Saxon gentleman had heard Tetzel at Leipsic, and was much shocked by his impostures. He went to the monk, and inquired if he was authorized to pardon sins in intention, or such as the applicant intended to commit? "Assuredly," answered Tetzel; "I have full power from the pope to do so." "Well," returned the gentleman, "I want to take some slight

* Musculi Locum communes. p. 352.

† Hoffmanns Reformationgesch. v. Leipz. p. 32.

‡ Si tantum tres homines esset salvando per sanguinem Christi, certo statueret unum se esse ex tribus illis (Melch. Adam. Vita Mycon.)

§ Si nunquam redimatur a Pontifice Romano. (Melch. Adam.)

|| Clausuram januarum cœli. (Melch. Adam.)

* Stentor Pontificus. (Ib.)

† Letter of Myconius to Eberus in Hechtii Vita Tetzeli. Wittemb. i. p. 14.

revenge on one of my enemies, without attempting his life. I will pay you ten crowns if you will give me a letter of indulgence that shall bear me harmless." Tetzel made some scruples; they struck their bargain for thirty crowns. Shortly after, the monk set out for Leipsic. The gentleman, attended by his servants, laid wait for him in a wood between Jüterboch and Treblin—fell upon him, gave him a beating, and carried off the rich chest of indulgence-money the inquisitor had with him. Tetzel clamoured against this act of violence, and brought an action before the judges. But the gentleman showed the letter, signed by Tetzel himself, which exempted him, beforehand, from all responsibility. Duke George, who had at first been much irritated at this action, upon seeing this writing, ordered that the accused should be acquitted.*

This traffic everywhere agitated the minds of the people, and was everywhere discussed. It was the subject of conversation in castles, academies, and private houses; as well as in inns, taverns, and all places of resort.† Opinions were divided; some believed, some were indignant. But the sober part of the nation rejected with disgust the whole system of indulgences. This doctrine was so opposed to the Scriptures, and to sound sense, that all men who possessed any knowledge of the Bible, or any natural acuteness, had already condemned it in their hearts, and only waited for a signal to oppose it. On the other hand, mockers found abundant cause for ridicule. The people, who had been irritated for so many years by the ill conduct of the priests, and whom the fear of punishment had alone retained in any outward respect, gave loose to all their animosity; and on all sides were heard complaints and sarcasms upon the love of money that infected the clergy.

The people went still farther. They impugned the power of the keys and the authority of the sovereign pontiff. "Why," said they, "does not the pope deliver at once all the souls from purgatory by a holy charity, and on account of the great misery of those souls, since he frees so great a number for the sake of perishable gain and the cathedral of St. Peter?"

"Why do we continue to observe the festivals and anniversaries for the dead? Why does not the pope surrender, or why does he not permit people to resume the benefices and prebends founded in favor of the dead, since now it is useless, and even wrong, to pray for those whom indulgences have for ever set free? What is this new kind of holiness of God and of the pope, that, for the sake of money, they grant to a wicked man, and an enemy of God, the power of delivering from purgatory a pious soul, beloved by the Lord, rather than themselves deliver it freely from love for it, and on account of its great misery?"‡

Accounts were circulated of the gross and immoral conduct of the traffickers in indulgences. "To pay," said they, "what they owe to drivers, who carry them and their goods; to innkeepers, at whose houses they lodge; or to any one who does them service, they give a letter of indulgence, for four, five, or as many souls as they wish." Thus the brevets of salvation were circulated in the inns and markets, like bank-notes or paper-money. "*Bring hither your money,*" said the common people, "is the beginning, the middle, and the end of their sermons."§

A miner of Schneeberg, meeting a seller of indulgences, inquired: "Must we then believe what you have often said of the power of indulgences, and of

the authority of the pope, and think that we can redeem a soul from purgatory by casting a penny into the chest?" The dealer in indulgences affirmed that it was so. "Ah!" replied the miner, "what a cruel man the pope must be, thus to leave a poor soul to suffer so long in the flames for a wretched penny! If he has no ready money, let him collect a few hundred thousand crowns, and deliver all these souls by one act. Even we poor folks would willingly pay him the principal and interest."

The people of Germany were weary of the shameful traffic that was carrying on in the midst of them. They could no longer bear the impostures of these Romish tricksters, as Luther remarks.* Yet no bishop or divine dared lay a finger on their quackery and deceit. The minds of men were in suspense. They asked each other if God would not raise up some powerful instrument for the work that was required to be done. But such an one was nowhere visible.

The pope, who then filled the pontifical throne, was not a Borgia, but Leo X., of the illustrious family of the Medici. He was a man of talent, open-hearted, kind, and indulgent. His manners were affable, his liberality unbounded, and his morals greatly superior to those of his court. Nevertheless, the Cardinal Pallavicini confesses, they were not quite free from reproach. To these amiable qualities he added many of the accomplishments that form a great prince. He was, especially, a liberal patron of the arts and sciences. The earliest Italian comedies were represented in his presence, and most of the dramas of his time were honoured by his attendance. He was passionately fond of music; his palace daily resounded with musical instruments, and he was often heard humming the airs that had been sung before him. Fond of magnificence, he spared no expense in feastings, public games, theatrical entertainments, and gifts. No court surpassed in splendour or in pleasures that of the Sovereign Pontiff; so that when news was brought that Julian Medici was about to choose Rome as a place of residence for himself and his young bride, Cardinal Bibiena, the most influential of Leo's council, exclaimed, "God be praised! we wanted nothing here but a female circle." A "female circle" was felt requisite to complete the attractions of the pope's court. But a feeling of religion was a thing of which Leo was entirely ignorant. "His manners," says Sarpi, "were so charming, that he would have been a perfect man if he had some knowledge in religious matters, and a little more inclination for piety, concerning which he never troubled himself."†

Leo was in great want of money. He had to provide for his vast expenses; to satisfy all demands on his liberality; to fill with gold the purse he every day threw to the people; to defray the costs of the licentious plays at the Vatican; to gratify the continual demands of his relations and of courtiers who were addicted to voluptuousness; to portion his sister, who had married Prince Cibo, a natural son of Pope Innocent VIII.; and to bear all the expenses attending his taste for literature, arts, and pleasures. His cousin, Cardinal Pucci, who was as skilful in the art of amassing money as Leo was prodigal in spending, advised him to have recourse to indulgences. The pope, therefore, published a bull, proclaiming a general indulgence, the product of which should be appropriated, he said, to the building of St. Peter's church, that splendid monument of

* Albinus Meissn. Chronik. L. W. (W.) xv. 446. &c. Hechtius in Vita Tetzelii.

† L. Opp. (Leipz.) xvii. p. 111, 116.

‡ Luther's Theses on the Indulgences. (Th. 82, 83, 84.)

§ L. Opp. (Leipz.) xvii. 79.

* Fessi erant Germani omnes, ferendis explicationibus, nundinationibus, et infinitis imposturis Romanensium nebulonum. (L. Opp., Lat. in præi.)

† Sarpi, Concile de Trente, p. 4. Pallavicini, though laboring to refute Sarpi, confirms and even aggravates the charge: suo plane officio defuit (Leo) . . . venationes, facetias, pompas adeo frequentes . . . (Council. Trid. Hist. i. p. 8, 9)

ecclesiastical magnificence. In a letter given at Rome, under the seal of the fisherman, in November, 1517, Leo required from his commissioner of indulgences one hundred and forty-seven gold ducats, "to pay for a manuscript of the 33d book of Livy." Of all the uses he made of the money extorted from the Germans, this was undoubtedly the best. But it was strange to deliver souls from purgatory, that he might purchase a manuscript of the wars of the Romans!

There was then in Germany a young prince who was, in many respects, a counterpart of Leo X.—this was Albert, the younger brother of the Elector, Joachim, of Brandenburg. This young man, at the age of twenty-four, had been made Archbishop and Elector of Mentz and of Magdeburg; two years after he was made Cardinal. Albert had neither the virtues nor the vices which have often characterised the dignitaries of the Church. Young, volatile, wordly-minded, but not devoid of generous sentiments, he plainly saw many of the abuses of Catholicism, and cared little for the fanatical monks that surrounded him. His equity inclined him to acknowledge, at least in part, the justice of what the friends of the Gospel required. In his heart he was not greatly opposed to Luther. Capito, one of the most distinguished Reformers, was for a long time his chaplain, counsellor, and intimate confidant. Albert regularly attended his preaching. "He did not despise the Gospel," says Capito; "on the contrary, he highly esteemed it, and for a long time prevented the monks from attacking Luther." But he would have had the latter abstain from compromising him, and beware, while pointing out the errors in doctrine and the vices of the inferior clergy, of bringing to light the faults of the bishops and prince. Above all, he feared to find his own name thrust forward in the contest. "See," said Capito to Luther, at a subsequent period, deluding himself as is usual in such cases, "see the example of Christ and of his apostles: they reproved the Pharisees and the incestuous person in the church of Corinth, but did not do so *by name*. You do not know what is passing in the hearts of the bishops. There is, perhaps, more good in them than you think." But the frivolous and profane turn of Albert's character was likely to indispose him for the Reformation, even more than the susceptibilities and fears of his self-love. Affable in his manners, witty, graceful, of expensive and even dissipated habits, delighting in the pleasures of the table, and in rich equipages, houses, licentious pursuits, and literary society, this young archbishop and elector was, in Germany, what Leo was at Rome. His court was one of the most splendid of the Empire. He was ready to sacrifice to pleasure and grandeur all the foretastes of truth that might visit his soul. Yet there was in him, to the last, a sort of struggle with his better convictions; and he more than once manifested moderation and equity.

Like Leo, Albert was in want of money. Some rich merchants of Augsburg, named Fugger, had made him some advances. He was pressed for the means of liquidating his debts; nay, more, although he had obtained two archbishoprics and a bishopric, he had not enough to pay for his *pallium* at Rome. This ornament, made of white wool, interspersed with black crosses, and blessed by the pope, who was accustomed to send it to the archbishops as a sign of their jurisdiction, cost them 26,000, or, as some say, 30,000 florins.

It was quite natural that Albert should form the project of resorting to the same means as his superior to obtain money. He solicited from the pope the contract for the "farming" of all the indulgences, or, as they expressed it at Rome, "the contract for the sins of the Germans."

At times the popes kept the speculation in their own hands. Sometimes they farmed it to others; as, in certain states, is still done with gaming houses. Albert proposed to Leo to divide the profits. Leo, in accepting the bargain, required immediate payment of the pallium. Albert, who was all the while depending on the indulgences for the means of discharging this claim, applied to the Fuggers, who, thinking it a safe investment, made, on certain conditions, the required advances; and were appointed cashiers in this great undertaking. They were at this period bankers to many princes, and were afterward made counts for the services they had rendered.

The pope and archbishop having thus divided beforehand the spoils of the credulous souls of Germany, it was necessary to carry out the project, and to find some one to undertake the trouble of realizing it. The charge was first offered to the Franciscans, and their guardian was associated in it with Albert. But the Franciscans did not desire any part in this undertaking, which was already in ill repute among good people. The Augustine monks, who were more enlightened than the other religious orders, would have cared still less to join in it. Meanwhile, the Franciscans feared to offend the pope, who had lately sent to their general, Forli, a cardinal's hat, which cost that poor mendicant order 30,000 florins. The guardian, therefore, judged it most prudent not to meet the offer by a direct refusal; but he raised all kinds of difficulties in the way of Albert; they never could agree, so that the elector was glad to accept the proposal that he should take the sole charge of the concern. The Dominicans, on their part, coveted a share in the lucrative trade about to be opened. Tetzel, already notorious in such matters, hastened to Mentz, and tendered his services to the elector. His proved usefulness in publishing the indulgences for the knights of the Teutonic Order of Prussia and Livonia was recollected, and he was accepted; and thus it was, that all this traffic passed into the hands of his order.*

The first time Luther heard speak of Tetzel was, as far as we are informed, in the year 1516, at Grimma, when he was commencing his visitation of the churches. Some one came and told Staupitz, who was still with Luther, that a seller of indulgences, named Tetzel, was making much noise at Wurtzen. Some of his extravagant expressions being quoted, Luther was indignant and exclaimed, "God willing, I will make a hole in his drum."†

Tetzel, in his return from Berlin, where he had met with a most friendly reception from the Elector Joachim, a brother of the former-general, took up his abode at Jüterboch. Staupitz, availing himself of the confidence the Elector Frederic reposed in him, had repeatedly called his attention to the abuse of the indulgences, and the disgraceful proceedings of the collectors.‡ The Princes of Saxony, indignant at the shameful traffic, had forbidden Tetzel to enter their provinces. He was therefore compelled to stop on the territory of his patron, the Archbishop of Magdeburg. But he drew as near as he could to Saxony. At Jüterboch he was only four miles distant from Wittenberg. "This great purse-drainer," said Luther, "went boldly to work, beating up the country all round, so that the money began to leap out of every man's purse, and fall into his chest." The people flocked in crowds from Wittenberg, to the indulgence market at Jüterboch.

Luther was still, at this time, full of respect for the

* Seckendorf. 42.

† Lingke, *Reisegesch.* Luther's, p. 27.

‡ In illius ejus pectori frequentes indulgentiarum abusus, (Cochlaus. 4.)

Church and for the pope. He says, himself, "I was then a monk, a papist of the maddest—so infatuated, and even steeped in the Romish doctrines, that I would willingly have helped to kill any one who had the audacity to refuse the smallest act of obedience to the pope. I was a true Saul, like many others still living."* But, at the same time, his heart was ready to take fire for what he thought the truth, and against what, in his judgment, was error. "I was a young doctor, fresh from the anvil, glowing and rejoicing in the glory of the Lord."†

One day Luther was at confessional at Wittenberg. Several residents of that town successively presented themselves. They confessed themselves guilty of great irregularities; adultery, licentiousness, usury, unjust gains: such were the things men came to talk of with a minister of God's word, who must one day give an account of their souls. He reproved, rebuked, and instructed. But what was his astonishment, when these persons replied that they did not intend to abandon their sins! The pious monk, shocked at this, declared that, since they would not promise to change their habits of life, he could not absolve them. Then it was that these poor creatures appealed to their letters of indulgence; they showed them, and contended for their efficacy. But Luther replied, that he had nothing to do with their paper; and he added, "If you do not turn from the evil of your way, you will all perish." They exclaimed against this, and renewed their application; but the doctor was immovable. "They must cease," he said, "to do evil, and learn to do well, or otherwise no absolution. Have a care," added he, "how you give ear to the indulgences: you have something better to do than to buy licences which they offer you for paltry pence."‡

Much alarmed, these inhabitants of Wittenberg quickly returned to Tetzel, and told him that an Augustine monk treated his letters with contempt. Tetzel, at this, bellowed with anger. He held forth in the pulpit, used insulting expressions and curses,§ and, to strike the people with more terror, he had a fire lighted several times in the grand square, and declared that he was ordered by the pope to burn the heretics, who should dare to oppose his most holy indulgences.

Such was the incident that first gave occasion to the Reformation, though not the cause of it. A pastor sees his sheep going on in a way that would lead them to their ruin; he seeks to guide them out of it. He has, as yet, no thought of reforming the church and the world. He has seen Rome and its corruption; but he does not erect himself against Rome. He discerns some of the evils under which Christendom groans, but he has no thought of correcting those abuses. He does not desire to constitute himself a reformer.¶ He has no more plan in his mind for the reform of the church, than he had previously had for that which had been wrought in his own soul. God himself designed a Reformation, and to make Luther the instrument in its accomplishment. The same remedy, of which the efficacy was proved by the removal of his own distress, it was God's purpose that he should apply to the distresses of Christendom. He remains quietly in the circle assigned to him. He goes simply where his master calls him. He is discharging at Wittenberg his duties as professor, preach-

er, pastor. He is seated in the temple, where the members of his church come to open their hearts to him. It is there, on that field, that Evil attacks, and Error seeks him out. Those about him would hinder him from discharging his duty. His conscience, bound to the word of God, is aroused. Is it not God who calls him? Resistance is a duty, *therefore*, it is also a right; he *must* speak. Such was the course of the events occurring in the providence of that God who had decreed to revive Christianity by the agency of a miner's son; and to refine, in his furnace, the corrupted teaching of the church.*

After what has been stated, it is needless to refute a lying charge invented by some enemies of Luther, and not till after his death. It has been said it was a jealousy on the part of the monks of his order—the mortifications of seeing the Dominicans, and not the Augustines, who had previously held it, entrusted with this shameful and disreputable commerce, that led the doctor of Wittenberg to attack Tetzel and his teaching. The well-ascertained fact that this traffic had been at first offered to the Franciscans, who would not have it, suffices to refute this invention, repeated by writers who do but copy one another. Cardinal Pallavicini himself declares,† that the Augustines had never held this office. Besides, we have seen the struggle of Luther's soul. His conduct needs no other explanation. He could not refrain from confessing aloud the doctrine to which he owed his happiness. In Christianity, when a man finds a treasure for himself, he hastens to impart it to others. In our day men have abandoned such puerile and unworthy attempts to account for the great revolution of the sixteenth century. It is recognized that there must be some more powerful lever to raise a whole world; and that the Reformation was not in Luther merely, but that the age in which he lived must necessarily have given birth to it.

Luther, called on alike by obedience to the truth of God, and by charity to man, ascended the pulpit. He warned his hearers as was his duty, as he himself tells us.‡ His prince had obtained from the pope some special indulgences for the church in the castle of Wittenberg. Some of the blows which he is about to strike at the indulgences of the inquisitor may easily fall on those of the elector. It matters not: he will brave his disgrace. If he sought to please man he would not be the servant of Christ.

"No one can show from the Scriptures that God's justice requires a penalty or satisfaction from the sinner," said the faithful minister of the word, to the people of Wittenberg. "The only duty it imposes on him is a true repentance, a sincere change of heart; a resolution to bear the cross of Christ, and to strive to do good works. It is a great error to seek ourselves to satisfy God's justice for our sins, for God ever pardons them freely, by an inestimable grace."

"The Christian church, it is true, requires somewhat from the sinner, and what she requires she may remit. But that is all. And, furthermore, these indulgences of the church are only tolerated out of regard for slothful and imperfect Christians, who will not employ themselves zealously in good works; for they excite no one to sanctification, but leave every one in his lowness and imperfection."

Then, passing to the pretext on which these indulgences were proclaimed, he continued: "It would be much better to contribute to the building of St. Peter's from love to God, than to buy indulgences for such a

* Monachum, et papistum insanissimum, ita ebrium, imo submersum in dogmatibus papæ, &c. In præf. Opp. Witt. I. † L. Opp. (W.) xxii.

‡ Cæpi dissuadere populis et eos dehortari ne indulgentiarum clamorem aures præberent. (L. Opp. lat. In præf.)

§ Wutet schilt, und maledicet gaulich auf dem Predigtstuhl. (Mysonius, Reformationen.)

¶ Hæc initia fuerunt hujus controversiæ, in qua Lutherus nihil suspicatus aut somnians de futura mutatione rituum, &c. (Melancth. Vita Luth.)

* Mathesius.—Die verseurte Lehr durch den Ofen gehen (p. 10.)

† Falsum est consuevisse hoc munus injungi Eremitanis S. Augustini. (p. 14.)

‡ Sauberlich.

purpose. But, say you, shall we then not buy them? I have already said as much, and I repeat it: my advice is, that none should buy them. Leave them for drowsy Christians, but do you keep yourselves separate from such. Let the faithful be turned from indulgences, and exhorted to the works they neglect."

Then, glancing at his adversaries, Luther concluded in these words: "And if some cry that I am a heretic—for the truth which I preach is prejudicial to their coffers—I pay little regard to their clamours. They are men of gloomy or sickly minds, who have never felt the truths of the Bible, never read the Christian doctrine, never understood their own teachers, and are perishing in the tattered rags of their vain opinions.* However, God grant to them and to us a right understanding! Amen!" This said, the doctor came down from the pulpit, leaving his hearers much affected by this bold harangue.

This sermon was printed, and made a deep impression on all who read it. Tetzel answered it, and Luther defended himself; but this was at a later period, in 1518.

The feast of All Saints was at hand. Some chroniclers relate at this time a circumstance which, however little important it may be to the history of this epoch, may still serve to characterise it. It is a dream of the elector—beyond reasonable doubt true in the essential parts, though some circumstances may have been added by those who related it. It is mentioned by Seckendorf.† "The fear of giving occasion to his adversaries to say that Luther's doctrine rested upon dreams, has perhaps prevented other historians from speaking of it," observes this respectable writer.

The elector, Frederick of Saxony, these chroniclers tell us, was then at his castle of Schweinitz, six leagues from Wittemberg. The morning of the 31st of October, being with his brother, Duke John (who was then co-regent, and who reigned alone after his death,) and with his Chancellor, the elector said to the duke:—

"Brother, I must tell you a dream that I had last night, and of which I should be very glad to know the meaning. It is so deeply engraved on my mind, that I should not forget it were I to live a thousand years, for I dreamed it thrice, and each time with some new circumstances."

Duke John.—"Is it a good dream, or bad dream?"

The Elector.—"I know not; God knows."

Duke John.—"Do not make yourself uneasy about it; tell me."

The Elector.—"Having gone to bed last night, tired and dispirited, I fell asleep soon after saying my prayers, and slept quietly about two hours and a half. I then woke; and continued engaged till midnight with a variety of thoughts. I considered how I should keep the festival of All Saints; I prayed for the poor souls in purgatory, and besought God to guide me, my counsellors, and my people, into all truth. I fell asleep again; and then I dreamed that Almighty God sent a monk to me, who was the true son of the Apostle Paul. All the saints accompanied him, according to the command of God, in order to testify to me in his favor, and to declare that he was not come with any fraudulent design, but that all he did was agreeable to the will of God. They asked me, at the same time, graciously to allow him to write something on the

church-door of the castle of Wittemberg; which request I granted by the mouth of the chancellor. Thereupon the monk went his way, and began to write, but in such large characters, that I could read from Schweinitz what he was writing. The pen that he used was so long, that its extremity reached even to Rome, wounded the ears of a lion (Leo,) that was couched there, and shook the triple crown on the pope's head. All the cardinals and princes, running hastily toward him, endeavoured to support it. You and I, brother, among the rest, attempted to support it; I put out my arm,—but at that moment, I woke, with my arm extended, in great alarm, and very angry with the monk who handled his pen so awkwardly. I recovered myself a little—it was only a dream.

"But I was still half asleep, and I closed my eyes again. My dream continued. The lion, still disturbed by the pen, began to roar with all his might, so that the whole city of Rome, and all the states of the holy empire, ran to enquire what was the matter. The pope called upon us to restrain the monk, and addressed himself particularly to me, because he lived in my country. I woke again. I repeated a *Pater noster*. I besought God to preserve the holy father, and I then fell asleep again.

"After this, I dreamed that all the princes of the empire, you and I among the rest, were flocking to Rome—trying, one after the other, to break this pen; but the more we exerted ourselves, the stiffer it became; it resisted as if it had been made of iron; at length we were tired. I then asked the monk (for I seemed to be sometimes at Rome, and sometimes at Wittemberg,) where he had obtained that pen, and why it was so strong? 'The pen,' replied he, 'once belonged to the wing of a goose of Bohemia, a hundred years old.* I received it from one of my old schoolmasters; its strength is—that no one can take the pith out of it; and I am, myself, quite surprised at it.' Suddenly I heard a loud cry. From the monk's long pen had issued a great number of other pens. I woke a third time; it was daylight."

Duke John.—"Master Chancellor, what do you think of it? Oh! that we had here a Joseph, or a Daniel, enlightened by God!"

The Chancellor.—"Your highness knows the vulgar proverb, that the dreams of maidens, scholars, and nobles, have generally some hidden meaning; but we shall not know the meaning of this for some time, till the things to which it relates shall have taken place. Therefore, commend the accomplishment of it to God, and leave it in his hands."

Duke John.—"I agree with you, master Chancellor; it is not right that we should puzzle our heads about the meaning of this: God will turn it all to his glory."

The Elector.—"God in his mercy grant it! However, I shall never forget the dream. I have thought of one interpretation—but I keep it to myself. Time will perhaps show if I have guessed right."

Such, according to the manuscript of Weimar, was the conversation that took place on the morning of the 31st of October, at Schweinitz. Let us next see what happened in the evening of the same day at Wittemberg. We now return to the firmer ground of history.

The admonitions of Luther had produced but little effect: Tetzel, without disturbing himself, continued his traffic and his impious addresses to the people.†

* Sondern in ihren löchreichen und zerrissenen Opiniën viel nahe verwesen. (L. Op. (L) xvii. p. 119.)

† It is found in Löcher, l. 46, &c. Tetzel's Anf und Fortg. der Ref. Sünkers Ehrengel. p. 148. Lehmanns Besch. Meissen. Erzgeb. &c., and in a manuscript of the Archives of Weimar, written from the dictation of Spalatin. It is from this manuscript, published at the last Jubilee of the Reformation (1817,) that we take the account of this dream.

* John Huss.—This is one of the particulars that may have been added at a subsequent period; in allusion to the well-known saying of Huss himself.

† Cujus impis et nefarius concionibus incitatus Lutherus studio pietatis ardens edidit propotiones de indulgentiis. (Melanct. Vita. Luth.)

Shall Luther submit to these grievous abuses? shall he keep silence? As a pastor, he has powerfully exhorted those who attended his ministry; and, as a preacher, he has uttered a warning voice from the pulpit. He has yet to speak as a divine; he has yet to address himself, not merely to a few persons in the confessional, not merely to the assembly of the church at Wittenberg, but to all those who are, like himself, teachers of God's word. His resolution is formed.

It was not the Church that he thought of attacking; it was not the Pope he was about to call to account; on the contrary, his respect for the Head of the Church would not allow him to be any longer silent in regard to assumptions, by which the Pope's credit was disparaged. He must take his part against those audacious men who dared to mix up his venerable name with their disgraceful traffic. Far from thinking of a Revolution that should overthrow the primacy of Rome, Luther conceived that he had the Pope and Catholicism with him, against the effrontery of the monks.*

The feast of All Saints was a very important day at Wittenberg, and especially at the church which the Elector had built and filled with relics. On this occasion those relics, encased in gold and silver, and adorned with precious stones, were set out to dazzle the eyes of the people with their magnificence.† Whoever on that day visited the church, and there confessed himself, obtained a plenary indulgence. On that great day the pilgrims flocked in crowds to Wittenberg.

Luther, whose plan was already formed, went boldly on the evening of the 31st October, 1517, to the church toward which the superstitious crowds of pilgrims were flocking, and affixed to the door ninety-five theses or propositions, against the doctrine of indulgences. Neither the Elector, nor Staupitz, nor Spalatin, nor any of his friends, even those most intimate with him, had any previous intimation of his design.‡

Luther therein declared, in a kind of preamble, that he had written these theses in a spirit of sincere charity, and with the express desire of bringing the truth to light. He declared himself ready to defend them, next day, at the university itself, against all opposers.

The attention excited by them was very great; and they were read and repeated on all sides. The pilgrims, the university, and the whole city, were soon in confusion. The following are some of the propositions written by the pen of the monk, and posted on the door of the church of Wittenberg:

"1. When our Master and Lord Jesus Christ says, 'Repent,' he means that the whole life of his faithful servants upon earth should be a constant and continual repentance.

"2. This cannot be understood of the sacrament of penance, (that is to say, of confession and satisfaction,) as administered by the priest.

"3. However, our Lord does not here speak only of inward repentance: inward repentance is invalid, if it does not produce outwardly every kind of mortification of the flesh.

"4. Repentance and grief—that is to say, true penitence, lasts as long as a man is displeased with himself—that is to say, till he passes from this life to eternal life.

"5. The Pope has no power or intention to remit any other penalty than that which he has imposed, according to his good pleasure, or conformably to the canons, that is to say, to the Papal ordinances.

* Et in his certus mihi videbar, me habiturum patronum papam cuius fiducia tunc fortiter nitebar. (L. Opp. in pref.)
† . . . Quas magnifico apparatu publice populi ostendi curavit. (Cochleus, 4.)

‡ Cum hujus disputationis nullus etiam intimorum amicum fuerit conscius (L. Epp. i. 186.)

"6. The Pope cannot remit any condemnation; but can only declare and confirm the remission that God himself has given; except only in cases that belong to him. If he does otherwise, the condemnation continues the same.

"8. The laws of ecclesiastical penance can only be imposed on the living, and in no wise respect the dead.

"21. The commissioners of indulgences are in error in saying, that, through the indulgence of the Pope, man is delivered from all punishment, and saved.

"25. The same power, that the Pope has over purgatory in the Church at large, is possessed by every bishop in his diocese, and every curate in his parish.

"27. Those persons preach human inventions who pretend that, at the very moment when the money sounds in the strong box, the soul escapes from purgatory.

"28. This is certain: that, as soon as the money sounds, avarice and love of gain come in, grow, and multiply. But the assistance and prayers of the Church depend only on the will and good pleasure of God.

"32. Those who fancy themselves sure of their salvation, by indulgences, will go to the devil with those who teach them this doctrine.

"35. They teach anti-christian doctrines who profess that, to deliver a soul from purgatory, or to purchase an indulgence, there is no need of sorrow or of repentance.

"36. Every Christian who feels true repentance for his sins, has perfect remission from the punishment and from the sin, without the need of indulgences.

"37. Every true Christian, dead, or living, is a partaker of all the riches of Christ, or of the Church, by the gift of God, and without any letter of indulgence.

"38. Yet we must not despise the Pope's distributive and pardoning power, for his pardon is a declaration of God's pardon.

"40. Repentance and real grief seek and love chastening; but the softness of the indulgence relaxes the fear of chastisement, and makes us averse from it.

"42. We must teach Christians, that the Pope neither expects nor wishes us to compare the act of preaching indulgences with any charitable work whatsoever.

"43. We must teach Christians, that he who gives to the poor, or lends to the needy, does better than he who buys an indulgence.

"44. For the work of charity, makes charity to abound, and renders man more pious; while the indulgence makes him not better, but only more confident in himself, and more secure from punishment.

"45. We must teach Christians, that he who sees his neighbour in want, and notwithstanding that, buys an indulgence, does not in reality acquire the Pope's indulgence, and draws down on himself the anger of God.

"46. We must teach Christians, that if they have no superfluity, they are bound to keep for their families wherewith to procure necessities, and they ought not to waste their money on indulgences.

"47. We must teach Christians, that the purchase of an indulgence is not a matter of commandment, but a thing in which they are left at liberty.

"48. We must teach Christians, that the Pope, having more need of the prayer of faith, than of money, desires prayer rather than money, when he distributes indulgences.

"49. We must teach Christians, that the Pope's indulgence is good if we do not put our trust in it; but that nothing can be more hurtful, if it leads us to neglect piety.

"50. We must teach Christians, that if the Pope knew the exactions of the preachers of indulgences, he

would rather that the metropolitan church of St. Peter were burnt to ashes, than see it built up with the skin, the flesh, and bones of his flock.

"51. We must teach Christians, that the Pope, as in duty bound, would willingly give his own money, though it should be necessary to sell the metropolitan church of St. Peter for the purpose, to the poor people, whom the preachers of indulgences now rob of their last penny.

"52. To hope to be saved by indulgences is to hope in lies and vanity; even although the commissioner of indulgences, nay, though even the Pope himself, should pledge his own soul in attestation of their efficacy.

"53. They are the enemies of the Pope and of Christ, who, to favour the preaching of indulgences, forbid the preaching of the word of God.

"55. The Pope can think no otherwise than this: If the indulgence (which is the lesser) is celebrated with the sound of a bell, and pomp and ceremony, much more is it right to celebrate the preaching of the Gospel (which is the greater) with a hundred bells, and a hundred times more pomp and ceremony.

"62. The true and precious treasure of the Church is the holy Gospel of the glory and grace of God.

"65. The treasures of the Gospel are nets, in which it formerly happened that the souls of rich men, living at ease, were taken.

"66. But the treasures of the indulgence are nets, where with now they fish for rich men's wealth.

"67. It is the duty of bishops and pastors to receive with all respect the commissioners of the apostolical indulgences.

"68. But it is much more their duty to satisfy themselves, by their presence, that the said commissioners do not preach the dreams of their own fancy instead of the Pope's orders.

"71. Cursed be whosoever speaks against the Pope's indulgence.

"72. But blessed be he who opposes the foolish and reckless speeches of the preachers of indulgences.

"78. The Pope's indulgence cannot take away the least of our daily sins—so far as the blame or offence of it is concerned.

"79. To say that the cross, hung with the Pope's arms, is as powerful as the cross of Christ, is blasphemy.

"80. The bishops, pastors, and divines, who allow these things to be taught to the people, will have to give account for it.

"81. This shameless preaching—these impudent praises of indulgences—make it difficult for the learned to defend the dignity and honour of the Pope against the calumnies of preachers, and the subtle and artful questions of the common people.

"86. Why, say they, does not the Pope build the metropolitan church of St. Peter's with his own money, rather than with that of poor Christians, seeing that he is richer than the richest Cressus?

"92. May we therefore be rid of those preachers, who say to the Church of Christ 'Peace, peace,' when there is no peace.

"94. We must exhort Christians to endeavour to follow Christ, their head, under the cross, through death and hell.

"95. For it is better, through much tribulation, to enter into the kingdom of heaven, than to gain a carnal security by the consolations of a false peace."

Here then was the beginning of the work. The germs of the Reformation were enclosed in these theses of Luther. They attacked the indulgences, and this drew notice—but under this attack was found a principle, which, while it drew much less of the people's

attention, was one day to overturn the edifice of the Papacy. The evangelic doctrine of a *free and gracious remission of sins* was for the first time publicly professed. The work must now go forward. In fact, it was evident, that whoever should receive that faith in the remission of sins proclaimed by the Doctor of Wittemberg—whoever should possess that repentance, that conversion, and that sanctification, of which he urged the necessity—would no longer regard human ordinances, would throw off the bandages and restraints of Rome, and acquire the liberty of God's children. All errors would fall before this truth. It was by this that the light had just entered the mind of Luther; it was likewise by it that the light was ordained to spread in the Church. A clear perception of this truth was what had been wanting to the earlier Reformers. Hence the unprofitableness of their efforts. Luther clearly saw, at a later period, that in proclaiming justification by faith, he had laid the axe to the root of the tree. "It is doctrine that we attack in the followers of the Papacy," said he. "Huss and Wickliff only attacked their life; but in attacking their doctrine, we seize the goose by the throat. Every thing depends on the word of God, which the Pope has taken from us and falsified. I have overcome the Pope because my doctrine is according to God, and his is the doctrine of the devil."*

We also in our day have lost sight of this cardinal doctrine of justification by faith, though not in the same way as our fathers. "In Luther's time," says one of our contemporaries,† "the remission of sins cost some money at least; but in our days, every one takes it gratuitously to himself." There is much analogy between these two false notions. In our error there is perhaps more forgetfulness of God than that which prevailed in the 16th century. The principle of justification by God's free grace, which delivered the Church from such deep darkness at the period of the Reformation, can alone renew this generation, terminate its doubts and waverings, destroy the egotism which consumes it, establish morality and uprightness among the nations—in a word, bring back to God the world which has forsaken him.

But if these theses of Luther were strong in the strength of the truth they proclaimed, they were no less powerful in the faith of him who declared himself their champion. He had boldly drawn the sword of the word. He had done this in reliance on the power of truth. He had felt that, in dependance on the promises of God, something might be hazarded, as the world would express it. "Let him who resolves to begin a good work," (said he speaking of this bold attack,) "undertake it, relying on the goodness of the thing itself, and in no degree on any help or comfort to be derived from men—moreover let him not fear men, nor the whole world. For that text shall never be falsified: 'It is good to trust in the Lord, and he that trusteth in him shall *certainly* never be confounded.' But as for him who will not, or cannot, venture something, trusting in God, let him carefully abstain from undertaking anything."‡ We cannot doubt that Luther, after having fixed his theses on the door of the church of All Saints, withdrew to his peaceful cell, filled with that peace and joy which flow from an action done in the name of the Lord, and for the cause of everlasting truth.

Whatever boldness may appear in these theses, we still discover in them the monk who would refuse to allow a single doubt as to the authority of the Roman See. But in attacking the doctrine of indulgences,

* Wenn man die Lehre angreift, so wird die Gans am Kragen gegriffen. (L. Opp. (W.) xxii. p. 1369.)
† Harms de Kiel. ‡ L. Opp. Leipzig. vi. p. 618.

Luther had unconsciously borne hard upon many errors, the discovery of which could not be agreeable to the Pope, since it must necessarily lead, sooner or later, to the discrediting his supremacy. Luther's views, at that time, did not extend so far; but he felt the boldness of the step he had just taken, and thought, therefore, that he ought to qualify it, as far as he could, consistently with the respect he owed to the truth. He consequently put forth these theses only as doubtful propositions, in respect to which he solicited information from the learned; and he added (in accordance, it is true, with an established custom,) a solemn protestation, by which he declared that he did not mean to say or affirm anything that was not founded on the Holy Scriptures, the Fathers of the Church, and the rights and decretals of the court of Rome.

Often did Luther, in after times, when he contemplated the vast and unexpected consequences of this courageous step, feel amazed at himself, and unable to comprehend how he had dared to take it. The truth was, an invisible and all-powerful hand here held the guiding rein, and urged on the herald of truth in a road which he knew not, and from the difficulties of which he would perhaps have shrunk, had he been aware of them, and advanced alone and of his own will. "I entered on this controversy," said he, "without any settled purpose or inclination, and entirely unprepared . . . I call God to witness this, who sees the heart."*

Luther had learned what was the source of these abuses. A little book was brought him, adorned with the arms of the Archbishop of Mentz and Magdeburg, containing rules to be followed in the sale of the indulgences. Thus it was this young prelate, this accomplished prince, who had prescribed, or at least sanctioned, this imposture. Luther saw in him only a superior, whom it was his duty to honour and respect.† He resolved no longer to beat the air, but rather to apply to those who had the office of government in the church. He addressed to him a letter full of frankness and humility. Luther wrote to Albert the same day he placarded his theses.

"Forgive me, most reverend father in Christ, and most illustrious prince, if I, who am the very meanest of men,‡ have the boldness to write to your sublime grandeur. The Lord Jesus is my witness that, feeling how small and contemptible I am, I have long delayed to do so. Yet let your highness look upon an atom of dust, and in your episcopal compassion graciously receive my request.

"Men are carrying throughout the country the papal indulgence, under your grace's name. I will not so much accuse the clamours of the preachers, (for I have not heard them,) as the false opinions of simple and ignorant people, who, when they purchase these indulgences, think themselves sure of their salvation.

"Great God! the souls confided, my very excellent father, to your care, are trained not for life, but for death. The strict reckoning that will one day be required of you increases every day. I could no longer keep silence. No! man is not saved by the work or the office of his bishop. Scarcely even is the righteous saved, and the way that leadeth unto life is narrow. Why then do the preachers of indulgences, by empty fictions, lull the people in carnal security.

"The indulgence alone, if we can give ear to them, is to be proclaimed and exalted. What, is it not the chief and only duty of the bishops to teach the people

the gospel and the love of Christ? Christ himself has nowhere told us to preach indulgences, but he has enjoined us to preach the gospel. How horrid and dangerous then, it is for a bishop to allow the gospel to be withheld, and the indulgences alone to be continually sounded in the ears of the people!

"Most worthy father in God, in the instruction of the commissioners, which was published in your grace's name, (certainly without your knowledge,) it is said that the indulgence is the most precious treasure, that by it man is reconciled to God, and that repentance is not needed by those who purchase it.

"What can I, what ought I to do, most worthy bishop and serene prince? Oh! I entreat your highness, by the Lord Jesus Christ, to look into this matter with paternal vigilance, to suppress this book entirely, and to order the preachers to address to the people different instructions. If you neglect to do this, prepare yourself to hear some day a voice lifted that shall refute these preachers, to the great disgrace of your most serene highness."

Luther, at the same time, sent his theses to the archbishop, and asked him in a postscript to read them, in order to convince himself of the little dependance that was to be placed on the doctrine of indulgences.

Thus, the only wish of Luther was, that the watchmen of the church should arouse themselves, and endeavour to put a stop to the evils that were laying it waste. Nothing could be more noble or respectful than this letter of a monk to one of the greatest princes of the church and of the empire. Never did any one act more in the spirit of Christ's precept: "Render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's." This conduct bears no resemblance to that of the reckless revolutionist who despises dominions, and speaks evil of dignities. It is the conscientious appeal of a Christian and a priest, who renders honour to all, but, above all, has the fear of God in his heart. But all his entreaties and supplications were useless. Young Albert, wholly engrossed by pleasure, and the pursuits of ambition, made no reply to this solemn address. The bishop of Brandenburg, Luther's ordinary, a learned and pious man, to whom he also sent the theses, replied, that he was attacking the power of the church; that he would bring upon himself much trouble and grief; that the attempt would be found too much for his strength; and that he would do well to give up the affair altogether.† The princes of the church closed their ears to the voice of God, which was making itself heard in so affecting and energetic a manner, through the instrumentality of Luther. They would not understand the signs of the times; they were struck with that blindness which has already accelerated the ruin of so many powers and dignities. "They both thought, at that time," as Luther afterward observed, "that the pope would be too powerful for a poor mendicant monk like me."

But Luther could judge better than the bishops of the fatal effects of indulgences on the lines and morals of the people; for he was intimately connected with them. He saw constantly and close at hand, what the bishops only knew from reports that could not be depended on. If he found no help from the bishops, God was not wanting to him. The Head of the Church, who sits in the heavens, and to whom alone all power is given upon earth, had himself prepared the soil, and committed the seed to the hand of his servant; he gave wings to those seeds of truth, and scattered them in a moment over the whole field of the church.

* *Casu enim, non voluntate nec studio, in has turbas incidi; Deum ipsum testor.* (L. Opp. lat. in pref.)

† *Dominio suo et pastori in Christo venerabiliter metuendo.* (Epp. i. p. 68.)

‡ *Fex hominum.* (Epp. i. p. 68.)

* *Ut populus Evangelium discat atque charitatem Christi.* (Epp. i. p. 68.)

† *Ersolte still halten; es wäre eine grosse Sache.* (Math. 13.)

No one appeared next day at the university, to impugn the propositions of Luther. Tetzel's traffic was too generally decried, and too disreputable for any other person than himself, or one of his followers, to dare to accept the challenge. But these theses were destined to find an echo beyond the vaulted roof of the academy. Hardly had they been nailed to the church door of the castle of Wittemberg, when the feeble sound of the hammer was succeeded by a thunderclap, which shook the very foundations of proud Rome; threatened with instant ruin the walls, gates, and pillars of the Papacy; stunned and terrified its champions; and, at the same time, awakened from the slumber of error many thousands of men.*

These theses spread with the rapidity of lightning. Before a month had elapsed, they had found their way to Rome. "In the space of a fortnight," says a contemporary historian, they had spread over Germany, and within a month they had run through all Christendom, as if angels themselves had been the bearers of them to all men. It is difficult to conceive the stir they occasioned.† They were afterward translated into Dutch, and into Spanish; and a traveller carried them for sale as far as Jerusalem. "Every one," said Luther, "was complaining of the indulgences, and, as all the bishops and doctors had kept silence, and no one was inclined to take the bull by the horns, poor Luther became a famous doctor; because, at last, said they, one doctor was found who dared grapple with him. But I did not like this glory, and I thought the song in too high a key for my voice."‡

Many of the pilgrims, who had flocked from all sides to Wittemberg at the feast of All Saints, took back with them—not the indulgences—but the famous theses of the Augustine monk. Thus they helped to diffuse them. Every one read them, meditating and commenting on them. Men conversed about them in convents and colleges.§ The devout monks, who had entered the convents, that they might save their souls, and all upright and well intentioned men, rejoiced at so simple and striking a confession of the truth, and heartily desired that Luther might continue the work he had begun. "I observe," says one very worthy of credit, and a great rival of the Reformer, (Erasmus,) speaking to a cardinal, "that the more irreproachable man's morals, and the more evangelical their piety, the less they are opposed to Luther. His life is commended even by those who cannot endure his opinions. The world was weary of a method of teaching in which so many puerile fictions and human inventions were mixed up, and thirsted for that living, pure, and hidden stream which flows from the veins of the apostles and evangelists. The genius of Luther was such as fitted him for these things, and his zeal would naturally take fire at no noble an enterprise."||

To form an idea of the various but prodigious effect that these propositions produced in Germany, we should endeavour to follow them wherever they penetrated—to into the study of the learned, the cell of the monk, and the palaces of the princes.

Reuchlin received a copy of them. He was tired of the rude conflict he had waged with the monks. The strength evinced by the new combatant in these theses cheered the depressed spirits of the old champion of letters, and gave fresh joy to his drooping heart. "Thanks be to God," exclaimed he, after having read them, "they have now found a man who will give

them so much to do, that they will be very glad to leave my old age to pass away in peace."

The cautious Erasmus was in the Low Countries when the theses reached him. He inwardly rejoiced to see his secret desires for the reform of abuses so courageously expressed; he commended their author, only exhorting him to more moderation and prudence. And yet when some one in his presence blamed Luther's violence, "God," said Erasmus, "has sent a physician who cuts into the flesh, because, without such an one, the disorder would become incurable." And when afterward the Elector of Saxony asked his opinion of Luther's affair—"I am not at all surprised," answered he, smiling, "that he has occasioned so much disturbance, for he has committed two unpardonable offences—he has attacked the tiara of the Pope, and the bellies of the monks."¶

Doctor Flek, prior of the cloister of Steinlausitz, had for some time discontinued reading mass, but he told no one his true reason. One day he found the theses of Luther in the convent refectory: he took them up, and read; and no sooner had he gone through some of them, than, unable to suppress his joy, he exclaimed, "Oh! now at last one is come who has been long waited for, and will tell you all—look there, monks!" Thence glancing into futurity, as Mathesius remarks, and playing on the word Wittemberg: "All the world," said he, "will come to seek wisdom on that mountain, and will find it."‡ He wrote to the Doctor, urging him by all means to continue the glorious struggle with courage. Luther calls him "a man full of joy and consolation."

The ancient and famous Episcopal See of Wurzburg was then filled by a pious, kind, and prudent man, Laurence, of Bibra. When a gentleman came to announce to him that he destined his daughter for the cloister, "Better give her a husband," said he. And he added, "If you want money to do so, I will lend you."§ The Emperor and all the princes had the highest esteem for him. He deplored the disorders of the Church, and especially of the convents. The theses reached him also in his episcopal palace, he read them with great joy, and publicly declared that he approved Luther's view. He afterward wrote to the Elector Frederic: "Do not let the pious Doctor Martin Luther leave you, for the charges against him are unjust."¶ The Elector rejoiced at this testimony, copied it with his own hand, and sent it to the Reformer.

The Emperor Maximilian, the predecessor of Charles V., himself read and admired the theses of the monk of Wittemberg. He perceived the wide grasp of his thoughts—he foresaw that this obscure Augustine might probably become a powerful ally in Germany, in her struggle with Rome. Accordingly, he sent this message to the Elector of Saxony: "Take care of the monk, Luther, for a time may come when we may have need of him."‡ and, shortly after, meeting Peffinger, the confidential adviser of the Elector, at the Diet—"Well!" said he, "what is your Augustine about? Truly his propositions are not to be despised. He will show wonders to the monks."§

Even at Rome, and at the Vatican, the theses were not so ill received. Leo X. regarded them rather with the feelings of a friend of learning than a Pope. The amusement they gave him made him overlook the stern truths they contained; and when Silvester Prierias, the master of the sacred palace, besought him to treat Luther as a heretic, he answered: "That

* Walther, Nachr. v. Luther, p. 46.

† Myconius, Hist. Ref. p. 23.

‡ Das Lied wollte meiner Stimme zu hoch wurden. (L. Opp.)

§ In alle hohe Schulen und Clöster. (Math. 13.)

|| Ad hoc præstandum mihi videbatur ille, ut natura composuit et accensus studio. (Erasm. Epp. Campegio Cardinali, l. p. 660.)

* Muller's Denkw. iv. 266

† Alle Welt von diesem Weissenberg, Weisheit holen und bekommen. (p. 13.)

‡ Dass er uns den Munch Luther fleissig beware. (Math. 15-)

§ Schmidt, Brand. Reformationgesch. p. 124.

same brother,* Martin Luther, is a man of talent, and all that is said against him is mere monkish jealousy."

There were few on whom the theses of Luther had more effect than on the student of Annaberg, whom Tetzel had so unmercifully repulsed. Myconius had entered into a convent.† That very night he had dreamed that he saw a wide field covered with ripe grain: "Reap," said the voice of him who seemed to conduct him; and when he excused himself as unskilled, his guide showed him a reaper labouring at his work with inconceivable activity. "Follow him, and do as he does,"‡ said his guide. Myconius, panting, like Luther, for holiness, gave himself up in the convent to watchings, fastings, macerations, and all the works of man's invention. But in the end he abandoned all hope of attaining the object of his pursuit. He left off study and applied himself only to manual labours. Sometimes he bound books, sometimes he wrought as a turner, or at some other mechanical occupation. This activity of body was unavailing, however, to quiet his troubled conscience. God had spoken to him; he could not relapse into his former sleep. This distress of mind lasted several years. Men sometimes imagine that the paths of the Reformers were altogether pleasant, and that when once they had rejected the burthensome observances of the Church, nothing remained but ease and delight. Such persons do not know that they only arrived at the truth by internal struggles, a thousand times more painful than the observances to which servile spirits readily submitted.

At length the year 1517 arrived—the theses of Luther were published; they ran through all lands—they arrived at the convent in which the student of Annaberg was immured. He retired with another monk, John Voit, into a corner of the cloister, that he might read them undisturbed.‡ There was indeed the truth he had learned from his father—his eyes were opened—he felt a voice within him responding to that which then resounded throughout Germany; and a rich comfort filled his heart. "I see clearly," said he, "that Martin Luther is the reaper whom I beheld in my dream, and who taught me to gather in the ripe corn." Immediately he began to profess the doctrine which Luther had proclaimed. The monks listened to him with dismay, combated his new opinions, and exclaimed against Luther and his convent. "That convent," replied Myconius, "is as the Sepulchre of our Lord; some men attempt to hinder Christ's resurrection, but they cannot succeed in their attempt." At last his superiors, seeing that they were unable to convince him, forbade him for a year and a half all intercourse beyond the walls of his convent; prohibiting him from writing or receiving letters; and threatened him with perpetual imprisonment. However, the hour of deliverance came also to him. Appointed shortly after pastor at Zwickau, he was the first who openly declared against the Papacy in the churches of Thuringia. "Then it was that I was enabled," says he, "to labour with my venerable father, Luther, in the harvest of the Gospel." Jonas has designated him a man capable of all he undertook.§

Doubtless there were other souls, besides these, to whom the theses of Luther were the signal of life. They kindled a new light in many a cell, cabin, and even palace. Whilst those who sought, in monastic seclusion, a well-supplied board, a life of indolence,

or the reverence of their fellow-men, observes Mathesius, heaped reproaches on the Reformer's name—the monks who lived in prayer, fastings, and mortifications, thanked God, when they heard the first cry of that eagle, predicted by John Huss a century before.* Even the common people, who understood but little of the theological question, and only knew that this man protested against mendicant friars and indolent monks, hailed him with shouts of joy. An extraordinary sensation was produced in Germany, by his bold propositions. But others of his contemporaries foresaw their serious consequences, and the many obstacles they would have to encounter. They loudly expressed their fears, and never rejoiced without trembling.

"I fear much," wrote Bernard Adelmann, the Excellent canon of Augsburg, to his friend, Pirckheimer, "that the worthy man will be, after all, obliged to yield to the avarice and power of the partisans of indulgences. His remonstrances have had so little effect, that the bishop of Augsburg, our primate and metropolitan,† has just ordered, in the pope's name, fresh indulgences for St. Peter's, at Rome. Let him, without losing time, seek the support of the princes; let him beware of tempting God; for one must be void of common sense not to see the imminent danger in which he stands." Adelmann rejoiced greatly when a report was current that King Henry VIII. had invited Luther to England. "He will there," thought he, "be able to teach the truth without molestation." Many there were who thus imagined that the doctrine of the Gospel needed to be supported by the power of princes. They knew not that it advances without any such power, and that often the alliance of this power hinders and weakens it.

The celebrated historian, Albert Krantz, was lying on his death-bed, at Hamburg, when the theses of Luther were brought to him. "Thou hast truth on thy side, Brother Martin!" exclaimed the dying man, "but thou wilt not succeed. Poor monk, get thee to thy cell, and cry, 'O God, have mercy on me!'"‡

An old priest of Hexter, in Westphalia, having received and read the theses in his presbytery, said, in low German, shaking his head: "Dear brother Martin, if you succeed in casting down that purgatory, and those sellers of paper, truly you will be a great man." Erbenius, who lived a hundred years later, wrote these lines under the words we have quoted:

Quid vero, nunc si viveret,
Bonus iste clericus diceret §

Not only did many of Luther's friends conceive fears from his proceeding; several expressed to him their disapproval.

The bishop of Brandenburg, grieved at seeing so important a controversy originating in his own diocese, would have wished to stifle it. He resolved to set about it with mildness. "I find," said he to Luther, by the abbot of Lenin, "nothing in the theses concerning the indulgences, at variance with the Catholic faith. I even myself condemn those imprudent proclamations; but, for the love of peace, and out of regard to your bishop, cease to write on this subject." Luther was embarrassed that so distinguished an abbot, and so great a bishop, should address him with such humility. Moved and carried away by the first impulse of his heart, he answered: "I consent; I pre-

* Cho frate Martino Luthero haveva un bellissimo ingegno, e che coteste erano invidie fratesche. (Brandelli a contemporary of Leo and a Dominican. Hist. Trag. pars 3.

† Melch. Adami Vita Myconii.

‡ Legit tunc, cum Johanne Voltio, inangulum abditus, libellos Lutheri. (Mel.)

§ Qui potuit quod voluit.

* Darvon Magister Johann. Huss geweissaget. (Math. 13.)
† Totque uxorum vir," adds he. Heumanni Documenta litt. p. 167.

‡ Frater, abi in cellam, et dic, Miserere mei. (Lindner in Luther's Leben, p. 93.)

§ What would the worthy clerk now say, if he were living in our day?

fer obedience even to the working of miracles, if that were possible to me.”*

The elector saw with regret the commencement of a contest, legitimate, doubtless, but one of which the result could not be foreseen. No prince more sincerely desired to maintain the public peace than Frederick. Yet, now, what a vast conflagration might not this little fire kindle! what great contentions, what rending asunder of the nations, might this quarrel with the monks produce! The elector sent Luther repeated intimations of his uneasiness on the subject.†

In his own order, and even in his convent of Wittenberg, Luther met with disapprobation. The prior and the sub-prior were frightened at the outcry made by Tetzel and all his companions. They went to brother Martin's cell, alarmed and trembling; “Pray,” said they, “do not bring disgrace upon your order! The other orders, and especially the Dominicans, are already transported with joy, to think that they are not alone in their obloquy.” Luther was affected by these words; but, soon recovering himself, he answered: “Dear fathers! if the thing is not of God, it will come to nought; if it is, let it go forward.” The prior and the sub-prior were silent. “The thing is going forward still,” adds Luther, after having related this circumstance, “and, if it please God, it will go on better and better to the end.—Amen!”‡

Luther had many other attacks, of a very different kind, to endure. At Erfurth he was accused of violence and pride, in the manner in which he condemned the opinions of others; a reproach to which those persons are generally exposed, who have that strength of conviction which is produced by the word of God. He was reproached with haste and with levity.

“They require modesty in me,” replied Luther, “and they themselves trample it under foot in the judgment they pass on me! We behold the mote in another's eye, and consider not the beam that is in our own eye. The truth will gain no more by my modesty than it will lose by my rashness.—I should like to know,” continued he, addressing himself to Lange, “what errors you and your divines have found in my theses? Who does not know that we can seldom advance a new idea without an appearance of pride, and without being accused of seeking quarrels! If humility herself attempted anything new, those of a different opinion would exclaim that she was proud.§ Why were Christ and all the martyrs put to death! Because they appeared proud despisers of the wisdom of the times in which they lived, and because they brought forward new truths, without having first humbly consulted the oracles of the old opinions.

“Let not the wise men of the present day, therefore, expect from me so much humility, or, rather, hypocrisy, as to ask their judgment, before I publish that which my duty calls upon me to proclaim. What I am doing will not be effected by the prudence of man, but by the counsel of God. If the work is of God, who shall stop it!—If it is not, who can forward it? Not my will, not theirs, nor ours, but Thy will, thine, holy Father, who art in heaven!”

What boldness, what noble enthusiasm, what trust in God! And especially what truth in these words; and what truth for all times!

However, the reproaches and accusations, which were brought against Luther from all sides, did not fail to make some impression upon his mind. He was

deceived in his expectations. He had expected to see the heads of the church, the most distinguished philosophers of the nation, publicly join him; but it was quite otherwise. A word of encouragement, hastily bestowed at the outset, was all that the more favourably disposed afforded him; and many of those whom he had regarded with most veneration, were loud in their condemnation of him. He felt himself alone in the church; alone against Rome; alone at the foot of that ancient and formidable citadel, whose foundations reached to the bowels of the earth, and whose walls, ascending to the skies, appeared to deride the presumptuous stroke which his hand had aimed against them.* He was disturbed and dejected at the thought. Doubts, which he thought he had overcome, returned to his mind with fresh force. He trembled to think that he had the whole authority of the church against him. To withdraw himself from that authority, to resist that voice which nations and ages had humbly obeyed, to set himself in opposition to that church which he had been accustomed from his infancy to revere as the mother of the faithful; he, a despicable monk,—it was an effort beyond human power.† No one step cost him so much as this, and it was, in fact, this that decided the fate of the Reformation.

No one can describe better than himself, the struggle he then suffered in his mind. “I began this affair,” said he, “with great fear and trembling. What was I at that time? a poor, wretched, contemptible friar, more like a corpse than a man.‡ Who was I, to oppose the pope's majesty, before which, not only the kings of the earth and the whole world trembled, but, also, if I may so speak, heaven and hell were constrained to obey the slightest intimation of his will! No one can know what I suffered those first two years, and in what dejection, I might say, in what despair, I was often plunged. Those proud spirits, who afterward attacked the pope with such boldness, can form no idea of my sufferings; though, with all their skill, they could have done him no injury, if Christ had not inflicted upon him, through me, his weak and unworthy instrument, a wound from which he will never recover. But whilst they were satisfied to look on, and leave me to face the danger alone, I was not so happy, so calm, or so sure of success; for I did not then know many things which now, thanks be to God, I do know. There were, it is true, many pious Christians, who were much pleased with my propositions, and thought highly of them. But I was not able to recognise these, or look upon them as inspired by the Holy Ghost; I only looked to the pope, the cardinals, the bishops, the theologians, the jurisconsults, the monks, the priests: It was from thence that I expected the spirit to breathe. However, after having triumphed, by means of the Scriptures, over all opposing arguments, I at last overcame, by the grace of Christ, with much anguish, labour, and great difficulty, the only argument that still stopped me, namely, “that I must hear the church;”§ for, from my heart, I honoured the church of the pope as the true church; and I did so with more sincerity and veneration than those disgraceful and infamous corruptors of the church, who, to oppose me, now so much extol it. If I had despised the pope, as those persons do in their hearts, who praise him so much with their lips, I should have feared that the earth would open at that in-

* Solus primo eram. (L. Opp. lat. in præf.)

† Concilium immanis audacia plenum. (Pallav. l. i. p. 17.)

‡ Miserrimus tunc fraterculus cadaveri similior quam homini. (L. Opp. lat. l. i. p. 49.)

§ Et cum omnia argumenta superassem per Scripturas, hoc unum cum summa difficultate et angustia, tandem Christo favente, vix superavi, Ecclesiam scilicet audientiam. (L. Opp. lat. l. i. p. 49.)

* Bene sum contentus: malo obedire quam miracula facere, etiam si possem. (Epp. l. 71.)

† Summeque dolore sæpe significavi, metuens discordias majores. (Melanc. Vita Luth.)

‡ L. Opp. lat. vi. p. 518.

§ Finge enim ipsam humilitatem nova conari, statim superbie subjicietur ab iis qui aliter sapiunt. (L. Epp. l. i. p. 73.)

stant, and swallow me up alive, like Korah and his company."

How honourable are these struggles to Luther's character! what sincerity, what uprightness do they evince! and how much more worthy of our respect is he rendered by these painful assaults from within and from without, than he could have been by an intrepidity untried by conflict. This travail of his soul, is good evidence of the truth and divine nature of his work. We see that the cause and principle of all his actions was from heaven. Who will dare to say, after all the characteristics we have pointed out, that the Reformation was a political affair? No, certainly, it was not the fruit of human policy, but of divine power. If Luther had only been actuated by human passions, he would have yielded to his fears; his disappointments and misgivings would have smothered the fire that had been kindled in his soul, and he would only have shed a transient light upon the church, as had been done before, by so many zealous and pious men, whose names have been handed down to posterity. But now God's time was come; the work was not to be arrested; the enfranchisement of the church must be accomplished. Luther was destined, at least, to prepare the way for that complete deliverance, and that mighty increase, which are promised to the kingdom of Christ. Accordingly, he experienced the truth of that glorious promise: "The youths shall faint and be weary, and the young men shall utterly fail. But they that wait on the Lord shall renew their strength; they shall mount up with wings, as eagles." And the same divine power, which, animating the heart of the doctor of Wittenberg, had led him to the combat, soon restored his former courage.

The reproaches, the timidity, or the silence of his friends, had discouraged him; the attacks of his enemies reanimated him: this is usually the case. The adversaries of the truth, thinking, by their violence, to do their own work, did, in fact, the work of God.* Tetz-
zel took up the gauntlet, but with a feeble hand. The sermon of Luther, which had had the same effect upon the common people, as the theses had had upon the learned, was the first thing he undertook to answer. He replied to this discourse, sentence by sentence, in his own manner; he then gave notice that he was preparing to confute his adversary more at length, in some theses, which he would maintain at the famous university of Frankfort, upon the Oder. "Then," said he, referring to the conclusion of Luther's sermon, "every one will be able to discover who is an heresiarch, a heretic, a schismatic,—who is in error, who is rash, who is a slanderer. Then it will be evident, to the eyes of all, who has 'a gloomy brain,' who has 'never felt the Bible, read the doctrines of Christianity, and understood his own teachers;'—and, in defence of the propositions that I bring forward, I am ready to suffer any punishment whatsoever, imprisonment, bastinado, water, or fire."

One thing strikes us in this work of Tetz-
zel's. It is the difference between his German, and that of Luther. It seems as if there were a distance of several ages between them. A foreigner, especially, finds it difficult to understand Tetz-
zel; whilst the language of Luther is almost entirely such as is used at the present day. It is sufficient to compare their writings, to see that Luther is the father of the German language. This is undoubtedly one of the least of his merits, but still it is a merit.

Luther replied to this attack, without naming Tetz-
zel;—Tetz-
zel had not named him. But there was no

one in Germany who could not have written, in the front of their productions, the names which the authors thought fit to conceal. Tetz-
zel endeavoured to confound the repentance that God requires, with the penitence that the church imposes; in order to give higher value to his indulgences. Luther undertook to clear up this point.

"To avoid many words," said he, in his own picturesque language, "I give to the winds (which have more leisure than I have,) his other remarks, which are but paper flowers, and dry leaves, and I content myself with examining the foundation of his edifice of burrs."

"The penitence imposed by the holy Father, cannot be the repentance required by Christ: for what the holy Father imposes, he can dispense with; and if these two penitences are one and the same thing, it follows that the holy father takes away what Christ imposes, and destroys the commandment of God. Let him only ill-treat me," continues Luther, after having quoted other false interpretations of Tetz-
zel, "let him call me a heretic, schismatical, slanderous, and whatever he pleases; I shall not be his enemy on that account;—nay, so far from it, I will, on that account, pray for him as for a friend. But it cannot be endured that he should treat the holy Scripture, our consolation, as a sow treats a sack of oats."*

We must accustom ourselves to find Luther sometimes using expressions too coarsely vituperative for modern taste: it was the custom of the time; and we generally find in those words which shock our notions of propriety in language, a suitableness and strength which redeem their harshness. He continues:

"He who purchases indulgences," say our adversaries again, "does better than he who gives alms to a poor man, unless he be reduced to the greatest extremity. Now, if they tell us that the Turks are profaning our churches and crosses, we may hear it without shuddering, for we have among ourselves Turks a hundred times worse, who profane and annihilate the only true sanctuary, the word of God, which sanctifies all things. . . . Let him, who wishes to follow this precept, take good care not to feed the hungry, or to clothe the naked, before they die of want, and consequently have no more need of assistance."

It is important to compare Luther's zeal for good works, with what he says about justification by faith. Indeed, no one who has any experience and knowledge of Christianity, wants this new proof of a truth of which he has felt the fullest evidence; namely, that the more firmly we hold the doctrine of justification by faith, the better we know the necessity of works, and the more diligent we are in the practice of them; while, on the other hand, any laxity of the doctrine of faith, brings with it, of a necessity, a neglect of good works. Luther, St. Paul before him, and Howard after him, are proofs of the former assertion. All men without this faith—and the world is full of such—give proof of the latter.

Luther proceeds to refer to the insults of Tetz-
zel, and returns them in this fashion: "It seems to me, at the sound of these invectives, that I hear a great ass braying at me. I rejoice at it, and should be very sorry that such people should call me a good Christian." . . . We must represent Luther such as he was, and with all his weakness. This inclination to humour and even low humour, was one of them. He was a great man, a man of God; but he was a man and not an angel, nor even a perfect man. Who has the right to require this in him?

"Furthermore," adds he, defying and challenging

* Hi furores Tetzelii et ejus satellitem imponunt necessitatem Luthero de rebus iisdem copiosius disserendi et tuenda veritatibus. (Melancth. Vita Luth.)

* Das er die Schrift, unsern Trost, nicht anders behandelt wie die Sau sinen Habersack.

his adversaries to combat, "although for such things it is not the custom to burn heretics, here am I, at Wittenberg, I, Doctor Martin Luther! and if there is any inquisitor who wishes to chew iron, or blow up rocks, I give him notice that he may have a safe-conduct hither, open gates, a good table, and a lodging prepared for him, all through the gracious care of the worthy prince, Duke Frederic, Elector of Saxony, who will never be the protector of heretics."*

We see that Luther was not wanting in courage. He trusted in the word of God, and that is a rock that never fails to shelter us in the storm. But God in his faithfulness also afforded him other assistance. To the bursts of joy with which the multitude received the theses of Luther, had succeeded a mournful silence. The learned had timidly withdrawn when they heard the calumnies and insults of Tetzl, and of the Dominicans. The bishops, who had before loudly blamed the abuse of the indulgences, seeing them at last attacked, had not failed, as is always the case, to discover that the attack was unseasonable. The greater part of the Reformer's friends were alarmed. Every one shrunk back. But when the first alarm was over, a change took place in the minds of men. The monk of Wittenberg, who, for some time, had been almost alone in the Church, soon saw himself again surrounded by a multitude of friends and admirers.

There was one who, though timid, still remained faithful to him at this crisis, and whose friendship was a consolation and support. This was Spalatin. Their correspondence had been kept up. "I return you thanks," he says to him, speaking of a special mark of friendship he had received from him, "but what do I not owe you?"† It was on the 11th of November, 1517, eleven days after the publication of the theses, and consequently at the moment when the minds of the people were in the greatest ferment, that Luther thus poured forth his gratitude to his friend. It is interesting to see in this very letter to Spalatin, how this strong man, who had just performed an action requiring so much courage, acknowledges whence his strength is derived. "We can do nothing of ourselves; we can do all things by the grace of God. Ignorance in any measure is altogether beyond our power to overcome. There is no ignorance so dark but the grace of God can dispel it. The more we labour by our own strength to attain wisdom, the more infatuated we become.‡ And it is not true that this invincible ignorance excuses the sinner, for otherwise there is no such thing as sin in the world."

Luther had sent his propositions neither to the prince nor to any of his courtiers. It appears that the chaplain expressed some surprise at this. "I did not wish," answered Luther, "that my theses should reach the hands of our illustrious prince, or any of his circle, before those who think they are therein referred to had received them, lest they should suppose that I published them by the prince's direction, or to court his favour, and out of ill will to the bishop of Mentz. I am told there are several who fancy this—but now I can safely affirm, that my theses were published without the privy of Duke Frederic."§

If Spalatin comforted his friend, and supported him with all his influence, Luther, on his part endeavoured to answer all the enquiries addressed to him by the diffident chaplain. Among his questions was one

which is often proposed in our day. "What," asked he, "is the best method of studying the Scriptures?"

"Hitherto," answered Luther, "worthy Spalatin, you have asked only things I was able to answer. But to guide you in the study of the Holy Scripture is beyond my strength. However, if you insist on knowing my method I will not conceal it from you.

"It is most plain we cannot attain to the understanding of Scripture either by study or by strength of intellect. Therefore your first duty must be to begin with prayer.* Entreat the Lord to deign to grant you, in his rich mercy, rightly to understand his word. There is no other interpreter of the word of God but the author of that word himself; even as He has said, 'They shall all be taught of God.'† Hope nothing from your study, or the strength of your intellect; but simply put your trust in God, and in the guidance of his Spirit. Believe one who has made trial of this method."‡ Here we see how Luther attained to the possession of the truth which he preached to others. It was not, as some have said, by following the guidance of his own presumptuous reason; nor was it, as others assert, by surrendering himself to the contentious passions. He drew from the purest and holiest spring, by humble, trusting, and prayerful enquiry of God himself. But then, there are few men of this age who follow his example; and hence it is that there are few who understand him. To a thoughtful mind these words of Luther are of themselves a justification of the Reformation.

Luther also found consolation in the friendship of respectable laymen. Christopher Scheurl, the worthy town-clerk of the imperial city of Nuremberg, at this time afforded him some affecting marks of his regard.† How sweet to the heart of a man encompassed with adversaries is every intimation of interest felt in his success! The town-clerk of Nuremberg went further; he wished to bring over other friends to the man he himself befriended. He proposed to him that he should dedicate one of his writings to Jerome Ebner, a juriconsult of Nuremberg, who was then in great repute. "You have a high notion of my labours," answered Luther, modestly; "but I myself have a very poor opinion of them. It was my wish, however, to comply with your desire. I looked—but among all my papers, which I never before thought so meanly of, I could find nothing but what seemed totally unworthy of being dedicated to so distinguished a person by so humble an individual as myself."‡ Touching humility! The words are those of Luther—and he is speaking of the comparatively unknown name of Doctor Ebner! Posterity has not ratified his estimate.

Luther, who made no attempt to circulate his theses, had not only abstained from sending them to the Elector and his court, but had not even sent them to Scheurl. The town-clerk of Nuremberg expressed some surprise at this. "My design," answered Luther, "was not to make them so public. I wished to discuss the various points comprised in them with some of our associates and neighbours.§ If they had condemned them, I would have destroyed them; if they had approved them, I would have published them. But now they have been printed again and again, and circulated

* Primum id certissimum est, sacras litteras non posse vel studio, vel ingenio penetrari. Ideo primum officium est ut ab oratione incipias.

† Igiture de tuo studio desperes oportet omnino, simul et ingenio. Deo autem soli confidas et influxui spiritû. Experito crede ista. (L. Epp. i. p. 88. 13. Jan.)

‡ "Litteræ tuæ," wrote Luther to him, on the 11th of December, 1517, "animum tuum erga meam parvitatem candidum et longè ultra merita benevolentissimum probaverunt." (L. Epp. i. p. 79.)

§ Non fuit consilium neque votum eas evulgari, sed cum paucis apud et circum nos habitantibus primum super ipsis conferri. (L. Epp. i. p. 95.)

* L. Opp. Leips. xvii. 139.

† Tibi gratias ago: imò quid tibi non de beo? (L. Epp. i. p. 74.)

‡ Quanto magis conamur ex nobis ad sapientiam, tanto amplius appropinquamus insipientiis. (L. Epp. i. p. 74.)

§ Sed saluum est nunc etiam jurare, quod sine scitu ducis Frederici exierint. (Ibid. p. 76.)

so far beyond all my expectations, that I regret the production of them;* not that I fear the truth being made known to the people, for that is my object; but they are not in the best form for general instruction. They contain some points, too, which are still questionable in my own judgment. And if I had thought they would have made such an impression, there are propositions that I would have left out, and others that I would have asserted with greater confidence." Luther afterward thought differently. Far from fearing that he had said too much, he declared he ought to have spoken out much more fully. But the apprehensions that Luther evinced to Scheurl do honour to his sincerity. They shew that he had no preconceived plan, or party purpose; that he was free from self-conceit, and was seeking the truth alone. When he had discovered it in its fulness, his language was changed. "You will find in my earlier writings," said he, many years afterward, "that I very humbly conceded to the Pope many and important things which I now abhor and regard as abominable and blasphemous."†

Scheurl was not the only layman of consideration who then manifested a friendly disposition toward Luther. The famous painter, Albert Durer, sent him a present, probably one of his productions, and the Doctor expressed his gratitude for the gift.‡

Thus Luther, at that time, experienced in his own person the truth of the divine word: "A friend loveth at all times; and a brother is born for adversity." But he recalled the passage for comfort to others as well as to himself.

He pleaded for the entire nation. The Elector had just levied a tax, and it was affirmed that he was about to levy another, in accordance, probably, with the advice of Pfeffinger, his counsellor, whose conduct was often the subject of Luther's strictures. The Doctor boldly placed himself in the breach. "Let not your Highness," said he, "despise the prayer of a poor friar. I beseech you, in God's name, not to impose any further tax. I was heart-broken—and so were many of those who are most devoted to you—at seeing to what a degree the last had injured your Highness's fair name and popularity. It is true that God has endowed you with a lofty judgment, so that you see further into the consequences of these things than I or your subjects in general. But it may be the will of God that a meaner capacity shall minister instruction to a greater—to the end that no one may trust in himself, but simply in the Lord our God. May he deign, for our good, to preserve your body in health, and your soul for everlasting blessedness. Amen." Thus the Gospel, while it honours kings, pleads the cause of the people. It instructs subjects in their duties, and it calls upon princes to be regardless of their subjects' rights. The voice of such a Christian man as Luther, speaking in the secret chamber of a sovereign, may often do more than can be effected by a whole assembly of legislators.

In this same letter, in which Luther inculcated a stern lesson to his prince, he was not afraid to ask a boon of him, or rather to remind him of a promise—the promise he had made him of a new gown. This freedom on Luther's part, at a moment when he might fear he had offended Frederic, is equally honourable to the Prince and the Reformer. "But if," said he, "Pfeffinger has the charge of these matters, let him give it me in reality, and not in protestations of friendship. For as to weaving fine words together, it is what he excels in; but no good cloth comes of that." Luther thought that by his faithful counsels he had

fairly earned his court garment.* However, two years after he had not received it, and his solicitation was renewed.† A fact which seems to shew that Frederic was not so easily wrought upon by Luther as has been supposed.

The minds of men had gradually recovered from the alarm that had at first been communicated to them. Luther himself was inclined to declare that his words did not bear the construction that had been put upon them. New events might have diverted public attention; and the blow aimed against the Romish doctrine might have spent itself in the air, as had often been the case before. But the partisans of Rome prevented the affair from ending thus. They fanned the flame instead of extinguishing it.

Tetzel and the Dominicans haughtily replied to the attack made upon them. Eager to crush the audacious monk who had disturbed their traffic, and to conciliate the favour of the Roman Pontiff, they raised a shout of indignation—affirmed, that to attack the indulgences established by the Pope, was to attack the pope himself; and summoned to their assistance, all the monks and divines of their school.‡ It is evident, indeed, that Tetzel was conscious of his own inability to cope with such an adversary as Luther. Quite disconcerted by the Doctor's attack, and irritated in the highest degree, he quitted the neighbourhood of Wittemberg, and went to Frankfort on the Oder, where he arrived in November, 1517. Conrad Wimpina, a man of great eloquence, and one of the most distinguished divines of the time, was one of the professors in the university of that city. Wimpina regarded, with a jealous eye, both the Doctor of Wittemberg, and the University to which he belonged. The reputation enjoyed by both gave him umbrage. Tetzel requested him to answer the theses of Luther, and Wimpina accordingly wrote two series of antitheses, the first in defence of the doctrine of indulgences, and the second of the Papal authority.

On the 20th January, 1518, took place that disputation which had been so long preparing, which had been announced so ostentatiously, and on which Tetzel built his hopes. Loudly had he beat to arms. Monks had been gathering together from all the neighbouring cloisters. More than three hundred were now assembled. Tetzel read to them his theses. In these he repeated all that he had advanced before, even the declaration that—"Whosoever shall say the soul does not take its flight from purgatory, immediately that the money is dropped into the chest, is in error."§

But, above all, he put forward propositions by which the pope seemed actually "seated," as the apostle expresses it, "in the temple of God, showing himself to be God." This shameless dealer in counterfeit wares, found it convenient to retreat, with all his disorders and scandals, under the cover of the pope's mantle.

The following are positions which he declared himself ready to defend, in presence of the numerous assembly that surrounded him:

"3. Christians should be taught that the pope, in the plenitude of his power, is higher than the universal church, and superior to councils; and that entire submission is due to his decrees.

"4. Christians should be taught that the pope alone has the right to decide in questions of Christian doctrine; that he alone, and no other, has power to explain, according to his judgment, the sense of Holy

* Mein Hof 'kleid verdienien. (Epp. L. i. 77, 79.)

† Epp. L. i. p. 293.

‡ Sum senatum convocet; monachos aliquot et theologos suis sophisticis utcumque tinctos. (Melancthi. Vita Luth. 106.)

§ Quisquis ergo dicit, non citius posse animam volare quam in fundo cistæ denarius possit tinnire, errat.—(Positiones fratris Joh. Tetzelii, Pos. 66. L. Opp. i. p. 94.)

* Ut me penitentem hujus festuræ. (Ibid.)

† Quæ istis temporibus pro summâ blasphemâ et abominatone habeo et execor. (L. Opp. Lat. Witt. in præf.)

‡ Accepi . . . simul et donum insignis viri Alberti Durer. (L. Epp. i. p. 95.)

Scripture, and to approve or condemn the words and works of others.

"5. Christians should be taught that the judgment of the pope, in things pertaining to Christian doctrine, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, can in no case err.

"6. Christians should be taught that they should place more dependance in matters of faith on the pope's judgment, expressed in his decrees, than of the unanimous opinion of all the learned, resting merely upon their interpretation of Scripture.

"8. Christians should be taught that they who conspire against the honour or dignity of the pope, incur the guilt of treason, and deserve to be accursed.

"17. Christians should be taught that there are many things which the church regards as certain articles of the Catholic faith, although they are not found either in the inspired Scriptures, or in the early Fathers.

"44. Christians should be taught to regard as obstinate heretics, all who by speech, action, or writing, declare, that they would not retract their heretical propositions, though excommunication after excommunication should be showered upon them like hail.

"48. Christians should be taught that they who protect the errors of heretics, and who, by their authority, hinder them from being brought before the judge, who has a right to hear them, are excommunicate; and that if, within the space of one year, they cease not from doing so, they will be declared infamous, and severely visited with punishment, conformable to the provisions of the law, and for the warning of others.*

"50. Christians should be taught that they who scribble so many books and tracts,—who preach, or publicly, and with evil intention, dispute about the confession of the lips, the satisfaction of works, the rich and large indulgences of the bishop of Rome, and his power—they who side with those who preach or write such things, and take pleasure in their writings, and circulate them among the people and in society; and, finally, all they who, in secret, speak of these things with contempt or irreverence, must expect to fall under the penalties before recited, and to plunge themselves, and others along with them, into eternal condemnation at the great day, and the deepest disgrace in this present world. For every beast that toucheth the mountain shall be stoned."

We perceive that Luther was not the only object of Tetzel's attack. In his 48th thesis he probably had an eye to the elector of Saxony. In other respects, these propositions savoured strongly of the Dominican. To threaten all opposition with rigorous chastisements, was an inquisitor's argument, which there was no way of answering. Three hundred monks, whom Tetzel had assembled, were full of admiration at all that he had said. The divines of the university were too fearful of being classed among the promoters of heresy, and too much attached to the principles of Wimpina, openly to attack the astounding theses which had been read in their presence.

This affair, therefore, about which there had been so much noise, seemed likely to end like a mock-fight; but among the crowd of students present at the discussion was a young man, about twenty years of age, named John Knipstrow. He had read the theses of Luther, and found them agreeable to the Scriptures. Indignant at seeing the truth publicly trampled under foot, without any one offering himself in its defence, the young man raised his voice, to the great surprise of the whole assembly, and attacked the presumptuous

Tetzel. The poor Dominican, who had not reckoned on any such opposition, was thrown into dismay. After some attempts at an answer, he abandoned the field of battle, and made room for Wimpina. The latter defended his cause with more vigour; but Knipstrow pressed him so hard that, to put an end to the untoward contest, Wimpina, in his capacity of president, declared the discussion terminated, and proceeded, at once, to the promoting of Tetzel to the rank of Doctor, as the recompense of this glorious dispute. After this, Wimpina, to get rid of his young antagonist, caused him to be sent to the convent of Pyritz, in Pomerania, with directions that he should be strictly watched. But this newly-risen luminary, removed from the banks of the Oder, was destined, at a later period, to diffuse the light over Pomerania.* God, when he sees fit, employs the disciple to confound the master.

Tetzel, desirous to make up for the check he had met with, had recourse to the *ultima ratio* of Rome and its inquisitors,—the fire. He set up a pulpit and a scaffold in one of the suburbs of Frankfort. He went thither in solemn procession, arrayed in the insignia of an inquisitor of the faith. He inveighed in his most furious manner from the pulpit. He hurled his thunders with an unsparring hand, and loudly exclaimed, that "the heretic, Luther, ought to be burned alive." Then, placing the doctor's propositions and sermon on the scaffold, he set fire to them.† He showed greater dexterity in this operation than he had displayed in defending his theses. Here there was none to oppose him, and his victory was complete. The arrogant Dominican re-entered Frankfort in triumph. When parties accustomed to power have sustained defeat, they have recourse to certain shows and semblances, which must be allowed them, as a consolation for their disgrace.

The second theses of Luther mark an important epoch in the Reformation. They changed the ground of the dispute, transferring it from the indulgence-market to the halls of the Vatican,—and diverted the attack from Tetzel, to direct it against the pope. For the contemptible trafficker, whom Luther had assailed and held powerless in his grasp, they substituted the sacred person of the head of the church. Luther was all astonishment at this. A little later, probably, he would, of his own accord, have taken up this new position; but his enemies spared him the trouble. Thenceforward, the dispute had reference, not merely to a discredited traffic, but to Rome itself; and the blow that a bold hand had aimed against Tetzel's stall, smote, and shook to its foundation, the throne of the pontifical king.

The theses of Tetzel served, moreover, only as a signal to the troop of Romish doctors. A shout was raised against Luther by the monks, enraged at the appearance of an adversary more formidable even than Erasmus or Reuchlin. The name of Luther resounded from all the Dominican pulpits. They stirred up the passions of the people; they called the intrepid doctor a madman, a seducer, a wretch, possessed by the devil. His teaching was decried as the most horrible of heresies. "Only wait," said they, "a fortnight, or, at most, a month, and that notorious heretic will be burned alive." Had it depended on the Dominicans, indeed, the Saxon doctor would soon have met the fate of Huss and of Jerome. But God was watching over him. His life was destined to accomplish what the martyrdom of Huss had begun. For each indivi-

* Spieker, Gesch. D. M. Luthers.—Beckmanni Notitia. univ. Francofurt, 8, &c.

† Fulmina in Lutherum torquet: vociferatur ubique hunc hæreticum igni pendendum esse; propositiones etiam Lutheri et concionem de indulgentiis publicè conjicit in flammam. (Melancthon. Vita Luth.)

* Pro infamibus sunt tenendi, qui etiam per juris capita terribiliter multis plectentor penis in omnium hominum terrorem. (Positiones fratris Joh. Tetzelii. 66. L. Opp. i. p. 98.)

dual serves the purposes of God ; one by his life, another by his death. Already many exclaimed that the whole university of Wittemberg was tainted with heresy, and they pronounced it infamous.* "Let us drive out the wretch, and all his partisans!" said they. And in many cases these clamours did, in fact, excite the passions of the people. Those who shared in the opinions of the reformer, were pointed out to public observation, and wherever the monks had power in their hands, the friends of the Gospel felt the effects of their hatred. Thus, the prophecy of our Saviour began to be fulfilled : "They shall revile you, and persecute you, and say all manner of evil against you falsely, for my sake."† This recompense of the world, is in no age withheld from the decided disciples of the Gospel.

When Luther heard of the theses of Tetzel, and of the general attack of which they had given the signal, his courage rose. He saw that it was necessary to face such adversaries boldly ; his intrepid spirit felt no difficulty in resolving to do so. But, at the same time, their weakness discovered to him his own strength, and inspired him with the consciousness of what, in reality, he was.

He did not, however, give way to those emotions of pride which are so congenial to man's heart. "I have more difficulty," wrote he to Spalatin, at this time, "to refrain from despising my adversaries, and so sinning against Christ, than I should have in vanquishing them. They are so ignorant, both of human and divine things, that it is humbling to have to dispute with them ; and yet, it is this very ignorance which gives them their inconceivable boldness, and their brazen front."‡

But what, above all, strengthened his heart, in the midst of this general hostility, was the deep conviction that his cause was the cause of truth. "Do not wonder," he wrote to Spalatin, in the beginning of 1518, "that they revile me so unsparingly. I hear their revilings with joy. If they did not curse me, we could not be so firmly assured that the cause I have undertaken is that of God himself.‡ Christ was set for a sign that should be spoken against." "I know," said he, another time, "that from the beginning, the Word of God has been such, as that whosoever would carry it into the world, must, like the apostles, leave everything, and be delivered unto death. If it were not so, it would not be the word of Christ."§ This peace, in the midst of agitation, is a thing unknown to the heroes of the world. We see men at the head of a government—of a political party—sink under their labours and trials. The Christian generally gathers new strength in conflict. It is because he is acquainted with a hidden source of refreshment and courage, unknown to him whose eyes are closed against the Gospel.

One thing, however, at times disturbed Luther : it was the thought of the dissensions his courageous resistance might give rise to. He knew that a word might be enough to set the world in a flame. He at times foresaw prince opposing prince ; nation, perhaps, set against nation ; his love for his country took alarm ; his Christian charity recoiled from the prospect. He would gladly have secured peace ; yet it behoved him to speak. It was the Lord's will. "I tremble," said he, "I shudder at the thought, that I may be an occasion of discord to such mighty princes."||

* *Eo forunt usque ut universitatem Wittenbergensem propter me infamem conatur facere et hereticam.* (L. Epp. i. p. 92.)

† *Epp. Luth. i. p. 62.*

‡ *Nisi Maledicerem non crederem ex Deo esse quæ tracto.* (L. Epp. i. p. 86.)

§ *Morte emptum est (verbum Dei), continetur he, in deeply energetic language, "mortibus vulgatum, mortibus servatum, mortibus quoque servandum aut referendum est."*

|| *Inter tantos principes dissidii origo esse valde horreo et timo.* (L. Epp. i. p. 93.)

He still kept silence in regard to Tetzel's propositions concerning the pope ; had he been carried away by passion, doubtless he would have fallen with impetuosity upon that astounding doctrine, under which his adversary took shelter and concealment for himself. But he did nothing of the kind. There is, in his delay, reserve and silence, a something grave and solemn, which sufficiently reveals the spirit that animated him. He paused, yet not from weakness ; for the blow was but the heavier, when at length it fell.

Tetzel, after his auto-da-fé at Frankfort on the Oder, had hastened to send his theses into Saxony. They will serve thought he, as an antidote to those of Luther. A man was despatched by the inquisitor from Alle to distribute his propositions at Wittemberg. The students of that university, indignant that Tetzel should have burned the theses of their master, no sooner heard of the arrival of his messenger than they surrounded him in troops inquiring in threatening tones how he had dared to bring such things thither. Some of them purchased a portion of the copies he had brought with him ; others seized on the remainder ; thus getting possession of his whole stock, which amounted to eight hundred copies ; then, unknown* to the Elector, the senate, the rector, Luther, and all the professors, the students of Wittemberg posted bills on the gates of the university, bearing these words : "Whosoever desires to be present at the burning and obsequies of the theses of Tetzel, let him repair at two o'clock to the market place."

They assembled in crowds at the hour appointed ; and, amid the acclamations of the multitude, committed the propositions of the Dominican to the flames. One copy was saved from the fire. Luther afterward sent it to his friend Lange, of Erfurth. The young students acted on the precept of them of old time, "an eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth," and not on that of Christ. But when doctors and professors had set such an example at Frankfort, can we wonder that young students should follow it at Wittemberg ? The report of this academic execution spreads through Germany, and made much noise.† Luther was deeply grieved at it.

"I am surprised," wrote he, to his old master, Jodocus, at Erfurth, "that you could think I had anything to do with the burning of Tetzel's theses. Do you think I have utterly lost my senses ! But what can I do ? When the tale is told of me, anything, and from every quarter, gains implicit belief.‡ Can I tie up men's tongues ! No matter ! let them tell, and hear, and see, and report whatever they please, I will go on as long as the Lord shall give me strength ; and, with God's help, I will fear nothing." "What will come of it," said he to Lange, "I know not ; this only I know, that the peril in which I stand is greatly enhanced by the act."§ This occurrence shows how the hearts of the young were already kindled in the cause of which Luther was the champion. It was a sign of high import ; for a movement once begun among the young, is necessarily soon communicated to the entire generation.

The theses of Tetzel and of Wimpina, though slightly esteemed, produced a certain effect. They opened out the questions in dispute ; they enlarged the rent in the mantle of the church ; they brought new questions of thrilling interest into the field of controversy. Consequently, the heads of the church began to take a nearer view of the debate, and to declare themselves strongly against the Reformer. "I know

* *Hæc inscie principe, senatu, rectore, denique omnibus nobis.* (L. Epp. i. p. 90.)

† *Fit ex ea re ingens undique fabula.* (L. Epp. i. p. 99.)

‡ *Omnem omnibus omnia credunt de me.* (Ibid.)

§ *L. Epp. i. p. 98.*

not, truly, on whose protection Luther can rely," said the Bishop of Brandenburg, "that he ventures in this way to attack the authority of the bishops." Perceiving that this new conjecture called for new precautions, the Bishop came himself to Wittemberg. But he found Luther animated by that inward joy which springs from a good conscience, and determined to give battle. The Bishop felt that the monk was obeying a power higher than his own, and returned in an angry mood to Brandenburg. One day, (before the close of the winter of 1518), while seated at his fireside, he said, turning to those who surrounded him, "I will not lay my head down in peace until I have cast Martin into the fire like this faggot;" and, as he spoke, he cast the faggot on the blazing hearth. The revolution of the sixteenth century was to be no more indebted for support to the heads of the Church than that of the first century had been to the sanhedrim and the synagogue. The dignified priesthood was again, in the sixteenth century, opposed to Luther, the Reformation, and its ministers, as it had formerly been to Jesus Christ, the Gospel, and his Apostles, and as it too often is, in all periods, to the truth. "The Bishops," says Luther, speaking of the visit of the prelate of Brandenburg, "begin to see that they should have done what I am doing, and they are ashamed. They call me arrogant and audacious; and I do not deny that I am so. But they are not the people to know either what God is, or what we are."^{*}

A more formidable resistance than that which Tetzel had offered had now sprung up against Luther. Rome had answered him. A reply had gone forth from the walls of the sacred palace. It was not Leo X., however, who condescended to meddle with theology. "A squabble among the monks!" said he: "the best way is to take no notice of it." And, on another occasion, he observed: "It is a drunken German† that has written these theses; when he is sober, he will talk very differently." A Dominican of Rome, Sylvester Prierias, master of the pontifical palace, filled the office of censor. In that capacity he was the first to take cognizance of the theses published by the Saxon monk.

A Roman censor, and the theses of Luther! how remarkable the encounter! Freedom of speech, freedom of enquiry, and freedom of religious belief, had now to maintain a conflict, within the very gates of Rome, against the power that claims to hold in its hands the monopoly of spiritual knowledge, and at its own will to suppress the voice of Christian truth or allow its utterance. The struggle between that Christian liberty which stamps men the children of God, and the pontifical despotism which makes them the slaves of Rome, is symbolized, as it were in the very beginning of the Reformation, by the encounter of Luther and Prierias.

This Roman censor, this prior-general of the Dominicans, this dignitary, whose office empowered him to determine what doctrines Christian men should profess, and on what points they should be silent, was eager to reply. He published a writing which he dedicated to Leo X., and in which he spoke contemptuously of the German monk, and declared, with an assurance altogether Roman, that he should like to know whether that Martin had indeed an iron snout, and a head of brass, which it was impossible to shatter.‡ Then, under the form of a dialogue, he proceeded to attack Luther's theses, employing by turns ridicule, reviling, and threats.

The contest, between the Augustine of Wittemberg,

and the Dominican of Rome, was waged on the question which is in itself the principle of the Reformation; namely, what is the sole infallible authority for Christians? Take the system of the Church, as set forth by its most independent organs.*

The letter of the written word is dead, without that spirit of interpretation, which alone reveals its hidden meaning. But this spirit is not given to every Christian, but to the Church, that is, to the priests. It is great presumption to affirm that He, who promised to the Church to be with her always, even to the end of the world, could have abandoned her to the power of error. It will be said, perhaps, that the doctrine and constitution of the Church are not now such as we find them in the Holy Scriptures. Undoubtedly; but this change is only apparent, it extends only to the form, and not to the substance. Nay, more—this change is a progression. The life-giving power of the Divine Spirit has imparted reality to what, in Scripture, existed only in idea. To the outline of the word it has given a body, put a finishing touch to its rough draught, and completed the work of which the Bible had merely furnished the rudiments. Consequently, we must understand the meaning of Holy Scripture, as it has been determined by the Church, under the guidance of the Holy Spirit. So far the Catholic doctors were agreed: at this point they were divided—General Councils, said some (and Gerson was of their number), are the representatives of the Church. Others said, it is the Pope who is the depositary of the spirit of interpretation; and no one has the right to construe Scripture otherwise than in accordance with the decree of the Roman Pontiff. This was the tenet espoused by Prierias.

Such was the doctrine which the master of the palace opposed to the infancy of the Reformation. He advanced assertions, with respect to the power of the Church and of the Pope to which the most shameless flatterers of the court of Rome would have blushed to subscribe. The following is one of the principles laid down at the commencement of his writing: "Whosoever does not rely on the teaching of the Roman Church, and of the Roman Pontiff, as the infallible rule of faith, and as that from which Holy Scripture itself derives its obligation and authority, is an heretic."[†]

Then follows a dialogue, in which the speakers are Luther and Sylvester, and in which the latter labours to refute the Doctor's propositions. The sentiments of the Saxon monk were altogether new and strange to a Roman censor; hence Prierias shewed that he understood neither the feelings of his heart nor the principles that regulated his conduct. He estimated the teacher of the truth by the petty standard of the retainers of the Papacy. "My good Luther," says he, "were it thy fortune to receive from our Lord the Pope a good bishopric and a plenary indulgence for the rebuilding of thy church, how would thy tone be altered, and how loudly wouldst thou extol the indulgence which it now delights thee to disparage!" With all his pretensions to refinement, this Italian has frequent recourse to the grossest scurrility of language. "If it is the nature of dogs to bite," says he to Luther, "I should fear thou hadst a dog for thy father."[‡] Toward the close of his work, the Dominican even marvels at his own condescension, in parleying thus with a mutinous monk; and, in taking leave of his adversary, he shows him the cruel teeth of an inquisitor. "The Roman Church," says he, "the supremacy of whose

* Quid vel Deus vel ipsi sumus. (L. Epp. i. 234.)

† Ein voller trunkener Deutscher. (L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1337.)

‡ An ferreum nasum aut caput æneum gerat iste Lutherus, ut effringi non possit. (Sylv. Prierias Dialogus.)

* See "Joh. Gersonis Propositiones de sensu litterali S. Scripture." (Opp. tom. i.)

† A quæ etiam Sacra Scriptura, robur trahit et auctoritatem, hæreticus est. (Fundamentum tertium.)

‡ Si mordere canum est proprium, vereor ne tibi pater canis fuerit. (Sylv. Prier. Diel.)

power, spiritual and temporal, is vested in the Pope, can restrain, by the secular arm, those who, having first received the faith, afterward depart from it. The Church is under no obligation to employ argument to combat and overcome rebels.* Such words, proceeding from the pen of a dignitary of the Roman court, were deeply significant; yet they did not intimidate Luther; he believed, or affected to believe, that this dialogue was not written by Prierias, but by Ulric de Hütten, or some other contributor to the *Lettera Obscurorum Virorum*. "One of that fraternity," said he, "from the mere love of satire, or to set Luther against Prierias, has collected together this mass of absurdity."† However, after having for some time kept silence, his doubts, if he had any, were removed; he set to work, and in two days prepared his answer.‡

The Bible had decided Luther's destiny: it had moulded the Reformer, and commenced the Reformation. Luther's belief depended not on the testimony of the Church. His faith had come from the Bible itself: from within, and not from without. He was so deeply convinced that the evangelic doctrine was immovably built upon the word of God, that all external doctrine was to him superfluous. This experimental knowledge possessed by Luther, opened to the Church a new futurity. The living spring, which had gushed forth for the refreshment of the monk of Wittenberg, was to become a mighty river, that should slake the thirst of nations.

"To understand Scripture, it is necessary that the Spirit of God should open the understanding," said the Church, and thus far it said truly. But its error lay in considering the Holy Spirit as the exclusive privilege of a particular caste, and supposing that he could be pent up in assemblies and colleges, in a city, or a conclave. "The wind bloweth where it listeth," said the Son of God, when speaking of the Spirit of God, and elsewhere: "They shall be all taught of God." The corruption of the Church, the ambition of the Pontiffs, the passions of Councils, the animosities of the clergy, the pomp of the prelates, had banished far from those priestly abodes that Holy Spirit—that Spirit of humility and of peace. The Spirit of God had departed from the assemblies of the proud, and the palaces of princes of the Church, and had tabernacled with simple Christians and humble priests. He had turned from a tyrannous hierarchy, whose bloody heel again and again had trampled on the poor—from a proud and ignorant clergy, whose leaders were better skilled in the use of the sword than of the Bible—and was present with despised sectaries, or with men of understanding and learning. The holy cloud, that had withdrawn itself from the stately temple and the proud cathedral, had descended on the secluded dwellings of the humble, or the tranquil chamber of the conscientious enquirer. The Church, debased by her love of power and lucre, dishonoured before the people, by her venal perversion of the doctrine of life, the Church, busy in selling salvation, that she might replenish a treasury exhausted by her pride and debaucheries—had forfeited all respect; and men of sense no longer attached any value to her testimony. Despising an authority so degraded, they gladly turned toward the divine word, and its infallible authority, as the only refuge open to them in that universal confusion.

The age therefore was ripe. The bold movement by which Luther shifted the support of the highest hopes of man's heart—loosening them with a strong

hand from the walls of the Vatican, to fix them on the rock of the word of God, was hailed with enthusiasm. This was the object the Reformer had in view in his answer to Prierias.

Passing by the principles the Dominican had laid down at the opening of his work—"I," said he "following your example, will also lay down certain principles."

The first is this passage of St. Paul: "If any one preach unto you another Gospel than that is preached, though he should be an angel from heaven, let him be accursed."

The second is the following, from St. Augustine writing to St. Jerome: "I have learned to render to the inspired Scriptures alone the homage of a firm belief, that they have never erred; as to others, I do not believe in the things they teach, simply because it is they who teach them."

Here Luther, with a steady hand, establishes the fundamental principles of the Reformation. The word of God—the whole word of God—and nothing but the word of God. "If you rightly understand these principles," continues he, "you will also understand that your whole Dialogue is overturned by them; for you have done nothing but bring forward phrases and opinions of St. Thomas." Then, openly impugning the axioms of his adversary, he freely confesses that he thinks both Popes and Councils may err. He complains of the flatteries of the Roman courtiers, who ascribe this and that power to the pope. He declares that the Church exists virtually in Christ alone, and representatively in a General Council.* And then, alluding to the insinuation of Prierias: "Undoubtedly you judge me by yourself," said he; "but if I aspired to be made a bishop, I certainly should not use the language which you find so offensive. Do you imagine I am ignorant of the manner in which bishoprics and priest's orders are obtained at Rome? Do not the very children sing, in every street of that city, these well known words:

"Of all foul spots the wide world round,
The foulest here, in Rome, is found?"†

(Such songs had been current in Rome before the election of one of the last Popes.) Yet Luther speaks of Leo with respect. "I know," says he, "that he may be compared to Daniel in Babylon; his innocence has often endangered his life." He concludes by replying very briefly to the threatening language used by Prierias. "Lastly, you say that the Pope is both pontiff and emperor, and that he can employ the secular arm to compel obedience. Do you thirst for blood then? I protest to you that these rhodomontades and menaces of yours give me not the slightest alarm. For what if I were to lose my life? Christ still lives; Christ my Lord, and the Lord of all, blessed for ever. Amen."

Thus fearlessly did Luther, in opposition to the infidel altar of the Papacy, set up the Altar of the holy and infallible word of God; an altar, before which he would have every knee to bow, and on which he declares himself ready to offer up his life.

A new adversary now presented himself in the lists—a Dominican, like his predecessors. James Hochstraten, the inquisitor of Cologne, of whose outcries against Reuchlin, and the friends of literature, we have already spoken, could not restrain his rage when he heard of the first efforts of the hero of the Reformation. It was not to be wondered at, that monkish ignorance and fanaticism should assail the man who was to give

* *Seculari brachio potest eos compescere, nec tenetur rationibus certare ad vincendos perturbantes.* (Ibid.)

† *Convenit inter nos esse personatum aliquem Sylvestrem ex obscuris viris, qui tantas ineptias in hominem luserit ut provocandum me adversus eum.* (Epp. i. p. 87, 14 Jan.)

‡ T. i. Witt Lat. p. 170.

* *Ego ecclesiam virtualiter non scio nisi in Christo, representativè non nisi in concilio.* (L. Opp. lat. p. 174.)

† *Quando hanc facta pueri in omnibus plateis urbis cantant; Denique nunc facta est fedissima Roma.* (Ibid. p. 193.)

them the death-blow. Monachism had arisen when the primitive truth had begun to disappear. From that period monachism and error had grown up side by side. The man who was to accelerate their fall had now appeared. But his sturdy antagonists would not abandon the field. The struggle lasted to the end of Luther's life, but we regard it as epitomized in this dispute of Hochstraten and Luther; the free and courageous Christian, and the irascible slave of monkish superstitions! Hochstraten lost his temper, he gave vent to his indignation, and loudly demanded the death of the heretic. He would have had recourse to the stake to secure the triumph of Rome. "It is high treason against the Church," exclaimed he, "to suffer so horrid a heretic to live an hour longer. Away with him at once to the scaffold!" This sanguinary counsel was but too well followed in many countries, and the voices of many martyrs, as in the earlier ages of the Church, gave testimony to the truth from the midst of the flames. But in vain were fire and sword invoked against Luther. The angel of the Lord encamped around him, and defended him.

Luther answered Hochstraten in a few words but with much vigour: "Out upon thee," said he, at the close of his reply, "thou senseless murderer, thirsting for the blood of thy brethren! I sincerely desire that thou shouldst not call me Christian and faithful; but that thou shouldst continue on the contrary to deery me as an heretic. Understand me, thou blood-thirsty man! enemy to the truth! and if thy rage prompt thee to attempt my life, take care to act circumspectly, and to choose thy time well; God knows what is my purpose, if my life should be spared. . . . My hope and expectation, God willing, shall not be disappointed."* Hochstraten made no reply.

An attack, more trying to his feelings, awaited the Reformer. Doctor Eck, the celebrated professor of Ingolstadt, the deliverer of Urban Regius, the friend of Luther, had received the famous theses. Eck was not a man to defend the abuses of the indulgences; but he was a doctor of the School, not of the Bible—well versed in the scholastic divinity, but not in the word of God. If Prierias had represented Rome, and Hochstraten the monks, the new combatant represented the schools. The scholastic philosophy, which for almost five centuries held sway over Christendom, far from yielding to the earliest efforts of the Reformer, arose in its pride to crush the man who dared to treat it with contempt. Eck and Luther, Luther and the Schools, were often afterward arrayed one against the other. But it was now the contest opened.

It could hardly happen but that Eck should consider many of Luther's assertions erroneous. We have no reason to doubt the sincerity of his convictions. He was enthusiastic in defence of the scholastic opinions, whilst Luther was an equally enthusiastic adherent of the word of God. We may even imagine that Eck felt some concern at the necessity of opposing his old friend. And yet it appears, from the manner in which he assailed him, that passion and jealousy had some share in his motives.

It was under the title of *Obelisks*, that he wrote his remarks on the theses of Luther. Desiring, at first, to keep up appearances, he did not publish his work, but contented himself with communicating it, in confidence, to his ordinary, the Bishop of Eichstadt. But the obelisks were soon widely dispersed, either through the indiscretion of the bishop, or by the doctor's own act. One copy fell into the hands of Link, a preacher at Nuremberg, and a friend of Luther; by him it was communicated to Luther himself. Eck was a very different adversary from either Tetzel, Prierias,

* L. Opp. Leips. xvii. p. 140.

or Hochstraten. The more his work excelled theirs, in learning and subtlety, the more injurious was likely to be its effect. He spoke of "his feeble adversary," in a tone of compassion, well knowing that pity is more disparaging than anger. He insinuated that Luther's propositions were spreading the Bohemian poison; that they savoured of Bohemia; and, by these malignant references, drew upon Luther the odium attaching, in Germany, to the name of Huss, and the Bohemian schismatics.

The malice that was discernible in this writing, roused Luther's indignation. But he was still more grieved at the thought that the blow came from an old friend. "It was then," thought he, "at the cost of the affection of his friends, that truth must be defended." Luther unbosomed the sadness of his heart, in a letter to Egranus, pastor at Zwickau. "In these *Obelisks*," said he, "I am called 'a pestilent man,' 'a Bohemian,' 'an heretic,' and reproached as 'seditious,' 'insolent,' and 'rash.' I overlook minor reproaches, such as 'dull,' 'stupid,' 'ignorant,' 'despiser of the sovereign pontiff,' &c. Throughout, there are nothing but insults; and yet he who has written them is a distinguished man, in whom genius and learning are blended; moreover, one who was united to me by a great intimacy, recently contracted.* His name is John Eck, doctor of divinity, chancellor of Ingolstadt, &c., a man well known and highly esteemed for his writings. If I did not know the design of Satan, I should wonder at the rage which has prompted Eck to violate a friendship so delightful, and so recent, besides,† and that without giving me one word of notice."

But if Luther's heart was wounded, his courage was not abated. On the contrary, he caught fresh fire for the dispute. "Rejoice, brother," he said to Egranus, who had likewise been attacked by a violent adversary, "rejoice, and let not these paper missiles terrify you. The more furious my adversaries, the more I advance. I leave the things that are behind, for them to bark at, and I stretch forward to those that are before, that they may bark at those also in their turn."

Eck felt how disgraceful his conduct had been, and endeavoured to justify himself in a letter to Carlstadt. In it he termed Luther their "common friend." He threw all the blame on the bishop of Eichstadt, at whose solicitation, he declared, he had written his work. He had not intended to publish the *Obelisks*, he said; if it had been otherwise, he would have manifested more regard for the ties of friendship, by which he was united to Luther. Finally, he intimated a wish that, instead of engaging in a public controversy with him, Luther should turn his arms against the divines of Frankfort. The professor of Ingolstadt, who had not feared to strike the first blow, began to quail when he considered the strength of the adversary he had had the imprudence to attack. He would willingly have avoided the contest. But it was now too late.

All these fine speeches did not satisfy Luther; however, he wished to remain silent. "I will swallow patiently," he said, "this morsel, worthy of Cerberus."‡ But his friends were of a different opinion. They importuned him, and obliged him to comply. He therefore answered Eck's *Obelisks*, by his *Asterisks*, or stars; "opposing," as he said, "the light, and dazzling brightness of the stars of heaven, to the

* Et quod magis urit, antea mihi magnâ recentique contractâ amicitia conjunctus. (L. Opp. i. p. 100.)

† Quo furor ille amicitias recentissimas et jucundissimas solveret. (L. Opp. i. p. 100.)

‡ Volui tamen hanc offam Cerbero dignam absorbere patientiâ. (L. Opp. i. p. 100.)

rust and livid hue of the doctor of Ingolstadt." In this work, he treated his new adversary with less harshness than he had used toward his former opponents; but his suppressed indignation at times broke forth in his words.

He proved that, in all that chaos of obelisks, there was nothing of the *Scriptures*, nothing of the Fathers of the church, nothing of the ecclesiastical canons; but throughout, nothing but glosses of the schools; opinions, mere opinions, and dreams;* in a word, all those very things that Luther had attacked. The *Asterisks* are full of life and energy. The author is indignant at the errors in his friend's book, but he pities the man.† He again asserts the fundamental principle that he had maintained in his answer to Prierias: "The sovereign pontiff is a man, and may be led into error; but God is truth itself, and cannot err."‡ And afterward, using an argument, "*ad hominem*," against the scholastic doctor, "It is certainly an act of audacity," says he, "for any one to teach, as the philosophy of Aristotle, what he cannot prove on Aristotle's authority. You will allow this. Well, with much greater reason is it the height of audacity to affirm, in the church, and among Christians, what Christ himself has not taught.§ Now, where do we find in the Bible, that the treasure of Christ's merits is confided to the pope?"

Lastly, he adds, "As to the malicious reproach of Bohemian heresy, I bear this accusation patiently, for Christ's sake. I live in a celebrated university, a city of note, a considerable bishopric, a powerful duchy, where all are orthodox, and where, undoubtedly, they would not tolerate so wicked a heretic."

Luther did not publish the *Asterisks*, he only communicated them to his friends; it was not till afterward that they were given to the public.||

This rupture, between the doctor of Ingolstadt and the doctor of Wittemberg, caused a great sensation in Germany. They had common friends. Scheurl, especially, took alarm. It was through him that the two doctors had become acquainted. He was one of those who wished to see a reformation take place, in the universal Germanic church, and by the agency of its most distinguished members. But if, at the outset, the most eminent theologians were to fall to quarrelling; if, whilst Luther was advancing new opinions, Eck stood up as the representative of the old, what confusion was to be apprehended! Would not numerous adherents flock around each chief, and form two hostile camps in the bosom of the empire?

On these accounts, Scheurl endeavoured to reconcile Eck and Luther. The latter declared himself ready to forget everything; that he loved Eck's talents;¶ that he admired his learning; and that he felt more grief than anger at his old friend's conduct. "I am prepared," said he to Scheurl, "either for peace or war; but I prefer peace. Help us, then, by your good offices; grieve with us that the devil has kindled this beginning of discord among us; and afterward rejoice, that Christ in his mercy has extinguished it." He wrote affectionately to Eck, but the latter returned no answer.** He did not even send him any message.

* Omnia scholasticissima, opiniosissima, meraque somnia. (Ast. Opp. L. lat. i. p. 145.)

† Indignor rie et misereor hominis. (Ast. Opp. L. lat. i. 150.)
‡ Homo est summus Pontifex, falli potest. Sed veritas est Deus, qui falli non potest. (Ibid. 155.)

§ Longe ergo impudentissima omnium temeritas est, aliquid in ecclesiâ asserere, et inter Christianos, quod non docuit Christus. (Ast. Opp. L. lat. i. 156.)

¶ Cum privatim dederim Asteriscos meos, fit ei respondendi necessitas. (L. Epp. p. 126.)

¶ Diligimus hominis ingenium et admiramur orationem. (L. Epp. ad Scheurlum, 16 June, 1518, i. p. 125.)

** Nihil neque literarum neque verborum me participem fecit. (L. Epp. ad Scheurlum, 16 June, 1518, i. p. 125.)

The time for a reconciliation was past. The breach grew wider and wider. The pride of Eck, and his implacable spirit, soon broke the last ties of their declining friendship.

Such were the struggles which the champion of God's word had to maintain in the beginning of his career. But, in the estimation of a Christian, those combats are of small account, that are to be waged in the high places of this world, or in the arena of the schools. Human teachers imagine that they have obtained a splendid triumph, if some literary circles are filled with the fame of their systems. As their desire is rather to gratify their self-love, or to please a party, than to benefit mankind, this brilliant worldly success suffices them. Thus, their labours may be compared to smoke, which, after blinding the eyes, passes away without leaving any vestige behind. Neglecting to deposit their principles in the masses, they do little more than skim the surface of society.

Not so the Christian: his aim is neither a name in society, nor academical honours; but the salvation of souls. He willingly foregoes the intellectual rivalry, in which he might engage at his ease, with the disputers of this world, and prefers the secret labours which carry light and life into the sequestered dwellings of the poor. This did Luther; or rather, following his Master's precept, "he did this, and left no other things undone." While combating inquisitors, chancellors of universities, and masters of the palace, he laboured to diffuse sound religious knowledge among the multitude. With this view, he about the same time published several popular tracts, such as his sermons on the ten commandments, preached two years previously in the church of Wittemberg, and which have already been mentioned; and also his explanation of the Lord's Prayer, for the simple and unlearned laity. Who would not desire to know what the Reformer then addressed to the people? We will cite, therefore, some of the words which he put forth, "to run through the land," as he says in the preface to the last-mentioned work.

Prayer, that interior act of the heart, will undoubtedly be ever one of the points with which a true and vital reformation will commence; Luther's thought was turned to this solemn subject. It is not possible to transfuse his energetic style and the vigour of his language, which was in course of formation, so to speak, under his pen as he composed. We will, however, make some attempt.

"When thou prayest," said he, "let thy words be few, but thy thoughts and feelings many and deep. The less thou speakest, the better thy prayers. Few words and much thoughts is a Christian frame. Many words and little thought is heathenish."

"The prayer that is external and of the body, is that mumbling of the lips, outward babble—gone through without attention, and heard and seen of men; but prayer, in spirit and in truth, is the inward desire, the motions and sighs that proceed from the depth of the heart. The former is the prayer of the hypocrites, and of those who trust in themselves, the latter is the prayer of God's children, who walk in his fear."

Passing on, to the opening words of the Lord's Prayer, he thus expresses himself: *Our Father*. "Of all names, there is not one which more inclines us toward God, than the name of Father. We should feel less love, and derive less consolation, from addressing him as Lord, or God, or Judge. By that word, *Father*, his bowels of compassion are moved; for there is no sound more sweet or prevailing with a father, than the voice of his child."

He continues; and on the words, "*Who art in*

* (L. Opp. Leips. vii. p. 1086.)

heaven," he says: "Whosoever professes that he has a Father in heaven, acknowledges himself to be a stranger upon earth; hence, there is in his heart an ardent longing, like that of a child that is living among strangers, in want and grief, afar from its father-land. It is as if he said, 'Alas! my Father, thou art in heaven, and I, thy suffering child, am on earth, far from thee, encompassed with danger, wants, and mourning.'

"*Hallowed be thy name.*" "He who is passionate, abusive, envious, and slanderous, dishonors the name of God in which he has been baptized. Profaning to impious uses a vessel that God has consecrated to himself, he is like a priest who should take the holy cup and give drink to swine, or gather dung into it."

"*Thy kingdom come.*" Those who amass property and build magnificent mansions, who strive after what the world can give, and utter this prayer with their lips, resemble those huge organ pipes, which incessantly sing with all their power in the churches, without speech, feeling, or reason."

Further on, Luther attacks the error of *pilgrimages*, which was then so prevalent: "One goes to Rome, another to St. James, a third builds a chapel, and a fourth endows religious houses, in order to attain to the kingdom of God; but all neglect the one thing needful, which is to become *themselves* His kingdom! Why seek the kingdom of God beyond the seas? It is in thy heart it should arise."

"It is an awful thing," he continues, "to hear us offer this petition, 'Thy will be done.' Where in the church do we see this 'will of God?' One bishop rises up against another bishop; one church against another church. Priests, monks, and nuns quarrel, and thwart and wage war with each other, and everywhere discord prevails. And yet each party declares that there is good-will and upright intention; and so, to the honour and glory of God, they altogether do the devil's work. . . ."

"Why do we use the words, 'our bread?'" he continues, expounding these words, "*Give us this day our daily bread.*" "Because we do not pray for the common bread that heathens partake, and which God gives to all men—but for 'our' bread, the bread of those who are 'children of the heavenly Father.'"

"And what then is this bread of God? It is Jesus Christ our Lord. 'I am the bread of life which came down from heaven, and giveth life to the world.' Therefore let no one be deluded: whatever sermons and instructions do not exhibit and make known Jesus Christ, cannot be the daily bread and nourishment of souls."

"Of what use is it that such bread has been provided, if it is not served up, and so we are unable to partake of it? It is as if a noble feast were prepared, and none were ready to distribute the bread, to place the meat on the table, or fill the cups, and so the guests should be reduced to feed on the mere sight and smell. Therefore, we must preach Christ alone."

"But, say you, what is it to know Christ? and what good will come of it? I answer; to learn and know Christ, is to understand what the Apostle declares, namely: that 'Christ is made unto us of God, wisdom righteousness, sanctification, and redemption.' Now you understand that, if you acknowledge all *your* wisdom mere blameworthy foolishness, *your* righteousness a criminal iniquity, *your* holiness a guilty pollution, *your* redemption a miserable sentence of condemnation; if you feel that you are truly, before God, and before all creatures, a fool, a sinner, an impure and condemned man; if you manifest, not by word alone, but from the bottom of your heart and by your works—that there is neither salvation nor comfort for you, save only in

Christ. To believe is nothing else than *feeding on this bread from heaven.*"

Thus Luther faithfully adhered to his resolution to open the eyes of a blinded people, whom the priests were leading at their pleasure. His writings rapidly dispersed throughout Germany, called up a new light, and shed abundantly the seed of truth on a soil well prepared for it. But while attending to those who were at a distance, he did not forget those who were nigh at hand.

The Dominicans, from their pulpit, anathematized the infamous heretic. Luther—the man of the people, and who, if he had desired it, could, by a few words, have called up the popular fury against them—disdained such triumphs; and thought only of instructing his hearers.

And he did so. His reputation, which spread more and more widely, and the boldness with which he lifted the banner of Christ, in the midst of an enslaved Church, increased the eager attendance on his preaching at Wittenberg. The crowd of hearers was more considerable than ever. Luther went straight to his mark. One day, having ascended the pulpit, he undertook to prove the doctrine of repentance, and on this occasion he pronounced a discourse which became afterward very celebrated, and in which he laid down some of the grounds of the evangelical doctrine.

He first contrasted man's pardon with God's pardon. "There are," said he, "two kinds of remission: the remission of the penalty, and the remission of the sin. The first reconciles outwardly the offender with the Church. The second, which is the heavenly grace, reconciles the offender with God. If a man does not find in himself that peace of conscience, that joy of heart which springs from God's remission of sin, there is no indulgence that can help him, though he should buy all that had ever been offered upon earth."

He continues: "They wish to do good works before their sins are forgiven them—while it is indispensable that our sins be pardoned before good works can be done. It is not works which banish sin; but, drive out sin, and you will have works.* For good works must be done with a joyful heart and a good conscience toward God, that is, with *remission of sins.*"

He then comes to the chief object of this sermon, which was also the great end of the whole Reformation. The Church had put itself in the place of God and his word; he rejects her assumption, and shows everything to depend on faith in God's word.

"The remission of the sin is out of the power of pope, bishop, priest, or any man living; and rests solely on the word of Christ, and on thine own faith. For Christ did not design that our comfort, our hope, and our salvation, should be built on a word or work of man, but solely on himself, on his work, and on his word. . . . Thy repentance and thy works may deceive thee; but Christ, thy God, will not deceive thee, nor will he falter, and the devil shall not overthrow his words."†

"A pope, or a bishop, has no more power to remit sin than the humblest priest. And even without any priest, every Christian, even though a woman or a child, can do the same.‡ For if a simple believer say to thee, 'God pardon thy sin in the name of Jesus Christ,'—and thou receive that word with firm faith, and as though God himself spake it to thee—thou art absolved."

"If thou dost not believe that thy sins are forgiven thee, thou makest thy God a liar, and showest thyself

* Nicht die Werke treiben die Sünde aus; sondern die Austreibung der Sünde thut gute Werke. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 162.)

† Christus dein Gott wird dir nicht lügen, noch wanken. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 162.)

‡ Ob es schon ein Weib oder ein kind wäre. (Ibid.)

to hold more to thy vain thoughts than to God and his word."

"Under the Old Testament, neither priest, nor king, nor prophet, had authority to declare remission of sins. But under the New, every believer has this power. The Church is full of remission of sins.* If a devoted Christian should comfort thy conscience by the word of the cross, whether that Christian be a man or woman, young or old, receive that comfort with such faith as to endure death a hundred times, rather than doubt that God has ratified it. Repent; do all the works thou canst; but let *faith* in pardon through Christ, hold the first rank, and command the whole field of your warfare."†

Thus spake Luther to his surprised and delighted hearers. All the superstructures which presumptuous priests had raised for their own gain between God and the soul of man were thrown down, and man brought face to face with his God. The word of forgiveness now descended pure from on high, without passing through a thousand corrupting channels. That the witness of God should be received, it was no longer necessary that men should attach to it their delusive seal. The monopoly of the priestly cast was abolished; the Church was delivered from her thralldom.

Meanwhile it was become needful that the flame that had been lighted up in Wittenberg should be kindled elsewhere, Luther, not satisfied with proclaiming the truth of the Gospel in the place of his own abode, as well to the students as to the people, was desirous to scatter in other places the seeds of sound doctrine. In the spring of 1518, the order of the Augustines held its chapter general at Heidelberg. Luther was summoned thither as one of the most distinguished men of his order. His friends made every effort to dissuade him from undertaking this journey. In truth, the monks had laboured to make the name of Luther hated in all the places he would have to pass through. To insult they added threats. A little matter would suffice to raise a tumult on his journey, in which he might fall a victim. "Or else," said his friends, "what they dare not do by violence, they will accomplish by treachery and fraud."‡ But Luther never allowed himself to be stopped short in the performance of a duty by fear of danger, however imminent. Accordingly, he was deaf to the timid suggestions of his friends: he plainly showed in whom he put his trust, and under whose protection he was resolved to undertake this dreadful journey. Then the festival of Easter being terminated, he quietly set out on foot,§ the 13th April, 1518.

He took with him a guide, named Urban, who carried his little baggage, and was to accompany him as far as Wurtzburg. What thoughts must have crowded the heart of this servant of the Lord, during his journey! At Weissenfels, the pastor, who had no previous knowledge of him, recognised him immediately as the Doctor of Wittenberg, and received him cordially.|| At Erfurth, two other brethren of the order of the Augustines joined company with him. At Judenbach, the three travellers met Degenhard Pfeffinger, the confidential adviser of the Elector, and were entertained by him at the inn. "I had the pleasure," writes Luther to Spalatin, "of making the rich lord poorer by some *groschen*; you know how I love on all occasions to levy contributions on the rich for the advantage of the poor; especially when the rich are friends of mine."¶ He reached Coburg, overcome with fatigue. "All goes well, by God's favour," wrote he, "unless

it be that I must acknowledge myself to have sinned in undertaking this journey on foot. But for that sin I think I have no need of any *indulgence*, for my contrition is perfect, and the satisfaction plenary. I am exhausted with fatigue, and all the conveyances are full. Is not this enough, and more than enough, of penance, contrition, and satisfaction?"**

The Reformer of Germany, not finding room in the public conveyances, nor any one willing to give up his place to him, was obliged, on the following morning, notwithstanding his weariness, to set out again from Coburg, on foot. He arrived at Wurtzburg the second Sunday after Easter, toward evening. From thence he sent back his guide.

It was in this town that the Bishop of Bibra resided, who had received his theses with so much approbation. Luther was the bearer of a letter to him from the Elector of Saxony. The Bishop, delighted with the opportunity thus offered of becoming personally acquainted with this courageous champion of the truth, immediately invited him to the episcopal palace. He himself went to meet him, addressed him very affectionately, and offered to procure him a guide as far as Heidelberg. But Luther had met at Wurtzburg his two friends, the Vicar-General, Staupitz, and Lange, the Prior of Erfurth, and had been offered a seat in their carriage. He therefore thanked Bibra for his proffered kindness, and the next day the three friends set out from Wurtzburg. They travelled in this manner for three days, conversing together. On the 21st of April they reached Heidelberg. Luther alighted at the convent of the Augustines.

The Elector of Saxony had given him a letter for the Count Palatine Wolfgang, Duke of Bavaria. Luther repaired to his magnificent castle, the delightful situation of which is even at this day the admiration of strangers. The monk, a native of the plains of Saxony, had a heart capable of admiring the picturesque situation of Heidelberg, commanding the two beautiful valleys of the Rhine and the Neckar. He delivered his letter of recommendation to John Simler, the steward of the household. The latter, on reading it, observed: "Truly, you have a valuable letter of credit here."† The Count Palatine received Luther very graciously. He invited him repeatedly to his table, together with Lange and Staupitz. It was a great comfort to Luther to meet with so friendly a reception. "We were very happy together," says he, "and amused each other with agreeable and pleasant conversation, taking our repast, examining the beauties of the Palatine palace, admiring the ornaments, the armoury, cuirasses, and everything remarkable that this celebrated and truly royal castle contains."‡

But Luther had another task to perform. He must work while it was yet day. Called for a time to a university which exercised an extensive influence over the west and south of Germany, he was there to strike a blow which should put in movement the churches of those countries. He began therefore to write some theses, which he proposed to maintain in a public disputation. Such disputations were not unusual; but Luther felt that, to make this useful, it must be of a striking character. His natural disposition, moreover, prompted him to present truth in a paradoxical form. The professors of the university would not suffer the disputation to take place in their great hall. A room was, therefore, engaged in the convent of the Augustines, and the 26th of April was fixed for the discussion.

Heidelberg at a later period received the evangelical doctrine. One who was present at the conference

* Also siehst du dass die ganze Kirche voll von Vergebung der Sünden ist. (Ibid.)

† Und Hauptmann im Felde blöbe. (Ibid.)

‡ L. Epp. i. p. 98.

§ Pedester veniam. (Ibid.)

|| L. Epp. i. p. 105.

¶ L. Epp. i. p. 104.

** Ibid. 106.

† Ihn hab, bei Gott, einen köstlichen Credenz. (L. Epp. I. ii.)

‡ L. Epp. I. iii.

in the convent of the Augustines might have then foreseen, that that conference would one day bear fruit.

The reputation of Luther attracted a numerous auditory—professors, courtiers, burghers, students, came in crowds. The following are some of the Doctor's "paradoxes,"—for by that name he designated his theses. Even in our day, perhaps, some might give them no better name; yet it would be easy to render them in propositions obvious to common sense.

"1. The law of God is a salutary rule of life; and yet it cannot help man in the obtaining of righteousness; but, on the contrary, impedes him."

"3. Works of men, let them be as fair and good as they may, are yet evidently nothing but mortal sins."

"4. Works that are of God, however unsightly and evil in appearance, have yet an endless efficacy."

"7. The works of the righteous themselves would be mortal sins—if, from a holy reverence of the Lord, they did not fear that their works might indeed be mortal sins.*"

"9. To say that works done out of Christ are truly dead works—but not mortal sins—is a dangerous forgetfulness of the fear of God."

"13. Free will, since the fall of man, is but an empty word; and if man does all he can, he still sins mortally."

"16. A man who dreams he can attain to grace by doing all that is in his power, add sin to sin—and is doubly guilty."

"18. It is certain that man must altogether despair of his own ability, if he would be made capable of receiving the grace of Christ."

"21. A theologian of this world calls good—evil, and evil—good; but a teacher of the cross is a teacher of truth."

"22. The wisdom which applies itself to learn the invisible perfections of God, from his works, puffs up, blinds, and hardens men."

"23. The law calls forth God's anger: slays, accuses, judges, and condemns, whatsoever is not in Christ.†"

"24. Yet this wisdom (§. 22.) is not an evil; and the law (§. 23.) is not to be rejected; but he who learns not the wisdom of God, under the Cross, turns to evil whatever is good."

"25. That man is not justified who does many works; but he who, without having yet done works, has much faith in Christ."

"26. The law says, 'Do this,' and what it enjoins is never done; Grace says, 'Believe in him,' and immediately all is perfected.‡"

"28. The love of God finds nothing in man, but creates in him what he loves. Man's love is the gift of his well beloved.¶"

Five doctors of divinity attacked these theses. They had read them with the surprise that their novelty excited. Such theology seemed to them extravagant. They, however, entered on the discussion, as Luther tells us, with a courtesy which inspired him with much esteem for them: yet, with great earnestness and discernment. Luther, on his part, manifested unusual mildness in his mode of reply, unrivalled patience in listening to the objections of his opponents, and all the quickness of St. Paul in solving the difficulties opposed to him. His answers—short, but full of the word of God—astonished his hearers. "He is exactly like Erasmus,"

said many, "except that he has surpassed him in one thing—that is, he openly professes what Erasmus was satisfied with insinuating."*

The disputation was drawing near to its close. The adversaries of Luther had, at least, retreated with honour from the field; the youngest of them, Doctor George Niger, alone continued the contest with the powerful disputant; alarmed at the bold propositions of the Augustine monk, and not knowing what argument to have recourse to, he exclaimed, with an accent of fear, "If our peasantry heard such things, they would stone you to death."† At these words a general laugh went round the assembly.

Yet never did an auditory listen with more attention to a theological discussion. The first words of the Reformer had aroused men's minds. Questions, which but a little while before, would have met only with indifference, were, at that hour teeming with interest. An observer might have read, in the countenances of those present, the new ideas which the bold assertions of the Saxon Doctor awakened in their minds.

Three youths, especially, were much affected. One of them, by name Martin Bucer, was a Dominican, of twenty-seven years of age, who, in spite of the prejudices of his order, seemed unwilling to lose a word of the Doctor's remarks. A native of a small town in Alsace, had, in his sixteenth year, entered a convent. He soon showed such capacity, that the more enlightened of the monks formed high expectations of him.‡ "He will, one day," said they, "be an honour to our order." His superiors accordingly sent him to Heidelberg, that he might apply himself to the study of philosophy, theology, Greek, and Hebrew. At that period, Erasmus published several of his writings. Martin Bucer read them with avidity.

Shortly after this, the first published writings of Luther appeared. The student of Alsace hastened to compare the doctrines of the Reformer with the Holy Scriptures. Some misgivings as to the truth of Popery were then awakened in his mind.§ It was in this way that light was spread in those days. The Elector Palatine took notice of the young man. His powerful and sonorous voice and agreeable manners, his eloquence, and the freedom with which he attacked the prevailing vices, made his preaching remarkable. Appointed chaplain to the Elector, he was fulfilling the functions of his office, when he heard of Luther's visit to Heidelberg. How great was his joy! He was among the first to repair to the hall of the convent of the Augustines. He had with him paper, pens, and ink, intending to take notes. But while his hand rapidly traced the words of Luther, the hand of God wrote, in imperishable characters, on his heart, the great truths he heard. The first gleams of the doctrine of grace diffused themselves in his soul in the course of that memorable hour.¶ The Dominican was won to Christ.

Not far from Bucer sat John Brentz, or Brentius, then nineteen years of age. Brentz, son of a magistrate of a town in Suabia, had been entered student at Heidelberg in his thirteenth year. His application was unequalled. He rose at midnight for study. This custom had become so confirmed, that in after life he could never sleep after that hour. But at a latter period he devoted the stillness of these seasons to meditation on the Scriptures. Brentz was one of the first

* Bucer in Schultet. *Annal. Evang. renovat.* p. 22.

† Si rustici hæc audirent, certe lapidibus vos obruerent et interficerent. *L. Epp. i. p. 111.*

‡ Prudentioribus monachis spem de se præclaram excitavit. (Melch. Adam. *Vit. Bucerii*, p. 211.)

§ Cum doctrinam in eis traditam cum sacris literis contulisset, quædam in pontificia religione suspecta hebreæ cepit. (Ibid.)

¶ Primam lucem purioris sententiæ de justificatione in suo pectore ensit. (Melch. Adam. *Vit. Bucerii*, p. 211.)

* *Iustorum opera essent mortalia, nisi pio Dei timore ab ipsismet iustis at mortalitate timeretur.* (*L. Opp. lat. i. 55.*)

† *Lex iam Dei operator, occidit, maledicit, reum facit, iudicat, damnat, quicquid non est in Christo.* (Ibid.)

‡ *Lex dicit: Fac! et nunquam fit. Gratia dicit: Crede in hunc, et jam facta sunt omnia.* (*L. Opp. lat. i. 55.*)

§ *Amor Dei non invenit sed creat suum diligibile; amor hominis fit a suo diligibile.*

to discern the new light then appearing in Germany. He hailed it with a soul overflowing with love.* He eagerly perused the writings of Luther. But how was he rejoiced at the opportunity of hearing him at Heidelberg! One of the Doctor's propositions especially struck young Brentz. It was this: "That man is not justified in the sight of God who does many works; but he who, without having yet done works, has much faith in Christ."

A pious woman of Heilbronn, on the Neckar, the wife of one of the council of that town, named Snepf, following the example of Hannah, had dedicated her first-born son to the Lord, in the fervent desire to see him devote himself to the study of divinity. This young man, born in 1495, made rapid progress in learning; but either from liking, or from ambition, or else in compliance with his father's desire, he took to the study of jurisprudence. The pious mother grieved to see her son Ehrhard pursuing a course different from that to which she had consecrated him. She admonished him, expostulated, and again and again reminded him of her vow made at his birth.† At length, overcome by his mother's perseverance, Ehrhard Snepf complied, and he soon had such a relish for his new studies, that nothing could have diverted him from them.

He was very intimate with Bucer and Brentz, and this friendship continued as long as they lived; "for," says one of their historians, "friendships founded on the love of literature and of virtue are always lasting." He was present with his two friends at the disputation at Heidelberg. The paradoxes and courageous efforts of the Doctor of Wittenberg gave a new impulse to his mind. Rejecting the vain opinion of human merit, he embraced the doctrine of the free justification of the sinner.

The next day Bucer went to Luther. "I had," says he, "a familiar private conversation with him, a most exquisite repast—of no ordinary viands, but of the truths which he set before me. To every objection that I made, the Doctor had a ready reply; and he explained everything with the greatest clearness. Oh! would to God I had time to write you more about it."‡ Luther was himself affected with Bucer's deep emotion. "He is the only brother of his order," he wrote to Spalatin, "who is sincere; he is a young man of great promise. He received me with simplicity, and conversed very earnestly. He deserves our love and confidence."§

Brentz, Snepf, and many others, moved by the new truths which were beginning to enlighten their minds, also visited Luther; they talked and conferred with him; they requested an explanation of what they had not understood. The Reformer, leaning on the word of God, answered them. Every word that he spoke imparted fresh light to their minds. A new world seemed to open before them.

After the departure of Luther, these noble-minded men began to teach at Heidelberg. It was fit that they should carry on what the man of God had begun, and not leave the torch that he had kindled to expire. The disciple will speak, when the teacher is silent. Brentz, young as he was, undertook to expound St. Matthew's Gospel—at first in his own room—afterward, when that apartment was found too small, in the hall of Philosophy. The theologians, envious at the concourse of hearers that this young man drew toge-

ther, betrayed their irritation. Brentz then took orders, and transferred his lectures to the college of the canons of the Holy Ghost. Thus the fire, already kindled in Saxony, was communicated to Heidelberg. The light spread rapidly. This period has been called the seed-time of the Palatinate.

But it was not the Palatinate alone that reaped the fruits of that memorable disputation at Heidelberg. These courageous friends of the truth soon became shining lights in the Church. All of them attained to eminent stations, and took a conspicuous part in the transactions to which the Reformation gave birth. Strasburg, and afterward England, were indebted to the labours of Bucer for a purer knowledge of the truth. Snepf first declared it at Marburg, then at Stuttgart, at Tübingen, and at Jena. And Brentz, after having laboured at Heidelberg, taught for a long time at Halle in Suabia, and at Tübingen. We shall meet with them again, as we trace the course of the Reformation.

This disputation carried forward Luther himself. He increased from day to day in the knowledge of the truth. "I am one of those," said he, "who have myself made progress by writing for and instructing others—not one of those who, without any such training, have suddenly become great and learned doctors."

He was delighted to see the eagerness with which the young students received the growing truth. This it was that comforted him when he found the old doctors so deeply rooted in their opinions. "I have the glorious hope," said he, "that even as Christ, when rejected by the Jews, turned toward the Gentiles; so we shall see the rising generation receive the true theology, which these old men, wedded to their vain and fantastical opinions, now obstinately reject."

The chapter being ended, Luther proposed returning to Wittenberg. The Count Palatine gave him a letter for the Elector, dated the 1st of May, in which he said, that "the skill which Luther had shewn in the disputation did great honour to the university of Wittenberg." He was not allowed to return on foot.† The Augustines of Nuremberg conducted him as far as Wurtzburg. From thence he went to Erfurth, with the brethren of that city. Immediately on his arrival, he paid a visit to his former master Jocodus. The old professor, much grieved and scandalized at the course his pupil had taken, was accustomed to prefix to all Luther's propositions a *theta*, the letter which the Greeks made use of to denote condemnation.‡ On several occasions he had written to the young doctor in a style of reproach. The latter wished to answer those letters by word of mouth. Not being admitted, he wrote to his master: "All the university, with the exception of one licentiate, think as I do. Nay, more: the Prince, the Bishop, several other prelates, and all the most enlightened of our citizens, declare unanimously, that till now, they never knew or understood Christ and his Gospel. I am willing to receive your reproofs. And even should they be harsh, they will appear gentle to me. Open your heart, therefore, without fear; express your displeasure: I will not, and cannot, be angry with you. God and my own conscience are my witnesses."§

The old doctor was affected by these expressions of his former pupil. He wished to try whether there were no means of removing the condemnatory *theta*. They talked over the subject, but to no purpose. "I made him understand, however," says Luther, "that all their dogmas were like that creature which is said to devour itself. But it is useless to talk to a deaf

* *Ingens Dei beneficia lætus Brentius agnovit, et gratâ mente amplexus est.* (Ibid.)

† *Cerebris interpellationibus cum voti quod denato ispa faocrat admeret, et a studio juris ad theologiam quasi conviciis avocaret.* (Melch. Adami Snephi Vita.)

‡ *Gerdiesius, Monument. Antiq. &c.*

§ *L. Epp. i. p. 112.*

* *L. Epp. i. p. 112.*

† *Veni autem curru qui ieram pedestre.* (L. Epp. i. p. 110.)

‡ *Omnibus placitis meis nigrum theta præfigit.* (Ibid. p. 111.)

§ *L. Epp. i. p. 111.*

man. These doctors cling to their petty distinctions, though they confess that they have nothing to confirm them but what they call the light of natural reason—a gloomy chaos to us who proclaim the one and only light, Christ Jesus.”*

Luther quitted Erfurth in the carriage belonging to the convent, which took him to Eisleben. From thence the Augustines of the place, proud of the doctor who had done such honour to their order and their town, which was his native place, furnished him with horses

* *Nisi dictamine rationis naturalis, quod apud nos idem est quod chaos tenebrarum, qui non predicamus aliam lucem quam Christum Jesum lucem veram et solam.* (L. Epp. i. p. 111.)

to proceed to Wittemberg at their expense. Every one wished to show some mark of affection and esteem to this extraordinary man, whose fame was daily increasing.

He arrived on the Saturday after Ascension day. The journey had done him good, and his friends thought him looking stronger and in better health than before he set out.* They rejoiced at all that he related. Luther rested for a while after the fatigue of his journey and his dispute at Heidelberg; but this rest was only a preparation for severer labours.

* *Ita ut nonnullis videar factus habilior et corpulentior.* (L. Epp. i. p. 111.)

BOOK IV.

LUTHER BEFORE THE LEGATE.

MAY TO DECEMBER, 1518.

At length Truth had raised its head in the midst of the nations of Christendom. Having triumphed over the inferior instruments of the papal power, it was now to enter upon a struggle with its head himself. We are about to contemplate Luther in close conflict with Rome.

It was after his return from Heidelberg that Luther advanced to the attack. His first Theses on the indulgences had been imperfectly understood. He resolved to set forth their meaning more plainly. He had found, by the clamours proceeding from the blindness and hatred of his enemies, how important it was to gain over to the side of truth the more enlightened portion of the nation—he decided therefore to appeal to its judgment, by presenting to it the grounds on which his new conviction rested. It was quite necessary to invite the decision of Rome; he did not hesitate to send thither his explanations; while, with one hand, he held them forth to all his impartial and enlightened fellow-countrymen, he, with the other, laid them before the footstool of the sovereign Pontiff.

These explanations of his theses, which he called *solutions*,* were written with great moderation. Luther tried to soften the passages that had occasioned irritation, and evinced a genuine modesty. But, at the same time, he manifested an immovable conviction, and courageously defended every proposition that truth obliged him to maintain. He repeated, once more, that every Christian who truly repented had remission of sins without any indulgences; that the Pope had no more power than the lowest priest to do anything beyond simply declaring the forgiveness that God had already granted; that the treasury of the merits of saints, administered by the Pope, was a pure fiction: and that holy Scripture was the sole rule of faith. But let us listen to his own statement of some of these things.

He begins by laying down the nature of true repentance, and contrasts that act of God, by which man is regenerated, with the mummeries of the Romish church.—“The Greek word, *μετανοεω*,” said he, “signifies, put on a new spirit, a new mind; take to you a new nature, so that, ceasing to be earthly, you may become heavenly; Christ is a teacher of the spirit, and not of the letter, and his words are spirit and life.” Thus he

teaches a repentance in spirit and in truth, and not those outward penances which the haughtiest sinner may perform without any real humiliation—he requires a repentance which may be wrought in every situation of life—under the purple robe of kings, under the priest’s cassock, the prince’s hat—in the midst of the splendours of Babylon, where Daniel dwelt, as well as under the monk’s frock, or the mendicant’s rags.*

Further on we read these bold words: “I care little what pleases or displeases the pope. He is a man, like other men. There have been many popes, who have not only taken up with errors and vices, but things yet more extraordinary. I listen to the pope, as pope; that is, when he speaks in the canons, agreeably to the canons, or regulates any matter, conjointly with a council; but not when he speaks of his own mind. If I acted on any other rule, might I not be required to say, with those who know not Jesus Christ, that the horrible massacres of Christians, by which Julius II. was stained, were the good deeds of a kind shepherd of the Lord’s sheep?”†

“I must needs wonder,” he continues, “at the simplicity of those who have said that the two swords in the Gospel represent—the one the spiritual, the other the temporal power. True it is, that the pope holds a sword of iron; and thus, offers himself to the view of Christians, not as a tender father, but as an awful tyrant. Alas! God, in his anger, hath given us the sword we preferred, and withdrawn that which we despised. Nowhere, in all the earth, have there been more cruel wars, than among Christians. Why did not the same ingenious critic, who supplied this fine commentary, interpret the narrative of the two keys, delivered to St. Peter, in the same subtle manner, and establish, as a dogma of the church, that one serves to unlock the treasury of heaven, and the other, the treasures of the world?”‡

“It is impossible,” says he, “for a man to be a Christian, without having Christ. And, if he has Christ, he has, at the same time, all that is in Christ. What gives peace to the conscience is, that, by faith, our sins are no longer ours, but Christ’s, upon whom God hath laid them all; and that, on the other hand, all Christ’s righteousness is ours, to whom God hath given it. Christ lays his hand upon us, and we are

* L. Opp. Leipsig. xvii. p. 29 to 113.

* On the first Thesis. † Thesis 26. ‡ Thesis 80.

healed. He casts his mantle upon us, and we are clothed; for he is the glorious Saviour—blessed for ever!"*

With such views of the riches of salvation, by Christ, there could no longer be any need of indulgences.

At the same time that Luther thus attacked the papal rule, he spoke honourably of Leo X. "The times we live in," said he, "are so evil, that even persons of the highest station, have no power to help the church. We have, at this time, a very good pope in Leo X. His sincerity and learning are a matter of joy to us. But what can he do alone—amiable and gracious as he is? He deserved, assuredly, to be elected pope in better times. In these days we deserve none but such as Julius II., or Alexander VI."

He then came to this point—"I will speak out—in a few words, and boldly. The church requires to be reformed. And it is a work, neither for one man, as the pope, nor for several, as the cardinals and fathers, in council assembled—but for the whole world; or, rather, it is a work which appertains to God alone. As to the time when such reformation shall commence, he only knows it who has appointed all time. The barriers are thrown down, and it is no longer in our power to restrain the overflowing billows."

These are a few of the declarations and thoughts which Luther addressed to the more enlightened of his countrymen. Whitsuntide was drawing near; and thus, it was at the same season which the apostles rendered to their risen Saviour the first testimony of their faith, that Luther, the new apostle, published this animated testimony, in which he breathed forth his ardent desires for the resurrection of the church. On Whitsun-eve, 22d of May, 1518, he despatched this writing to the Bishop of Brandenburg, his ordinary, accompanied with these words:

"Most worthy Father in God!

"It is now some time since a new and unheard-of doctrine, concerning the apostolic indulgences, began to be preached in these parts. The learned and the unlearned were troubled by it; and many persons, known, or personally unknown to me, requested me to declare, from the pulpit or by writing, my opinion of the novelty—I will not say, the impudence, of the doctrine I refer to. At first, I kept myself silent and neutral. But, at last, things came to such a pass, that the pope's holiness was compromised.

"What could I do? I thought it my part neither to approve nor condemn these doctrines, but to open a discussion on this important subject, till such time as the holy church should pronounce upon it.

"No one presenting himself, or accepting the challenge to a discussion, which I had invited all the world, and my theses being considered not as a matter of debate, but as propositions, dogmatically asserted†—I find myself obliged to put forth an explanation of them. Deign, therefore, to accept these offerings [that I present to you, most clement Bishop. And, that all may see that I am not acting presumptuously, I entreat your reverence to take pen and ink, and blot out, or even throw into the fire, whatever may displease you. I know that Christ needs none of my labour or services, and that he can easily, without my instrumentality, make known the good tidings in his church. Not that the denunciations and threats of my enemies alarm me—quite the contrary. If they were not so wanting in prudence, and lost to shame, no one should hear or know anything about me. I would immure

myself in a corner, and there study alone, for my own profit. If this matter is not of God, it will certainly not be to my honour, nor to the honour of any man, but will come to nought. May glory and honour be to him to whom alone they belong!"

Luther was, up to this time, under the influence of respect for the head of the church. He gave credit to Leo for justice and a love of truth. Accordingly, he resolved to write to him also. A week after, on Trinity Sunday, 30th of May, 1518, he addressed to him a letter, of which the following are some fragments:

"To the Most Blessed Father, Pope Leo X.; Supreme Bishop—brother Martin Luther, an Augustine, wishes eternal salvation!

"I hear, most holy Father, that evil reports circulate concerning me, and that my name is in bad odour with your Holiness. I am called a heretic, an apostate, a traitor, and a thousand other reproachful names. What I see, surprises me; and what I hear, alarms me. But the sole foundation of my tranquillity remains unmoved—being a pure and quiet conscience. Oh, holy Father! deign to hearken to me, who am but a child, and need instruction."

Luther then relates the affair from the beginning, and thus proceeds.

"Nothing was heard in all the taverns, but complaints of the avarice of the priests, attacks on the power of the keys, and of the supreme bishop. I call all Germany to witness. When I heard these things, my zeal was aroused for the glory of Christ—if I understand my own heart; or, if another construction is to be put upon my conduct, my young and warm blood was inflamed.

I represented the matter to certain princes of the Church, but some laughed at me, and others turned a deaf ear. The awe of your name seemed to have made all motionless. Thereupon, I published this dispute.

"This, then, holy Father, this is the action which has been said to have set the whole world in a flame!

"And now what am I to do? I cannot retract what I have said, and I see that this publication draws down on me, from all sides, an inexpressible hatred. I have no wish to appear in the great world—for I am unlearned, of small wit, and far too inconsiderable for such great matters, more especially in this illustrious age, when Cicero himself, if he were living, would be constrained to hide himself in some dark corner.*

"But, in order to appease my enemies, and satisfy the desires of many friends, I here publish my thoughts. I publish them, holy Father, that I may dwell the more safely under your protection. All those who desire it may here see with what simplicity of heart, I have petitioned the supreme authority of the Church to instruct me, and what respect I have manifested for the power of the keys.† If I had not acted with propriety, it would have been impossible that the serene lord Frederic, Duke and Elector of Saxony, who shines foremost among the friends of the apostolic and christian truth, should have endured that one, so dangerous as I am asserted to be, should continue in his university of Wittemberg.

"Therefore, most holy Father, I throw myself at the feet of your Holiness, and submit myself to you, with all that I have, and all that I am. Destroy my cause or espouse it: pronounce either for, or against, me; take my life, or restore it, as you please; I will receive your voice as that of Christ himself, who presides and speaks through you. If I have deserved

* Thesis 37.

† Non ut disputabilia sed asserta acciperentur. (L. Epp. i. 114.)

‡ Ineptias.

* "Sed cogit necessitas me anserem strepere inter olores," says Luther. (L. Epp. i. 121.)

† Quam purè simpliciterque ecclesiasticam potestatem et reverentiam clavium quæsierim et coluerim. (Ibid.)

death, I refuse not to die;* the earth is the Lord's, and all that therein is. May He be praised for ever and ever. May He maintain you to all eternity. Amen.

"Signed the day of the Holy Trinity, in the year 1518. Brother Martin Luther, Augustine."

What humility and truth in this fear, or rather this admission, of Luther, that his young and warm blood had perhaps taken fire too hastily! We see here the man of sincerity, who, instead of presuming on himself, dreads the influence of his passions, even in such actions as are most conformable to the commandment of God. This is not the language of a proud fanatic. We behold Luther's earnest desire to gain over Leo to the cause of truth, to avoid all schism, and to cause the Reformation (the necessity of which he proclaimed,) to proceed from the highest authority in the Church. Certainly, it is not he who can be accused of having broken up that unity of the western Church, which so many of all sects have since regretted. On the contrary, he gave up everything but truth that he might maintain it. It was his adversaries who, refusing to allow the fullness and sufficiency of the salvation wrought by Jesus Christ, tore to shreds the Lord's vesture at the foot of the cross.

After writing this letter, Luther, on the same day, wrote to his friend Staupitz, Vicar-general of his order. It was through him that he resolved to forward to Leo both his "Solutions" and his letter.

"I beg of you," said he, "to receive with favour the poor productions that I send you,† and to forward them to the excellent Pope Leo X. Not that I mean by this to draw you into the peril in which I stand; I am resolved myself to incur the whole danger. Christ will look to it, and make it appear whether what I have said comes from him or myself—Christ, without whom the Pope's tongue cannot move, nor the hearts of kings decree.

"As for those who threaten me, I have no answer for them but the saying of Reuchlin: 'The poor man has nothing to fear, for he has nothing to lose.'‡ I have neither money nor estate, and I desire none. If I have sometimes tasted of honour and good report, may He who has begun to strip me of them finish his work. All that is left me is this wretched body, enfeebled by many trials—let them kill it by violence or fraud, so it be to the glory of God: by so doing they will but shorten the term of my life by a few hours. It is sufficient for me that I have a precious Redeemer, a powerful High Priest, my Lord Jesus Christ. I will praise him as long as I have breath. If another will not join me in praising him, what is that to me?"

In these words we read the innermost heart of Luther.

Whilst he was thus placing confidence in Rome, Rome had thoughts of vengeance against him. As early as the 3d of April, Cardinal Raphael de Rovera had written to the Elector Frederic, in the Pope's name, to intimate that some suspicion was entertained of his fidelity, and to desire him to avoid protecting Luther. "The Cardinal Raphael," observed the latter, "would have been well pleased to see me burned alive by Duke Frederic."§ "Thus Rome was beginning to turn arms against Luther, her first blow was directed to the depriving him of his protector's favour. If she succeed-

ed in destroying this shelter of the monk of Wittemberg, he would fall an easy prey to her agents.

The German sovereigns were very tenacious of their reputation as Christian princes. The slightest suspicion of heresy filled them with fears. The Roman Court had skillfully taken advantage of this disposition of mind. Frederic had always been attached to the religion of his fathers. Hence the Cardinal Raphael's letter produced a very considerable impression upon his mind. But, on the other hand, the Elector made it a rule never to be hasty in anything. He knew that truth was not always on the side of the strongest. The disputes of the Empire with Rome had taught him to discern the interested views of that Court. He had arrived at the conviction that, to be a Christian prince, it was not necessary to be a slave to the Pope.

"He was not one of those profane persons," says Melancthon, "who would stifle all changes in their very birth. Frederic submitted himself to the will of God. He carefully read the writings that were put forth, and would not allow any to destroy what he thought true." He possessed this power. Besides, being absolute sovereign of his own dominions, he enjoyed at least as much respect throughout the Empire as was paid to the Emperor himself.

It is probable that Luther received some intimation of this letter of Cardinal Raphael's, which reached the Elector on the 7th of July. Perhaps it was in the prospect of excommunication, which this Roman misssive seemed to forbode, that he ascended the pulpit of Wittemberg on the 15th of the same month, and preached a discourse on that topic, which made a deep impression on his hearers. He explained the distinction between *inward* and *outward* excommunications, the former excluding from communion with God, and the latter, from the rites and ceremonies of the Church. "No one," said he, "can reconcile the fallen soul to God but the Lord. No one can separate a man from communion with God but that man himself, by his own sins. Blessed is that man who dies under an unjust sentence of excommunication! Whilst, for righteousness' sake, he suffers a cruel judgment from men, he receives from God the crown of everlasting happiness!"

Some loudly commended this bold language; others were yet more enraged by it.

But Luther did not now stand alone; and though his faith needed no other support than that of God himself, he had called up on all sides a power that protected him from his enemies. The voice of this man had been heard by the whole German nation. From his sermons and writings issued beams of light which awakened and illuminated his contemporaries. The energy of his faith rushed like a stream of fire upon the frozen hearts of men. The life which God had given to this extraordinary mind was imparted to the dead body of the Church. Christendom, which had remained motionless for so many years, was now alive with religious enthusiasm. The popular attachment to the superstitions of Romanism was daily lessening; those who came with money in hand to purchase pardon were every day fewer;* and the reputation of Luther was every day extended. Men's thoughts were directed toward him, and he was hailed with affection and respect, as the intrepid defender of truth and freedom.† Doubtless all did not penetrate the depths of the doctrines he proclaimed. It was enough for the greater number to know that the new doctor stood up against the Pope; and that, at his powerful word, the dominion of the priests and monks was tottering to its fall. The attack of Luther was to them like a beacon-fire on a

* Quare, beatissime Pater, prostratum me pedibus tuis. Beatitudeis offero, cum omnibus quae sum et habeo; vivifica, occide, voca, revoca; approba, reproba, ut placebit. Vocem tuam vocem Christi in te presidentis et loquentis agnoscam. Si mortem merui, mori non recusabo. (L. Epp. i. p. 121.)

† Qui pauper est nihil timet, nihil potest perdere. (L. Epp. i. 118.)

§ L. Opp. (W.) xv. p. 339.

* Rarescebant manus largientium. (Cochläus, 7.)

† Luthero autem contra augebatur auctoritas, favor, fides, estimatio.

mountain-top, which announces to a whole people the moment for bursting their bonds. Luther was not aware of the influence he had obtained, till all the generous spirits among his countrymen had by acclamation acknowledged him their leader. But to many the appearance of Luther was much more than this. The word of God, which he handled with so much power, penetrated to the souls of men like a two-edged sword. In many hearts an ardent desire was kindled to obtain the assurance of pardon and everlasting life. Since the first ages of the Church, there had not been witnessed such hungering and thirsting after righteousness. If the preaching of Peter the Hermit, and of Bernard, had induced multitudes, during the middle ages, to assume outwardly the symbol of the cross, the preaching of Luther influenced the hearts of men to take up the cross—the truth that saves the soul. The superstructure, which then encumbered the Church, had smothered true piety: the form had extinguished the spirit. The word of power given to Luther was as a breath of life to Christendom. At first sight the writings of Luther carried with them the sympathy both of the faithful and of the unbeliever; of the latter, because the positive doctrines, afterward to be established, were not yet fully opened; of the former, because those doctrines were in principle comprised in that living faith, which his writings set forth with so much power. Hence the influence of those writings was unbounded. They spread instantaneously throughout Germany, and the whole world. Everywhere a persuasion existed, that what men now beheld was not merely the rise of a new sect, but a new birth of the Church and of society. Those who were then born again by the breath of God's Spirit, rallied round him who had been instrumental in imparting to them spiritual life. Christendom was divided into two opposing parties; the one contending for the spirit against form; and the other for form against the spirit. On the side of form there was, it is true, every appearance of strength and magnificence; on the side of the spirit there was weakness and littleness. But form, void of the spirit, is as an empty body which the first breath may overthrow. Its resemblance of strength serves only to exasperate the hostility and hasten its downfall. Thus the simple word of truth had called forth a whole host in favour of Luther.

It could not be otherwise, for the nobles were beginning to bestir themselves, and the empire and the Church were already uniting their forces to rid themselves of the troublesome monk. The Emperor, Maximilian, was then holding an imperial diet at Augsburg. Six Electors had repaired thither in person at his summons. All the Germanic states had their representatives in this assembly. The kings of France, of Hungary, and of Poland, had sent ambassadors. All these princes and envoys displayed great magnificence. The war against the Turks was one of the causes for which the diet was held. The Sultan, Selim, after having poisoned his father, and put his brothers and their children to death, had carried his victorious arms into Armenia, Egypt, and Syria. Serious apprehensions were entertained that he might push forward his armies into Italy and Hungary. It was not long, however, before death closed his career. But Leo X. did not, on that account, abandon the project of a new crusade. His legate earnestly exhorted the Germanic states to prepare for war. "Let the clergy," said he, "pay a tenth, the laity a fiftieth, part of their property; let each family furnish the pay of one soldier; let the rich give annual contributions, and all will go well." The states, bearing in mind the bad use that had been made of former contributions, and influenced by the prudent advice of the Elector Frederic, contented themselves with

answering that they would consider the matter, and at the same time brought forward new grievances against Rome. A Latin discourse, published while the Diet was sitting, boldly pointed out to the German princes the real danger. "You wish," said the author, "to expel the Turk. Your intention is good, but I fear you are mistaken as to his person. You must look for him in Italy, and not in Asia. Each of our princes has power sufficient to defend his country against the Turk of Asia; but as to the Turk of Rome, the whole of Christendom is not sufficient to conquer him. The former has not yet done us any harm, the latter walketh about everywhere thirsting for the blood of the poor."*

Another affair no less important was to engage the attention of the Diet. Maximilian wished to have his grandson, Charles, who was already King of Spain and Naples, proclaimed King of the Romans, and his successor in the imperial dignity. The pope understood his own interest too well, to wish to see the throne of the empire filled by a prince whose power, in Italy, might make him so formidable to himself. The emperor imagined that he had gained over to his side the majority of the electors and of the states; but he met with a decided opposition from Frederic. It was in vain that he solicited him; in vain did the ministers and best friends of the elector join their entreaties to the solicitations of the emperor; the prince was inexorable, and showed, as has been observed, that he had firmness of mind not to depart from a resolution of which he had seen the propriety. The emperor's design failed.

From that time Maximilian sought to insinuate himself into the good graces of the pope, in order to win his assent to his favourite plan. Wishing to give him a particular proof of his attachment, he wrote to him (on the 5th of August,) the following letter: "Most holy Father, we were informed, some days since, that a brother of the Augustine order, named Martin Luther, had taken himself to maintain certain propositions relative to the sale of indulgences. What gives us the more concern is, that the aforesaid brother meets with many protectors, among whom, are some of exalted rank.† If your Holiness, and the most reverend Fathers of the Church, (the Cardinals,) do not promptly exert your authority to put an end to these scandalous proceedings, these mischievous teachers will not only seduce the common people, but will involve great princes in their destruction. We will be careful to enforce throughout our empire, whatever your Holiness shall decree on this subject, to the glory of Almighty God."

This letter must have been written in consequence of some rather warm discussion that Maximilian had had with Frederic. The same day the elector wrote to Raphael de Rovera. He was doubtless apprised that the emperor was addressing the Roman Pontiff, and, in order to parry the blow, he himself opened a communication with Rome.

"It will ever be my desire," said he, "to prove my submission to the universal Church.

"Therefore, have I never defended the writings and discourses of Doctor Martin Luther. I hear, however, that he has uniformly expressed his willingness to appear, under a safe-conduct, before learned, christian, and impartial judges, to defend his doctrine, and to submit to their decision, if they should be able, by the Scriptures, to convince him of error."‡

Leo X., who, until this hour, had allowed the matter to take its course, roused at length by the outcry

* Schriek, K. Gesch. n. d. R. I. p. 156.

† Defensores et patronos etiam potentes quos dictus frater consecutus est. (Raynald ad an. 1513.)

‡ L. Opp. lat. xvii. p. 169.

of theologians and monks, now appointed an ecclesiastical court in Rome, for the purpose of judging Luther, and in which the Reformer's great enemy, Sylvester Prierias, was at once accuser and judge. The preliminaries were soon arranged, and the court summoned Luther to appear before it, in person, within sixty days.

Luther was at Wittemberg, quietly awaiting the good effects which he imagined his submissive letter to the pope was calculated to produce, when, on the 7th of August, two days only after the letters from Frederic and Maximilian had been despatched to Rome, he received the summons from the papal tribunal. "At the moment that I looked for benediction," said he, "I saw the thunderbolt descend upon me. I was like the lamb that troubled the stream at which the wolf was drinking." Tetzel escaped, and I was devoured."

This summons threw all Wittemberg into consternation; for, whatever course Luther might take, he could not escape danger. If he went to Rome, he would become the victim of his enemies. If he refused to appear, he would, as usual, be condemned for contumacy, and would not escape, for it was known that the legate had received from the pope, an order to strain every nerve to excite the emperor, and the German princes, against Luther. His friends were alarmed. Shall the preacher of the truth go and risk his life "in that great city, drunk with the blood of the saints and of the martyrs of Jesus?" Shall every man, who ventures to lift his head in the midst of the enslaved nations of Christendom, be, on that account, struck down? Shall this man be trampled under foot, who seemed formed to resist a power which nothing had previously been able to withstand? Luther himself could see no one but the elector able to save him; but he preferred death to endangering his prince's safety. His friends at last agreed on an expedient which would not compromise Frederic. Let him refuse Luther a safe-conduct: the latter would then have a fair excuse for not appearing at Rome.

On the 8th of August, Luther wrote to Spalatin to ask him to use his influence with the elector to have his cause heard in Germany. "See," said he, writing to Staupitz, "what snares they lay for me, and how I am surrounded by thorns. But Christ lives and reigns, the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever. My conscience tells me that I have taught the truth, though truth appears still more odious, because I teach it. The Church is the womb of Rebecca. The children must struggle together, even to the endangering of the mother's life.* As to the rest, pray to the Lord that I may not take too much joy in the trial. May God not lay this sin to their charge!"

The friends of Luther did not confine themselves to consultations and complaints. Spalatin wrote, on the part of the elector, to Renner, the emperor's secretary: "Doctor Martin will willingly submit himself to the judgment of any of the universities of Germany, except Erfurth, Leipzig, and Frankfort on the Oder, which have forfeited their claim to be regarded as impartial. It is out of his power to appear at Rome in person."†

The members of the university of Wittemberg addressed an intercessory letter to the pope himself. "His weak health," they said, speaking of Luther, "and the dangers of the journey, make it difficult, and even impossible, that he should obey the order of your Holiness. His distress and his entreaties incline us to compassionate him. We beseech you then, most Holy Father, as obedient children, to look upon him in the light of one who has never been tainted by

any doctrines opposed to the tenets of the Romish Church."

The university, in its solicitude, addressed another letter, the same day, to Charles von Miltitz, a Saxon gentleman, who was chamberlain to the pope, and was much esteemed by him. In this letter, they gave a more decided testimony in favour of Luther, than they had dared to do in the former. "The reverend father, Martin Luther, the Augustine," said they, "is the noblest and most distinguished member of our university. For several years, we have been witnesses of his talent, his learning, his intimate acquaintance with arts and literature, his irreproachable morals, and his truly christian deportment."‡—This strong sympathy of those about him is one of the greatest proofs of Luther's worth.

Whilst the result of this application was anxiously awaited, it was settled with less difficulty than might have been expected. The legate, de Vio, mortified at his failure in the commission he had received, to excite a general war against the Turks, wished to give importance to his embassy into Germany, by some other distinguished service. He thought that if he were to extirpate heresy, he should return to Rome with honour. He therefore petitioned the pope to put this affair into his hands. Leo, on his part, was well-disposed toward Frederic, for having so firmly resisted the election of Charles. He felt that he might again have need of his assistance. Without further reference to the former summons, he commissioned his legate, by a brief, dated the 23d of August, to investigate the affair in Germany. The pope conceded nothing by consenting to this mode of proceeding; and, in case Luther should be prevailed on to retract, the publicity and scandal that must have attended his appearance at Rome, would be avoided.

"We charge you," said the pope, "to compel the aforesaid Luther to appear before you, in person; to prosecute, and reduce him to submission, without delay—as soon as you shall have received this, our order; he having already been declared a heretic, by our dear brother, Jerome, Bishop of Asculan."†

"For this purpose," said he, "invoke the power and assistance of our very dear son in Christ, Maximilian, and the other princes of Germany, and of all the communities, universities, and potentates, whether ecclesiastical or secular. And when you have secured his person, cause him to be detained in safe custody, that he may be brought before us."‡

We see that this indulgent concession of the pope, was little else than an expedient for dragging Luther to Rome. Then follows the milder alternative.

"If he should return to a sense of his duty, and ask pardon for so great an offence, freely, and of his own accord, we give you power to receive him into the unity of holy mother church."

The pope soon returns to his maledictions.

"If he should persist in his stubbornness, and you fail to get possession of his person, we give you power to proscribe him in all places in Germany; to put away, curse, and excommunicate all those who are attached to him, and to enjoin all Christians to shun their society."

Even this is not enough.

"And to the end," he continues, "that this pestilence man the more easily be rooted out, you will excommunicate all the prelates, religious orders, univer-

* L. Opp. (lat.) i. 183, 184. L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 171, 172.

† *Dictum Lutherum hæreticum per predictum auditorem jani declaratum.* (Breve Leonis ad Thomam.)

‡ *Brachio cogas atque compellas, et eo in potestate tua reducto eum sub fidei custodia retines, ut coram nobis sistatur.* (Breve Leonis ad Thomam.)

* *Uterus Rebecca est: parvulus in eo collidi necesse est, etiam usque ad periculum matris.* (L. Epp. i. p. 135.)

† L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 173.

sities, communities, counts, dukes, and potentates, the Emperor Maximilian excepted, who shall neglect to seize the said Martin Luther, and his adherents, and send them to you, under proper and safe custody. And if, (which God forbid,) the aforesaid princes, communities, universities, and potentates, or any who belong to them, shelter the said Martin Luther and his adherents, or give them, publicly or secretly, directly or indirectly, assistance and advice, we lay an interdict on these princes, communities, universities, and potentates, with their towns, boroughs, countries, and villages, as well as on the towns, boroughs, countries, and villages, where the said Martin shall take refuge, as long as he shall remain there, and three days after he shall have quitted the same.”

This audacious power, which affects to be the earthly representative of him who said: “God sent not his Son into the world, to condemn the world, but that the world through him might be saved,” continues its anathemas; and after having pronounced penalties against ecclesiastics offending, thus proceeds:

“As to the laity, if they do not obey your orders, without any delay or demur, we declare them reprobate, (excepting, always, his Imperial Majesty,) unable to perform any lawful act, disentitled to Christian burial, and deprived of all fiefs which they may hold, either from the apostolic see, or from any lord whatever.”*

Such was the treatment that awaited Luther. The Roman despot had prepared everything to crush him. He had set every engine at work; even the quiet of the grave must be invaded. His ruin seemed inevitable. How could he escape this powerful combination? But Rome had miscalculated; the movement excited by the spirit of God, could not be quelled by the decrees of its chancery.

Even the semblance of a just and impartial inquiry had been disregarded; and Luther had already been declared an heretic: not only before he had been heard, but even long before the expiration of the time allowed for his personally appearing. The passions (and never are they more strongly excited than in religious discussion,) break through all forms of justice. Not only in the Roman church, but in those Protestant churches which have departed from the Gospel, and in every place where truth has been forsaken, do we find it treated in this way. All means seem good against the Gospel. We frequently see men, who, in any other case, would shrink from committing the least injustice, not hesitating to trample under foot all rule and equity, when Christianity or her witnesses are concerned.

When Luther, eventually, came to the knowledge of this brief, he gave free expression to his indignation. “The most remarkable part of the transaction is this,” said he; “the brief was issued the 23d of August; I was summoned the 7th of August: so that, between the summons and the brief, sixteen days had elapsed. Now, make the calculation, and you will find, that my Lord Jerome, Bishop of Asculan, proceeded against me, pronounced judgment, condemned me, and declared me a heretic, before the summons reached me, or, at most, sixteen days after it had been forwarded to me. Now, I ask, what becomes of the sixty days, that are granted me in the summons itself? They began the 7th of August, they would expire the 7th of October. . . . Is this the style and manner of the Roman court—that, in the same day, she summons, exhorts, accuses, judges, condemns, and declares guilty; and this, too, in the case of one who is at such a dis-

tance from Rome, and who can have no knowledge of what is going on? What answer can they make to all this? They certainly forgot to clear their brains with hellebore, before they had recourse to such clumsy artifice.”*

But at the same time that Rome was arming the legate with her thunders, she was endeavouring, by soft and flattering speeches, to detach from Luther's interest, the prince whose power she most dreaded. The same day, (the 23d of August, 1518,) the pope wrote to the Elector of Saxony. He had recourse to the same practised policy which we have before noticed, and sought to flatter the prince's vanity.

“Dear Son,” said the Roman pontiff, “when we think of your noble and worthy family; of you, who are its ornament and head; when we remember how you and your ancestors have always wished to uphold the Christian faith, and the honour and dignity of the Holy See, we cannot believe that a man who abandons the faith can rely on your Highness's favour, and recklessly give the rein to his wickedness. And yet, reports have reached us, from all quarters, that a certain brother, Martin Luther, a monk of the order of St. Augustine, acting the part of a child of iniquity, and a despiser of God, has forgotten his habit and his order, which require humility and obedience, and boasts that he fears neither the authority nor the chastisement of any man, assured, as he declares himself, of your favour and protection.

“But, as we are sure that he is, in this, deceiving himself, we have thought it good to write to your Highness, and to exhort you, according to the will of God, to be jealous of your honour as a Christian prince, the ornament, the glory, and the sweet savour of your noble family—to defend yourself from these calumnies—and to clear yourself, not only from the commission of so great a crime as that which is imputed to you, but also from the very suspicion, which the rash presumption of this monk tends to bring upon you.”

Leo, at the same time, intimated to Frederic, that he had commissioned the Cardinal of St. Sixtus to examine into the affair, and he desired him to deliver up Luther into the hands of the legate, “lest,” added he, recurring to his favourite argument, “pious people, of this or after times, should one day lament and say: ‘The most dangerous heresy that ever afflicted the Church of God, arose through the assistance, and under the protection, of that noble and worthy family.’”†

Thus Rome had taken her measures. To one party she offered the intoxicating incense of flattery; for the other she reserved her vengeance and her terrors.

All earthly powers—emperor, pope, princes, and legates—were put in motion against the humble friar of Erfurth, whose inward conflicts we have already traced. “The kings of the earth stood up, and the rulers took counsel against the Lord, and against his anointed.”

Before this letter and brief had yet reached Germany, and while Luther was still fearing that he should be obliged to appear at Rome, a fortunate circumstance occurred to comfort his heart. He needed a friend, into whose bosom he could pour out his sorrows, and whose faithful love should comfort him in his hours of dejection. God sent him such a friend in Melancthon.

George Schwarzerd was a skilful master armourer of Bretten, a small town in the Palatinate. On the 14th of February, 1497, a son was born to him, whom he named Philip, and who, afterward, became celebrated under the name of Melancthon. George, who enjoyed the esteem of the princes of the Palatinate of Bavaria and of Saxony, was remarkable for the perfect uprightness of his dealings. Often did he refuse

* *Infamie et inhabilitatis ad omnes actus legitimos, ecclesiasticæ sepulture, privationis quoque feudorum. (Breve Leonis ad Thomam.)*

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 176. † L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 173.

to take from purchasers the price they offered; and, if he knew that they were poor, he obliged them to take back their money. He regularly rose at midnight, and offered a prayer upon his knees. If he ever happened to omit this service, he was dissatisfied with himself all day. Schwarzerd's wife, whose name was Barbara, was the daughter of a respectable magistrate, John Reuter. She was of an affectionate disposition, somewhat inclined to superstition, but very discreet and prudent. Some old and well-known German rhymes are ascribed to her pen. We give their sense as well as we are able:

Gifts to the poor impoverish none,
To church to pray will hinder none,
To grease the wheel delayeth none,
Ill-gotten wealth enricheth none,
God's holy book deludeth none.

Also the following:

He who is a freer spender
Than his plough or toil can render,
Sure of ruin, slow or fast,
May, perhaps, be hanged at last.*

Philip was not eleven years old when his father died. Two days before his death, George summoned his son to his bed-side, and exhorted him to "set the Lord always before him." "I foresee," said the dying man, "that stormy times are at hand. I have witnessed great things; but there are greater still in preparation. God preserve, and guide you, my son!" After receiving his father's blessing, Philip was sent to Spire, that he might not be present at his father's death. He wept bitterly on taking his departure.

Reuter, the worthy bailiff, Philip's grandfather, who had a young son of his own, performed a father's part towards the orphan. He took both Philip and his brother George into his own house, and shortly after, engaged John Hungarus as tutor to the three boys. Hungarus was an excellent man, and afterward preached the Gospel with great effect, continuing his labours to an advanced age. He never overlooked any fault in the young man, but punished it with discretion: "It was thus," said Melancthon, in 1554, "that he made me a grammarian. He loved me as if I had been his son; I loved him as a father; and I trust that we shall meet in heaven."†

Philip was remarkable for the excellence of his understanding, his quickness in acquiring, and his talent for communicating, knowledge. He could never be idle, but was always seeking for some one with whom he might discuss the things he had heard.‡ It often happened, that learned foreigners passed through Bretten, and visited Reuter. On such occasions, the bailiff's grandson immediately accosted them, engaged them in conversation, and pressed them so closely on the subjects discussed, that by-standers were astonished.

To a powerful genius he united great sweetness of disposition, and thus gained the favour of all who knew him. He had an impediment in his speech; but, following the example of the illustrious Grecian orator, he laboured with so much perseverance to overcome this defect, that in after life no traces of it were perceptible.

On the death of his grandfather, young Philip was sent, with his brother and his uncle John, to the school of Pforzheim. The young boys lodged with one of their female relations, who was sister to the celebrated Reuchlin. Thirsting for knowledge, Philip,

under the tuition of George Simler, made rapid progress in learning, and especially in the Greek language, to which he was passionately devoted. Reuchlin often visited Pforzheim. At his sister's house he became acquainted with her young inmates, and was very much struck with Philip's answers. He presented him with a Greek grammar and a Bible. These two books were destined to be the study of his whole life.

When Reuchlin returned from his second journey into Italy, his young relation, who was then twelve years old, celebrated the day of his arrival by acting in his presence with some friend, a Latin comedy of his own composing. Reuchlin, delighted with the young man's talent, tenderly embraced him, called him his beloved son, and, smiling, placed upon his head the red hat he had received when he was made doctor. It was at this time that Reuchlin changed his name of Schwarzerd for that of Melancthon. Both words signify *black earth*, the one in the German, the other in Greek. Most of the learned men of those times translated their names into Greek or Latin.

At twelve years of age Melancthon went to the university of Heidelberg. It was there he began to slake his thirst for knowledge. At fourteen he was made bachelor. In 1512 Reuchlin invited him to Tübingen, where many eminent scholars were assembled. He attended the lectures of the theologians, the physicians, and the jurisconsults. There was no kind of knowledge that he deemed unworthy of pursuit. He sought not for fame, but for the possession and advantage of learning.

Holy Scripture especially engaged his attention. Those who frequented the church of Tübingen had remarked, that he had frequently a book in his hand, which he had read between the services. The mysterious volume seemed larger than the ordinary mass books: and a report was circulated that Philip, on such occasions, read some profane author. But it turned out that the suspected book was a copy of the Holy Scriptures, recently printed at Bâle, by John Frobenius. He continued to use this book all his life, with the most diligent attention. He always carried about him this precious volume, taking it with him to the various public assemblies which he was called on to attend.* Rejecting the vain systems of the schoolmen, he adhered to the plain word of God. Erasmus, writing at that time Œcolampadius, thus expresses himself: "I have the highest opinion and the most brilliant expectations of Melancthon. May our Lord so order events, that he may long survive us! He will altogether eclipse Erasmus."†

Nevertheless, Melancthon then partook of the errors of his time, "I shudder," said he, at an advanced period of his life, "when I think of the superstitions respect I paid to images while I was yet a papist."‡

In 1514, he was made Doctor of Philosophy, and began to lecture publicly. He was then seventeen. The grace and charm which he communicated to his instructions formed a striking contrast to the tasteless method then followed by the doctors, and especially by the monks. He took an active part in the contest in which Reuchlin was engaged with the ignoramuses of his time. Agreeable in conversation, gentle and graceful in manners, and beloved by all who knew him, he soon acquired great authority, and established reputation among the learned.

It was at this time, that the Elector Frederic formed the design of inviting some man of distinguished learning to become professor of the ancient languages in his

* Almosen geben armt nicht, &c. Wer mehr will verzehren, etc. (Müller's Recliquien.)

† Dilexit me ut filium, et ego eum ut patrem; et convenimus, spero, in vita aeterna. (Melancthon. Expl. Evang.)

‡ Quiescere non poterat, sed quarebat ubique aliquem cum quo de auditu disputaret. (Camerarius, Vita Melancthon. p. 7.)

* Camerar. Vita Philip. Melancthonis, p. 16.

† Erasmi Epist. l. p. 405.

‡ Horresco quando cogito quomodo ipse accesserim ad status in papatu. (Explicat. Evang.)

university in Wittenberg. He applied to Reuchlin, who recommended Melancthon. Frederic foresaw the celebrity that the young Grecian would confer on an institution so dear to him—and Reuchlin, overjoyed at so favourable an opening for his young friend, wrote to him in the words of the Lord to Abraham: "Get thee out from thy country, and from thy kindred, and from thy father's house, and I will make thy name great, and thou shalt be a blessing." "Yes," continued the old man, "I trust it will be thus with thee, my dear Philip, my disciple, and my joy."* Melancthon acknowledged the voice of God in this summons. All the university grieved at his departure: yet were there some who envied and hated him. He bade farewell to his native place, exclaiming, "The will of the Lord be done!" He was then one-and-twenty.

Melancthon performed the journey on horseback, in company with some Saxon merchants, as in the desert the traveller joins a caravan: for, as Reuchlin says, "he knew neither the roads nor the towns they had to pass through."† At Augsburg he waited on the elector, who was stopping there. At Nuremberg he made acquaintance with the excellent Pirckheimer, and at Leipzig with the learned Grecian, Mosellanus. The university of this latter city gave a feast in his honour. The repast was truly academical. A variety of dishes were introduced in succession, and as each was put upon the table, one of the professors arose and addressed a studied Latin speech to Melancthon. The latter answered *impromptu*. At last, tired of so much eloquence, he said: "My learned friends, suffer me to answer once for all to your orations; for being entirely unprepared, I am unable to infuse into my replies so much variety as you have introduced in your addresses." After this the dishes were brought in without the accompanying orations.‡

Melancthon arrived at Wittenberg on the 25th of August, 1518, two days after Leo X. had signed the brief addressed to Cajetan, and the letter to the elector.

The professors of Wittenberg did not receive Melancthon so graciously as those of Leipzig had done. Their first impression of him did not answer the expectation they had formed. They beheld a young man, who looked even younger than he really was, of small stature, and of a shy and timid demeanour. Is this the famous Doctor, thought they, that the great men of our day, such as Erasmus and Reuchlin, so highly extol? Neither Luther, to whom he first introduced himself, nor Luther's colleagues, conceived any great hopes of him, when they remarked his youth, his diffidence, and his retiring manners.

On the 29th of August, being four days after his arrival, he delivered his inaugural discourse. The whole university was convened on the occasion. The lad, § as Luther calls him, spoke such elegant Latin, and manifested so much learning, so cultivated an understanding, and such sound judgment, that all his auditors were astonished.

When he had concluded his speech, all crowded around him to offer their congratulations; but no one felt more delighted than Luther. He hastened to communicate to his friends the sentiments of his heart. "Melancthon," said he, writing to Spalatin on the 31st of August, "delivered, only four days after his arrival, so beautiful and learned an oration, that it was heard by all with approbation and astonishment. We soon got over the prejudices we had conceived from his per-

sonal appearance; we now extol and admire his eloquence. We thank the prince and yourself for the service you have done us. I can wish for no better Greek master. But I fear that our poor fare will not suit his delicate frame, and that we shall not keep him long with us on account of the smallness of his allowance. I hear that the people of Leipzig are already bragging that they will be able to carry him off from us. Beware, my dear Spalatin, of despising this youth. The young man is worthy of the highest honour."*

Melancthon began at once to expound Homer, and St. Paul's Epistle to Titus. He was full of ardour. "I will use every endeavour," he wrote to Spalatin, "to win the favour of those at Wittenberg, who love learning and virtue." Four days after his inauguration, Luther again wrote to Spalatin:

"I commend to your special regard that most learned and very amiable Grecian, Philip. His lecture room is always crowded. All the theologians, especially, attend his lectures. He puts them all, whether they be in the upper, the lower, or the middle classes, upon learning Greek."†

Melancthon, on his part, felt he could return Luther's affection. He soon discerned in him a kindness of disposition, a strength of mind, a courage, and a wisdom, which till then he had never found in any man. He revered and loved him. "If there be any one," said he, "that I love and embrace with my whole heart, it is Martin Luther."‡

With such feelings did Luther and Melancthon meet; and their friendship continued till death. We cannot sufficiently admire the goodness and wisdom of God, in bringing together two men so different, and yet so necessary to each other. Melancthon was as remarkable for calmness, prudence, and gentleness, as Luther was for wisdom, impetuosity, and energy. Luther communicated vigour to Melancthon:—Melancthon moderated Luther. They were like positive and negative agents in electricity, by whose reciprocal action an equilibrium is maintained. If Melancthon had not been at Luther's side, the torrent might have overflowed its banks:—when Luther was not by, Melancthon faltered, and gave way even where he ought not. § —Luther did much by *power*:—Melancthon did no less, perhaps, by following a slower and gentler method. Both were upright, open-hearted, and generous; both, full of love for the word of eternal life, proclaimed it with a fidelity and devotion which governed their whole lives.

Melancthon's appearance wrought a revolution, not merely in Wittenberg, but throughout Germany and the learned world. The study he had applied to the Greek and Latin classics, and to philosophy, had given an order, clearness, and precision to his ideas, which diffused on the subjects he handled a new light and an indescribable beauty. The sweet spirit of the Gospel fertilized and animated all his reflections; and, in his lectures, the driest sciences appeared clothed with a grace that charmed all hearers. The sterility that the scholastic philosophy had spread over instruction was gone, a new method of teaching and of study was introduced by Melancthon. "Thanks to him," says a distinguished historian of Germany,|| "Wittenberg became the school of the nation."

* L. Epp. i. 135.

† Summus cum mediis et infimis studiosos facit græcitatibus. (L. Epp. i. 140.)

‡ Martinus, si omnino in rebus humanis quidquam, vehementissimè diligo, et animo integerrimo complector. (Mel. Epp. i. 411.)

§ Calvin, writing to Sleidan, observes: "Dominus eum fortiori spiritu instruat, ne gravem ex ejus timiditate jacturam sentiat posteritas."

|| Plank.

* Meum opus et meum solatium. (Corp. Ref. i. 33.)

† Das Wegs und der Orte unbekannt. (Ibid. 30.)

‡ Camer. Vita Mel. 26.

§ Puer et adolescentulus, si ætatem consideres. (L. Epp. i. 141.)

The impulse that Melancthon gave to Luther, in his work of translating the Bible, is one of the most memorable circumstances of the friendship between these great men. As early as 1517, Luther had made some attempts toward that translation. He got together as many Greek and Latin books as he could collect. With the aid of his dear Philip, his labour now proceeded with fresh energy. Luther obliged Melancthon to take part in his researches; consulted him in difficult passages; and the work, which was destined to be one of the grandest works of the Reformer, advanced more securely and rapidly to its completion.

Doubtless, the arrival of Melancthon at so critical a moment, brought with it a sweet relaxation to the mind of Luther. Doubtless, in the delightful expansion of a new friendship, and in the midst of the Biblical studies, to which he applied himself with fresh zeal, he sometimes altogether forgot Rome, Prierias, Leo, and that ecclesiastical court, before which he was to appear. Yet these were brief moments that soon passed away. His thoughts were ever reverting to the awful tribunal before which he was cited by the influence of his implacable enemies. With what terror would not the thought have filled a soul desiring aught but the triumph of truth! But Luther did not tremble in the prospect of it: full of trust in the faithfulness and power of God he remained firm: and was ready to expose himself alone to the wrath of enemies more terrible than those who had brought Huss to the stake.

A few days after the arrival of Melancthon, and before the decision of the Pope, which removed the citation of Luther from Rome to Augsburg, could be known, Luther wrote thus to Spalatin:—"I do not ask our sovereign to do the least thing in defence of my theses—I am willing to be delivered up, and cast alone into the hands of all my adversaries. Let him suffer the storm to exhaust all its rage on me. What I have undertaken to defend, I hope I shall, by Christ's help, be enabled to maintain. As to *force*, we must needs yield to that, but without forsaking the truth."*

Luther's courage communicated itself to others. The gentlest and most timid, beholding the danger that threatened the witness of the truth, found language full of energy and indignation. The prudent and pacific Staupitz wrote to Spalatin on the 7th September: "Do not cease to exhort the Prince, our master, not to be dismayed by the roaring of the lions.

"Let the Prince make a stand for the truth, without regarding Luther, or Staupitz, or the order. Let there be at least one place where we may speak freely and fearlessly. I know that the plague of Babylon (I had almost said, of Rome,) is let loose against all who attack the corruptions of those who betray Christ for gain. I, myself, have seen a preacher of the truth pulled out of his pulpit, and, though on a saint's day, bound and dragged to prison. Others have witnessed still greater atrocities. Therefore, my dearly beloved, persuade his Highness to continue in his present sentiments."†

The order for his appearance at Augsburg, before the cardinal legate, at length arrived. It was now with one of the princes of the Roman Church that Luther had to do. All his friends besought him not to set out.‡ They feared that a snare might be laid for him on his journey, or a design formed against his life. Some set about finding a place of concealment for him. Staupitz himself, the timid Staupitz, was moved at the thought of the danger which threatened that brother, Martin, whom he had drawn forth from the obscurity of the cloister, and launched upon the agitated sea where his life was now in peril. Ah! would

it not have been better for that poor brother to have remained all his life unknown? It is too late now. Yet he will do all in his power to save him. Accordingly he wrote to him from his convent at Salzburg, on the 15th September, imploring him to flee and take refuge with him. "It seems to me," said he, "that the whole world is up in arms, and combined against the truth. Even so was the crucified Jesus hated! I see not that you have anything else to expect than persecution. Ere long, no one, without the Pope's permission, will be allowed to search the Scriptures, and to learn Christ from them, which yet is Christ's injunction. Your friends are few in number. God grant to those few friends courage to declare themselves in opposition to your formidable enemies! Your most prudent course is to leave Wittenberg for a time, and come and reside with me. Then—let us live and die together. This is also the Prince's opinion," adds Staupitz.*

From different quarters Luther received alarming information. Count Albert, of Mansfeldt, sent him a message to abstain from setting out, because some great nobles had bound themselves by an oath, to seize and strangle, or drown him.† But nothing could shake his resolution. He would not listen to the Vicar general's offer.—He will not go and hide in the convent of Salzburg—he will continue faithfully on that stormy stage where the hand of God has placed him. It is by perseverance, in the midst of opposers, by loudly proclaiming the truth in the midst of the world, that the kingdom of the truth is advanced. Why then should he flee? He is not of those who draw back unto perdition, but of those who believe to the saving of their souls. That word of the Master, whom he is resolved to serve and love continually, resounds in his heart: "Whosoever shall confess me before men, him will I confess before my Father which is in heaven." Everywhere, in the history of Luther, and of the Reformation, do we find ourselves in presence of that interpid spirit, that elevated morality, that boundless charity, which the first establishment of Christianity had exhibited to the world. "I am like Jeremiah," said Luther, at the moment we are speaking of—"a man of strife and contention;" but the more they increase their threatenings, the more they multiply my joy. My wife and children are well provided for. My lands and houses, and all my goods, are safe.‡ They have already torn to pieces my honour and my good name. All I have left is my wretched body—let them have it—they will then shorten my life by a few hours. But as to my soul—they shall not have that. He, who resolves to bear the word of Christ to the world, must expect death at every hour—for our spouse is a bloody husband unto us."§

The Elector was then at Augsburg. Shortly before he left that city and the Diet, he pledged himself to the Legate, that Luther should appear before him. Spalatin wrote to his friend, by direction of the Prince, that the Pope had named a commission to hear him in Germany; that the Elector would not suffer him to be carried to Rome—and desired him to prepare to set out for Augsburg. Luther resolved to obey. The information he had received from Count Mansfeldt induced him to ask Frederic for a safe-conduct. The latter replied, that it was not needed, and sent him only letters of recommendation to several of the most distinguished counsellors of Augsburg. He at the

* *App. i. 61.*

† *Ut vel, strangularet, vel baptizaret ad mortem. (L. *App. i. 120.*)*

‡ *Uxor mea et liberi mei provisum sunt. (L. *App. i. 129.*)*—He had none.

§ *Sic enim sponsus noster sponsum sanguinum nobis est. (L. *App. see Exodus, iv. 25.*)*

* *L. *App. i. p. 139.** † *Jen. Aug. i. p. 384.*

‡ *(Contra omnium amicorum consilium comparui.)*

same time, forwarded some money for his journey, and the Reformer, poor and unprotected, set forth on foot, to place himself in the power of his adversaries.*

With what feeling must he have quitted Wittenberg, and directed his steps toward Augsburg, where the Pope's legate awaited him! The object of his journey was not like that to Heidelberg—a friendly meeting—he was about to appear, without any safe-conduct, before the delegate of Rome; perhaps he was going to meet death. But his faith was not in word, it was in truth. Therefore it was, that it gave him peace; and he advanced without fear, in the name of the Lord of Hosts, to bear his testimony to the Gospel.

He reached Weimar on the 28th of September, and took up his lodgings in the convent of the Cordeliers. One of the monks could not take his eyes off him. This was Myconius. It was the first time he had seen Luther. He wished to approach him, and whispered that he owed to him the peace of his soul, and that all his desire was to labour with him. But Myconius was closely watched by his superiors, and was not permitted to speak to Luther.†

The Elector of Saxony then held his court at Weimar, and it is probable that, on that account, the Cordeliers received the Doctor. The day after his arrival was the festival of St. Michael—Luther said mass, and was even invited to preach in the Castle Chapel. It was a mark of favour that his Prince took pleasure in conferring upon him. He preached from an overflowing heart, in the presence of the court, on the text of the day, which is in Matthew's Gospel, ch. xviii. verses 1 to 11. He spoke strongly against hypocrites, and such as boast of their own righteousness. But he said not a word of the angels, though it was the invariable custom to do so on St. Michael's day.

The courage of the Doctor, who was repairing quickly on foot to attend a summons, which, for so many before him had been a summons to die, astonished those who beheld him. Interest, wonder, and compassion, successively took possession of their hearts. John Kestner, provisor of the Cordeliers, struck with apprehension at the thought of the dangers that awaited his guest, said: "My brother, you have to meet Italians at Augsburg. They are shrewd people, subtle antagonists, and will give you enough to do. I fear you will not be able to defend your cause against them. They will cast you into the fire, and the flames will consume you."‡ Luther answered gravely: "My dear friend, pray to our Lord God, who is in heaven, and put up a pater noster for me, and for his dear child Jesus, whose cause is mine—that he may be favourable to him. If He maintains his cause, mine is safe; but if He will not maintain it, certainly it is not in me to maintain it; and it is He who will bear the dishonour."

Luther continued his journey on foot, and arrived at Nuremberg. Being about to present himself before a prince of the church, he wished to make a suitable appearance. The dress he wore was old, and much the worse for his journey. He therefore borrowed a monk's frock of his faithful friend Wenceslas Link, the preacher at Nuremberg.

Doubtless Luther did not call on Link alone, but visited his other friends at Nuremberg, and among them Scheurl, the town-clerk, Albert Durer, the celebrated painter, (to whose memory that town is at this time erecting a statue,) and others. He was confirmed in his resolution by his intercourse with these excellent

ones of the earth, whilst many monks as well as laity caught the alarm at his journey, and besought him to turn back. The letters he wrote from this town breathe the spirit which then animated him: "I find," said he, "men of cowardly spirit, who wish to persuade me not to go to Augsburg; but I am determined to go on. May the Lord's will be done! Even at Augsburg, and in the midst of his enemies, Christ reigns. Let Christ be exalted, and the death of Luther, or any other sinner, is of little moment. As it is written; 'may the God of my salvation be exalted!' Farewell! persevere, stand fast, for we must be rejected either by men or by God: but God is true, and man is a liar."*

Link, and Leonard, an Augustine monk, could not bear to let Luther encounter alone the dangers that threatened him. They knew his disposition, and that overflowing as he was, with self-devotion and courage, he would probably be wanting in prudence. They therefore accompanied him. When they were within five leagues of Augsburg, Luther, who was no doubt suffering from the fatigue of his journey, and the agitation of his mind, was seized with violent pains in the stomach. He thought he should die. His two friends, much alarmed, engaged a waggon. They arrived at Augsburg in the evening of Friday, the 7th of October, and alighted at the convent of the Augustines. Luther was much exhausted; but he rapidly recovered; and doubtless his faith and the vivacity of his mind greatly conduced to his restoration to health.

Immediately on his arrival, and before he had seen any one, Luther, desiring to show every mark of respect to the Legate, begged Wenceslas Link to go to his house, to announce that he was in Augsburg. Link did so, and respectfully intimated to the Cardinal, on behalf of the Doctor of Wittenberg, that the latter was ready to appear before him whenever he should require his attendance. Dé Vio was rejoiced at this intelligence. At length, then, he had the hot-headed heretic in his power; he inwardly resolved that he should not leave Augsburg as he had entered it. At the same time that Link waited upon the Legate, the monk, Leonard, went to announce to Staupitz, Luther's arrival at Augsburg. The Vicar-General had previously written to the Doctor, to say he would certainly visit him as soon as he arrived. Luther lost no time in informing him of his presence.†

The Diet was over. The Emperor and the Electors had already left the place. The Emperor, it is true, had not finally taken his departure, but was hunting in the environs. The representative of Rome alone remained at Augsburg. Had Luther arrived whilst the Diet was sitting, he would have met powerful friends; but everything now seemed likely to yield before the papal authority.

The Judge before whom Luther was to appear was not of a character to calm his apprehensions. Thomas de Vio, who was surnamed Cajetan, from the town of Gaeta, in the kingdom of Naples, where he was born (1469,) was one of whom great expectations had been entertained from his youth. At sixteen he had entered into the order of the Dominicans, contrary to the express wish of his parents. He had afterward become general of his order, and cardinal of the Church of Rome. But what boded ill to Luther, the learned Doctor was one of the most zealous advocates of that scholastic theology which the Reformer had so severely handled. His learning, the austerity of his disposition, and the purity of his morals, insured to him an influence and authority in Germany, which other Roman courtiers

* *Veni igitur pedester et pauper Augustam.* . . . (L. Opp. lat. in præf.)

† *Ibi Myconius primum vidit Lutherum: sed ab accessu et colloquio ejus tunc est prohibitus.* (M. Adami Vita Myconii, p. 176.)

‡ *Profecto in ignem te conjicient, et flammis exurent.* (Melch. Adam. Vita Myconii, p. 176, Ref. Hist. p. 30.)

* *Vitat Christus; moriatur Martinus.* . . . (Weismann Hist. Sacri Novi Test. p. 1465.) Weismann had read this letter in manuscript. It is not in the collection of M. de Wette.

† E. Epp. i. p. 144.

would not easily have acquired. It was to his reputation for sanctity, no doubt, that he owed his appointment. Rome had calculated that this would admirably serve her purposes. Thus even the good qualities of Cajetan made him still more formidable. Besides, the affair intrusted to him was by no means a complicated one. Luther was already declared a heretic. If he would not retract, the Legate's duty must be to send him to prison; and, if he escaped, to visit with excommunication such as should dare to receive him. This was the course which the dignitary, before whom Luther was cited, was authorised to take on behalf of Rome.*

The Reformer had recruited his strength by a night's rest. On the morning of Saturday, the 8th of October, he began to reflect on his strange situation. He was resigned, and was patiently waiting till God's will should be manifested by the progress of events; he did not wait long. A person, unknown to him, sent him word, as if entirely devoted to his service, that he was coming to visit him, advising him to avoid appearing before the Legate till he had seen him. The message came from an Italian courtier, named Urban de Serra Longa, who had often visited Germany as envoy from the Margrave of Montferrat. He had known the Elector of Saxony, at whose court he had been accredited, and after the Margrave's death, he had attached himself to the Cardinal de Vio.

The art and address of this courtier presented the most striking contrast to the noble frankness and generous integrity of Luther. The Italian soon arrived at the monastery of the Augustines. The Cardinal had sent him to sound the Reformer, and to prepare him for the recantation expected from him. Serra Longa imagined that his long residence in Germany gave him an advantage over the other courtiers of the Legate's train; he expected to make short work with this German monk. He arrived, attended by two servants, and professed to have come, of his own accord, from friendship for a favourite of the Elector of Saxony, and out of love to the Church. After having saluted Luther with many professions the diplomatist added, in a tone of affection:

"I am come to offer you prudent and good advice. Make your peace with the church. Submit unreservedly to the Cardinal. Retract your calumnies. Recollect the abbot Joachim, of Florence; he, as you know, had put forth heresies, and yet he was afterward declared no heretic, because he retracted his errors."

Luther intimated his intention of standing upon his defence.

SERRA LONGA.—"Beware of that. Would you presume to enter the lists with the Legate of his Holiness?"

LUTHER.—"If they can prove to me that I have taught any thing contrary to the Romish Church, I will be my own judge, and immediately retract. But the main point is, to ascertain whether the Legate relies more on the authority of St. Thomas than the faith will sanction. If he does, I shall certainly not submit to him."

SERRA LONGA.—"Oh, oh! you intend, then, to offer him battle!"

Upon this the Italian began to use language which Luther designates as horrible: He asserted, that one might maintain false propositions, if they only brought in money and filled the strong box; that all discussion in the universities concerning the Pope's authority was to be avoided; but that, on the contrary, it was sound doctrine that the Pontiff might,† by a nod, alter

or suppress articles of faith; with much more in the same strain. But the crafty Italian soon perceived that he was forgetting himself; he resumed his former gentleness, and endeavoured to persuade Luther to submit to the Legate in every thing, and to retract his doctrine, his theses, and the oaths he had taken.

The Doctor, who at first had given some credit to the fair professions of the orator Urban, (as he calls him in his narrative,) began to suspect that they were very hollow, and that he was much more in the interest of the Legate than in his. He therefore spoke with rather more reserve, and contented himself with saying, that he was quite ready to be humble and obedient, and to give satisfaction in any point in which he might be shewn to be in error. At these words Serra Longa exclaimed, exultingly: "I will go directly to the Legate, and you will follow me presently. Every thing will go well, and it will be soon settled."*

He took his leave, and the Saxon monk, who had more discernment than the Roman courtier, thought within himself: "This crafty Sinon has been poorly trained by his Greeks."† Luther was divided between hope and fear. Yet hope prevailed. The visit of Serra Longa, whom he afterward calls a foolish meddler,‡ and his strange assertions, aroused his courage.

The different counsellors, and other respectable inhabitants of Augsburg, to whom the Elector had recommended Luther, were all eager to visit a man whose name already resounded through all Germany. Peutingier, the Imperial counsellor, one of the most distinguished patricians in the city, and who often invited Luther to his table, the counsellor Langemantel, Doctor Auerbach of Leipzig, and the two brothers Adelmann, both canons, with several others, repaired to the convent of the Augustines. With cordial friendship they accosted this extraordinary man, who had taken a long journey to deliver himself up to the agents of Rome. "Have you a safe-conduct?" asked they. "No," replied the intrepid monk. "What boldness!" they exclaimed. "This," said Luther, "was a civil phrase, to express my fool-hardiness." All joined in entreating him not to go to the Legate without first obtaining a safe-conduct from the Emperor himself. It is probable that something had already transpired concerning the papal brief, of which the Legate was the bearer.

"But I came to Augsburg without a safe-conduct," replied Luther, "and I met with no harm."

"The Elector," resumed Langemantel, with affectionate earnestness, "commended you to our care; you ought, therefore, to follow our directions."

Doctor Auerbach added his entreaties to those of Langemantel. "We know," said he, "that the Cardinal is, in his heart, enraged against you to the greatest degree.§ We must not trust these Italians."||

The canon, Adelmann, spoke to the same effect: "They have sent you without protection," said he, "and they have neglected to provide you with the very thing which you most need."¶

His friends took upon themselves to obtain the necessary safe-conduct from the Emperor. They then proceeded to tell Luther how many persons of consequence were favourably disposed toward him. "The French minister himself, who left Augsburg a few days ago, spoke of you most honourably."** This remark struck Luther, and he remembered it afterward. Thus

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 179.

† Hunc Sinonem parum consultè instructum arte pelasgæ. (L. Opp. i. p. 144: see Virgil's Æneid, Book 2.)

‡ Mediator ineptus. (Ibid.)

§ Sciunt enim eum in me exacerbatissimum intus, quicquid simulet foris. . . (L. Opp. i. p. 143.)

|| L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 201.

¶ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 203.

** Seckendorf, p. 144.

* The Pope's Bull. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 174.)

† Et nunc solo omnia abrogare, etiam ea quæ fidei assent. (L. Opp. i. 144.)

some of the most remarkable citizens of one of the first cities in the empire were already gained over to the Reformation.

Their conversation had reached this point, when Serra Longa returned :—"Come," said he to Luther, "the Cardinal is waiting for you. I will myself conduct you to him. But first let me tell you how you must appear in his presence. When you enter the room where he is sitting, you must prostrate yourself with your face to the ground; when he tells you to rise, you must kneel before him, and you must not stand erect till he orders you to do so.* Remember that it is before a prince of the church you are about to appear. As to the rest, fear nothing; all will soon be settled without any difficulty."

Luther, who had before promised to accompany Serra Longa whenever he should summon him, was embarrassed. However, he did not fail to repeat the advice of his Augsburg friends, and said something of a safe-conduct.

"Beware of asking anything of the sort," replied Serra Longa, quickly; "you have no need of it whatever. The Legate is well disposed toward you, and quite ready to end the affair amicably. If you ask for a safe-conduct, you will spoil all.†"

"My gracious lord, the Elector of Saxony," replied Luther, "recommended me to several honourable men in this town. They advise me not to venture without a safe-conduct: I ought to follow their advice. Were I to neglect it, and anything should befall me, they would write to the Elector, my master, that I would not hearken to them."

Luther persisted in his resolution; and Serra Longa was obliged to return to his employer, and report to him the failure of his mission, at the very moment when he fancied it would be crowned with success.

Thus ended that day's conference with the orator of Montferrat.

Luther received another invitation, proceeding from very different motives. John Frosch, prior of the Carmelites, was an old friend. Two years before, he had maintained some theses, as a licentiate in theology, under the superintendence of Luther. He called on him, and pressed him to come and stay with him. He laid claim to the honour of having the Doctor of all Germany as his guest. Already men did not fear to render him homage in the face of Rome; already the weak was become the stronger. Luther accepted the invitation, and accordingly removed from the convent of the Augustines to that of the Carmelites.

The day did not close without his seriously reflecting on his position. The visit of Serra Longa, and the apprehensions of the counsellors, concurred to convince him of the difficult circumstances in which he stood. Nevertheless, he had God in heaven for his protector, and in His keeping he could sleep in peace.

The next day was Sunday; he obtained a little more rest. However, he was obliged to bear another kind of fatigue. Nothing was talked of in the city but Dr. Luther, and all desired to see (as he wrote to Melancthon) "the new Erostratus who had kindled so vast a conflagration." They crowded about him; and the good Doctor, doubtless, smiled at this strange excitement.

But he had also to support another sort of importunity. If there was a general wish to see him, there was a still greater desire to hear him. He was asked on all sides to preach. Luther had no greater joy than to proclaim the Gospel. He would have rejoiced to preach Christ in this great city, and in the solemn circumstances in which he was placed. But on this, as

on many occasions, he manifested a most proper feeling of decorum, and much respect for his superiors. He declined to preach, in the fear that the Legate might think he did so to vex and to brave him. This moderation and prudence were assuredly as valuable instructions as a sermon.

However, the Cardinal's agents did not let him rest, but returned to the charge. "The Cardinal," said they, "sends you assurances of his grace and favour: why are you afraid?" And they endeavoured by every possible argument to persuade him to wait upon the Legate. "He is so gracious, that he is like a father," said one of these emissaries. But another, going close up to him, whispered: "Do not believe what they say. There is no dependance to be placed upon his words."* Luther persisted in his resolution.

On the morning of Monday, the 10th of October, Serra Longa again renewed his persuasions. The courtier had made it a point of honour to succeed in his negotiations. The moment he entered:

"Why," he asked in Latin, "why do you not go to the Cardinal? He is expecting you in the most indulgent frame of mind. With him the whole question is summed up in six letters: *Revoca—retract*. Come, then, with me, you have nothing to fear."

Luther thought within himself that those were six very important letters; but without farther discussion, he replied:

"As soon as I have received the safe-conduct, I will appear."

Serra Longa lost his temper at these words. He persisted—he brought forward additional reasons for compliance. But Luther was immovable. The Italian courtier, still irritated, exclaimed:

"You imagine, no doubt, that the Elector will take up arms in your favour, and risk, for your sake, the loss of the dominions he inherits from his ancestors."

LUTHER.—"God forbid!"

SERRA LONGA.—"When all forsake you, where will you take refuge?"

LUTHER, *smiling, and looking upward with the eye of faith*—"Under heaven!"†

For an instant Serra Longa was struck dumb by this sublime and unexpected reply; he then continued:

"How would you act if you had the Legate, the Pope, and all the Cardinals in your power, as they have you, at this moment, in theirs?"

LUTHER.—"I would pay them all respect and honour. But the word of God is with me—above all."

SERRA LONGA, *laughing, and moving one of his fingers backward and forward, in a manner peculiar to the Italians*.—"Ha! ha! all proper honour! I do not believe a word of it!"

He then left the house, leaped into his saddle, and disappeared.

Serra Longa went no more to Luther; but he long remembered the resistance he had met with from the Reformer, and that which his master was doomed soon after to experience in person. We shall find him again, at a later period, loudly demanding the blood of Luther.

Shortly after Serra Longa had left Luther, the latter received the safe-conduct. His friends had procured it from the Imperial counsellors. It is probable that they had consulted the Emperor on the subject, as he was not far from Augsburg. It would even seem, from what the Cardinal afterward said, that, from a wish to avoid offending him, they had asked his consent to their application; perhaps that may have been the reason why De Vio sounded Luther through Serra

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii., p. 305.

† Et ubi manebis? . . . Respondi: Sub. Cælo. (L. Opp. in præf.)

* Seckendorf, p. 130.

† L. Opp. (L.) 179.

Longa; for to oppose openly the giving him a safe-conduct, would have discovered intentions that it was wished to conceal. It seemed a safer policy to persuade Luther himself to desist from the demand. But it soon became evident that the Saxon monk was not likely to yield.

Luther was about to appear before the Legate. In requiring a safe-conduct, he did not lean upon an arm of flesh, for he well remembered that the Emperor's safe-conduct had not saved John Huss from the flames. He only desired to do his duty by following the advice of his master's friends. The Lord would decide his cause. If God required his life, he was ready, joyfully, to lay it down. At this solemn moment, he felt the need of once more communicating with his friends, and especially with Melancthon, already so endeared to him; and he availed himself of an interval of leisure to write to him.

"Shew yourself a man," said he, "as you are ready to do. Instruct the youth of our beloved country in what is right and agreeable to the will of God. As for me, I am going to offer up myself for you and for them,* if it be the Lord's will. I prefer death, yea, even, what to me would be the greatest misfortune, the loss of your valued society, to retracting what it was my duty to teach, and perhaps ruining by my failure the noble cause to which we are devoted.

"Italy is involved, as Egypt was formerly, in thick darkness, even darkness which may be felt. The whole nation knows nothing of Christ, nor of what pertains to him. And yet they are our lords and masters in the faith and in morals. Thus the wrath of God is fulfilled amongst us; as the prophet says, 'I will give children to be their princes, and babes shall rule over them.' Do your duty to God, my dear Philip, and avert his wrath by fervent and holy prayer."

The Legate, apprised that Luther would appear the next day before him, called together those in whom he had confidence, both Italians and Germans, that he might concert with them how he ought to treat the German monk. Opinions were divided. One said, "We must compel him to retract." Another, "We must arrest him and throw him into prison." A third was of opinion that it would be better to put him out of the way. A fourth, that it would be expedient rather to win him over by gentleness and mildness. The Cardinal seems to have resolved, in the first instance, to make trial of this last method.†

At length the day of conference arrived.‡ The Legate, knowing that Luther had declared himself willing to retract whatever should be proved contrary to the truth, was sanguine as to the result; he did not doubt that one of his rank and learning would, without much difficulty, reclaim the monk to obedience to the Church.

Luther repaired to the house of the Legate, accompanied by the prior of the Carmelites, his friend and host, by two friars of the convent, by Doctor Link, and by an Augustine, probably the same that had accompanied him from Nuremberg. Scarcely had he entered the Legate's palace, when all the Italians, who composed the train of this Prince of the Church, flocked round him, desiring to see the famous Doctor, and pressed him so closely that he could hardly proceed. On entering the room where the Cardinal was waiting for him, Luther found him accompanied by the apostolical nuncio and Serra Longa. His reception was cool, but civil; and, according to Roman etiquette, Luther, following the instructions of Serra Longa, prostrated himself before the Cardinal; when the latter told him to rise, he knelt; and when the cardinal

was repeated, he stood erect. Several of the most distinguished Italians of the Legate's household entered the room, in order to be present at the interview, impatient to see the German monk humble himself before the Pope's representative.

The Legate was silent. He expected, says a contemporary, that Luther would begin his recantation. But Luther waited reverently for the Roman Prince to address him. Finding, however, that he did not open his lips, he understood his silence as an invitation to open the business, and spoke as follows:

"Most worthy father, upon the summons of his Holiness the Pope, and at the desire of my gracious Lord, the Elector of Saxony, I appear before you as a humble and obedient son of the holy Christian Church; and I acknowledge that it was I who published the propositions and theses that are the subject of inquiry. I am ready to listen with all submission to the charges brought against me, and, if I am in error, to be instructed in the truth."

The Cardinal, who had determined to assume the tone of a kind and compassionate father toward an erring child, answered in the most friendly manner, commended Luther's humility, and expressed the joy he felt on beholding it, saying: "My dear son, you have filled all Germany with commotion by your dispute concerning indulgences. I hear that you are a doctor well skilled in the Scriptures, and that you have many followers. If, therefore, you wish to be a member of the Church, and to have in the Pope a most gracious lord, listen to me."

After this exordium, the legate did not hesitate to tell him all that he expected of him, so confident was he of his submission: "Here," said he, "are three articles which, acting under the direction of our most holy Father, Pope Leo the Tenth, I am to propose to you:

"First, you must return to your duty; you must acknowledge your faults, and retract your errors, your propositions, and sermons. Secondly, you must promise to abstain for the future, from propagating your opinions. And, thirdly, you must engage to be more discreet, and avoid everything that may grieve or disturb the church."

LUTHER.—"Most worthy father, I request to be permitted to see the Pope's brief, by virtue of which you have received full power to negotiate this affair."

Serra Longa and the rest of the Italians of the Cardinal's train were struck with astonishment at such a demand; and although the German monk had already appeared to them a strange phenomenon, they were completely disconcerted at so bold a speech. Christians familiar with the principles of justice desire to see them adhered to in proceedings against others or themselves; but, those who are accustomed to act according to their own will, are much surprised when required to proceed regularly and agreeably to form and law.

DE VIO.—"Your command, my son, cannot be complied with. You have to acknowledge your errors; to be careful for the future what you teach; not to return to your vomit; so that you may rest without care and anxiety; and then, acting by the command and on the authority of our most holy father the Pope, I will adjust the whole affair."

LUTHER.—"Deign, then, to inform me wherein I have erred."

At this request, the Italian courtiers, who had expected to see the poor German fall upon his knees and implore mercy, were still more astonished than before. Not one of them would have condescended to answer so impertinent a question. But De Vio, who thought it scarcely generous to crush this feeble monk by the

* Ego pro illis et vobis vado immolari. (L. Epp. i. 146.)

† L. Opp. (L.) xvii., p. 113. ‡ Tuesday, 11th of October.

weight of all his authority, and trusted, moreover, to his own learning for obtaining an easy victory, consented to tell Luther what he was accused of, and even to enter into discussion with him. "We must do justice to the general of the Dominicans. It must be acknowledged, that he showed more equity, a greater sense of propriety, and less irritation, than have subsequently been exhibited in a majority of similar cases. He assumed a tone of condescension, and said :

"My beloved son! there are two propositions put forward by you, which you must, before all, retract: 1st. 'The treasure of indulgences does not consist of the merits and sufferings of our Lord Jesus Christ.' 2dly. 'The man who receives the holy sacrament must have faith in the grace offered to him.'"

Both these propositions did indeed strike a death-blow at the commerce of Rome. If the Pope had not power to dispose at will of the Saviour's merits—if, on receiving the paper in which the brokers of the Church traded, men did not acquire a portion of that infinite righteousness—this paper currency lost its value, and men would count it no better than a mere rag. And thus also with the sacraments. The indulgences were, in some sense, an extraordinary branch of commerce with Rome; the sacraments made part of her ordinary traffic. The revenue they yielded was by no means small. But to assert that faith was necessary to make them productive of any real benefit to the soul of the Christian, was to rob them of their attraction in the sight of the people. For faith is not in the Pope's gift; it is beyond his power, and can come from God alone. To declare its necessity was, therefore, to snatch from the hands of Rome both the speculation and the profits attached to it. In assailing these two doctrines, Luther had followed the example of Christ himself. In the very beginning of his ministry he had overturned the tables of the money-changers, and driven the dealers out of the temple. "Make not my father's house a house of merchandise."

Cajetan continued: "I will not bring forward the authority of St. Thomas, and the other scholastic doctors to confute these errors; I will rest entirely on the Holy Scriptures, and speak to you in perfect friendship."

Nevertheless, when De Vio proceeded to bring forward his proofs, he departed from the rule he had laid down.* He combated Luther's first proposition by an *Extravagance* or *Constitution*† of Pope Clement; and the second, by all sorts of opinions from the scholastic divines. The discussion turned at its outset upon this constitution of the Pope in favour of indulgences. Luther, indignant at hearing what authority the Legate attributed to a decree of Rome, exclaimed:

"I cannot receive such constitutions as sufficient proofs on subjects so important. For they wrest the holy Scriptures, and never quote them to the purpose."

De Vio.—"The Pope has authority and power over all things."

LUTHER (*warmly*).—"Save the Scriptures."‡

De Vio (*in derision*).—"Save the Scriptures! Do not you know that the Pope is higher than the Councils, for he recently condemned and punished the council of Bale."

LUTHER.—"But the university of Paris has appealed against his decision."

De Vio.—"Those gentlemen of Paris will receive their desert."

The Cardinal and Luther then proceeded to discuss the second article, namely the *faith* that Luther de-

clared to be necessary to render the sacraments efficacious. Luther, pursuing his usual method, quoted, in favour of the opinion that he maintained, several passages of Scripture. But the Legate received them with derision. "It is of faith in general that you are speaking now," said he. "Not so," replied Luther. One of the Italians, the Legate's master of the ceremonies, provoked at Luther's resistance and answers, was burning with desire to speak. He often attempted to interrupt the conversation; but the Legate commanded silence. At last, he was obliged to reprove him in so authoritative a tone, that the master of the ceremonies left the room in confusion.*

"As to indulgences," said Luther to the Legate, "if you can prove to me that I am mistaken, I am ready to receive instruction. We may leave that subject open, without compromising our faith as Christians. But as to that other article concerning *faith*, if I yielded anything here, I should be denying Christ. I cannot, therefore, and I will not, yield that point; and, by God's help, I will hold it to the end."

De Vio (*beginning to lose temper*).—"Whether you will or will not, you *must* this very day retract that article, or else for that article alone, I will proceed to reject and condemn all your doctrine."

LUTHER.—"I have no will but the Lord's. He will do with me what seemeth good in his sight. But had I a hundred heads, I would rather lose them all than retract the testimony I have borne to the holy Christian faith."

De Vio.—"I am not come here to argue with you. Retract, or prepare to endure the punishment you have deserved."†

Luther clearly perceived that it was impossible to end the affair by a conference. His adversary was seated before him, as though he himself were pope, and required a humble submission to all that he said to him, while he received Luther's answers, even when grounded on the Holy Scriptures, with shrugs, and every kind of irony and contempt. He thought the most prudent plan would be to answer the cardinal in writing. This means, thought he, offered at least one consolation to the oppressed. Others might then give their judgment of the affair: and the unjust adversary, who, by clamour, remained master of the field, might be overawed by the public voice.‡

Having, therefore, shown a disposition to withdraw: "Do you wish," said the Legate to him, "that I should give you a safe-conduct to repair to Rome?"

Nothing would have pleased Cajetan better than the acceptance of this offer. He would thus have got rid of an affair of which he began to perceive the difficulties, and Luther and his heresy would have fallen into the hands of those who would have known how to deal with them. But the Reformer, who was sensible of the dangers that surrounded him even at Augsburg, took care to refuse an offer that would have delivered him up, bound hand and foot, to the vengeance of his enemies. He rejected the proposal as often as De Vio chose to repeat it; which he did several times. The Legate concealed the chagrin he felt at Luther's refusal; he assumed an air of dignity, and dismissed the monk with a compassionate smile, under which he endeavoured to hide his disappointment, and, at the same time, with the politeness of one who hopes to have better success another time.

Hardly had Luther reached the court-yard of the palace, when the loquacious Italian, the master of the ceremonies whom the Cardinal's reprimands had obliged to leave the hall of audience, delighted at being able

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii., p. 180.

† This name is given to certain Constitutions of the Popes, collected and appended to the Canon Law.

‡ *Salva Scriptura*.

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 180.

† L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 180, 183, 206, &c.

‡ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 209.

to speak to him 'out of the hearing of Cajetan, and eager to confound the abominable heretic by his overpowering arguments, ran after him, and, before he came up with him, began to deal out his sophisms. But Luther, disgusted with the man's folly, answered him with one of those sarcastic rebukes which he always had at command, and the master of the ceremonies, quite confounded, turned back, and slunk abashed to the Cardinal's palace.

Luther had not been impressed with a very high opinion of his dignified adversary. He had heard from him, as he afterward wrote to Spalatin, assertions which were quite contrary to sound theology, and which, in the mouth of another, would have been considered arch-heresies. And yet De Vio was looked upon as the most learned of the Dominicans. Next to him stood Prierias. "We may judge from this," said Luther, "what those must be who fill the tenth or the hundredth rank!"*

On the other hand, the noble firmness of the Doctor of Wittenberg had greatly surprised the Cardinal and all his courtiers. Instead of a poor monk suing abjectly for pardon, they beheld a man of independent spirit, an undaunted Christian, an enlightened Doctor, who required them to bring proofs to support their unjust accusations, and courageously defended his own doctrine. The inmates of Cajetan's palace exclaimed with one voice against the pride, obstinacy, and effrontery of the heretic. Luther and De Vio had learned to know one another, and both were preparing themselves for a second interview.

A joyful surprise awaited Luther on his return to the convent of the Carmelites. The Vicar-general of the order of the Augustines, his friend, his father, Staupitz, had arrived there. Not having been able to prevent Luther from going to Augsburg, Staupitz gave his friend a new and affecting proof of his attachment, by joining him in that city, with the hope of rendering him some service. This excellent man foresaw that the conference with the Legate would have momentous results. His fears and his friendship for Luther combined to disturb him. It was a balm to the Reformer's heart, after that trying conference, to embrace so precious a friend. He related to him how he had found it impossible to obtain a satisfactory answer, and how he had been required to recant without even an attempt to convict him of error. "You must absolutely," said Staupitz, "answer the Legate in writing."

After what he had heard of this first interview, Staupitz expected no good result from any succeeding one. He therefore determined upon a step which he thought present circumstances made necessary; he decided to release Luther from the obligation of obedience to his order. Staupitz proposed, by this means, to attain two objects: if, as he could not but forebode, Luther should fail in his undertaking, this proceeding would prevent the disgrace of his condemnation from being reflected on his whole order; and if the Cardinal should enjoin him to oblige Luther to silence or to a recantation, he would have an excuse for non compliance.† This ceremony was gone through in the usual forms. Luther clearly perceived all that it foreboded. His mind was deeply affected by the breaking of ties that he had formed in the enthusiasm of his youth. The order he had chosen now rejected him. His natural protectors forsook him. Already he was become a stranger to his brethren. But though his heart was oppressed with sorrow at the thought, he recovered his serenity by looking to the promises of a faithful God, who has

said: "I will never leave thee; I will never forsake thee."

The Imperial counsellors, having intimated to the Legate, through the Bishop of Trent, that Luther was provided with the Emperor's safe-conduct, at the same time cautioning him against taking any steps against the Reformer's person, De Vio, in a violent passion, abruptly answered, in the true Romish style: "Be it so: but I shall do what the Pope enjoins me."* We know what the Pope's injunctions were.

The next day† both parties prepared for a second interview, which seemed likely to be decisive. Luther's friends, intending to accompany him to the Legate's palace, repaired to the convent of the Carmelites. The Dean of Trent and Peutingier, both imperial counsellors, and Staupitz, arrived one after the other. Beside these, Luther soon had the pleasure of welcoming the knight, Philip von Feilitzsch, and Doctor Ruhel, counsellors of the Elector, who had received orders from their master to be present at the conferences, and to watch over Luther's personal safety. They had arrived at Augsburg on the previous evening. They were commissioned to keep close to him, says Matthesius, as the knight, Chlorn, stood by John Huss at Constance. The Doctor also took a notary with him, and, accompanied by all his friends, repaired to the Legate's palace.

As they set out, Staupitz drew close to Luther; he felt all that his friend would have to endure; he knew that if his eye were not directed toward the Lord, who is the deliverer of his people, he must sink under his trial: "My dear brother," said he, solemnly, "ever bear in mind that you entered on these struggles in the name of our Lord Jesus Christ."‡ It was thus that God encompassed his humble servant with consolations and encouragement.

Luther, on arriving at the Cardinal's, found there a new opponent: this was the prior of the Dominicans of Augsburg, who was seated beside his superior. Luther, in conformity with his resolution, had put his answer in writing. The customary salutations being gone through, he read, with a firm voice, the following declaration:

"I declare that I honour the holy Roman Church, and, moreover, that I will continue to do so. I have sought after truth in my public disputations, and what I have taught, I, to this hour, regard as right, true, and Christian. Nevertheless, I am but a man, and I may be mistaken: I am therefore willing to be instructed and corrected wherever I may have erred. I declare myself ready to answer by word of mouth, or in writing, all objections and all charges that the illustrious Legate may bring against me. I declare myself willing to submit my theses to the decision of the four universities of Bâle, Fribourg in Brisgau, Louvain, and Paris, and to retract whatever they shall declare to be erroneous. In a word, I am ready to do all that can be required of a Christian man. But I solemnly protest against the method that has been pursued in this affair, and against that strange assumption which would oblige me to retract, without having convicted me of error."§

Undoubtedly nothing could be more consonant with reason than these proposals of Luther, and they must have greatly embarrassed a judge who had been previously instructed what judgment he was to pronounce. The Legate, who was quite unprepared for this protest, endeavoured to hide his confusion, by affecting a laugh, and putting on the semblance of mildness.

"This protest," he said to Luther, with a smile, "is

* L. Epp. i. 163.

† Darinn ihn Staupitz von dem Kloster-Gehorsam absolvirt (Math. 16.)

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 201.

‡ Sockend. p. 137.

† Wednesday, 19th Oct.

§ Löcher, ii. 463.

quite unnecessary; I will not dispute with you in public or in private, but my wish is to settle the whole affair with paternal tenderness.*

It was the policy of the Cardinal to lay aside the strict forms of justice, which afford protection to the accused, and to treat the matter as an affair of administration, between a superior and his inferior;—a convenient method, as it leaves the fullest scope to the exercise of arbitrary power.

Continuing in the most affectionate tone:—"My dear friend," said De Vio, "I beseech you to abandon this useless design; but rather return to a sense of duty, acknowledge the truth, and behold me ready to reconcile you to the Church, and to the supreme bishop. . . . Retract, my friend, retract; such is the Pope's will. Whether it be your will or not, matters little; you would find it hard to kick against the pricks. . . ."

Luther, who saw himself already treated as a rebellious child, rejected by the Church, exclaimed: "I cannot retract! but I offer to answer, and in writing. We had enough of contention—yesterday."

De Vio was provoked at this expression, which reminded him that he had not acted with sufficient discretion; but he recovered himself, and said, smiling:

"Contention! my dear son; I did not contend with you. I am as little inclined as yourself to contention; but to gratify his Highness the Elector Frederic, I am ready to hear you, and exhort you as a friend and a father."

Luther did not understand why the Legate should have taken umbrage at the phrase he had made use of; for, thought he to himself, if I had not wished to be courteous, I should not have said "contend," but "dispute" and "quarrel," for that was what we really did yesterday.

However, De Vio, who felt that, before the respectable witnesses present at the conference, he must at least appear to convince Luther, and endeavour to crush him by argument, reverted to the two propositions which he had pointed out as fundamental errors, fully resolved to allow the Reformer the fewest possible opportunities of reply. Relying on Italian volubility, he overwhelmed him with objections, without waiting for an answer. Sometimes he sneered, sometimes he chided; he declaimed with passionate energy; he jumbled together the most incongruous things; quoted St. Thomas and Aristotle; exclaimed and raved against all who differed from them; and broke out in invective against Luther. Again and again the latter attempted to reply; but the Legate instantly interrupted him and overwhelmed him with threats. "Recant! recant!" was the burden of his harangue; he stormed, enacted the dictator, and put down all effort to reply.† Staupitz undertook to stop the Legate. "Deign to allow Doctor Martin time to answer," said he. But the Legate resumed his harangue: he quoted the *extravagances* and the opinions of St. Thomas: he had resolved to have all the talk to himself. Unable to convince, and fearing to strike, he would at least stun by his violence.

Luther and Staupitz clearly perceived that they must not only forego all hope of enlightening De Vio by discussion, but also of making any useful confession of the faith. Luther, therefore, renewed the request he had made at the beginning of the interview, and which the Cardinal had then eluded. And not being permitted to speak, he requested that he might be allowed at least to put his answer in writing, and send it to the Legate. Stupitz seconded his request; several of the company present joined in his sollicita-

tions; and Cajetan, in spite of his dislike to written documents—for he remembered that such documents are lasting—at length consented. They separated. The hope which had been conceived, that the affair might be terminated at this interview, was thus adjourned, and it was necessary to await the result of the ensuing conference.

The permission granted to Luther, by the general of the Dominicans, to take time for reflection, and to write his answer to the two distinct allegations brought against him relating to the indulgences—and to faith—was undoubtedly no more than strict justice; and yet we must give De Vio credit for it, as a mark of moderation and impartiality.

Luther left the Cardinal's palace, rejoicing that his just request had been granted. In his way to, and from, the palace, he was the object of general attention. Enlightened men were interested in his cause, as if they themselves were about to stand upon their trial. It was felt that it was the cause of the gospel, of justice, and of liberty, which was then to be pleaded at Augsburg. The lower orders alone sided with Cajetan, and they, doubtless, gave the Reformer significant proofs of their disposition, for he took notice of it.*

It daily became more evident that the Legate would hear nothing from him save the words, "I retract;" and those words Luther was determined not to utter. What issue could be looked for in so unequal a struggle? How could it, for a moment, be thought, that the whole power of Rome, arrayed against one man, could fail, in the end, to crush him? Luther saw all this; he felt the pressure of that heavy hand under which he had dared to place himself; he despaired of ever returning to Wittenberg, of seeing his dear Philip again, and once more finding himself encircled by those noble youths, in whose hearts he so delighted to sow the seeds of everlasting life. He saw the sentence of excommunication suspended over his head, and did not doubt that it would shortly fall upon him.† These forebodings distressed him, but did not cast him down. His trust in God was not shaken. God may, indeed, destroy the instrument he has hitherto made use of; but he will maintain the truth. Whatever may happen, Luther must defend it to the last. With these feelings, therefore, he began to prepare the protest he intended to present to the Legate. It seems he devoted to that purpose a part of the 13th of October.

On the following day, Luther returned to the Cardinal's palace, attended by the counsellors of the Elector. The Italians crowded round him as usual, and a number of them were present at the conference. Luther stepped forward and presented his protest to the Legate. The Cardinal's attendants gazed intently on his writing, in their eyes, so daring and presumptuous. The following is the declaration which the Doctor of Wittenberg handed to their master:‡

"You charge me upon two points. And first you bring against me the constitution of Pope Clement VI., in which it is asserted that the treasure of indulgences is the merit of the Lord Jesus Christ, and of the saints; an assertion which I deny in my theses.

"Panormitanus," continues he, (applying that designation to Ives, Bishop of Chartres, toward the close of the eleventh century, and author of the famous collection of ecclesiastical law called *Panormia*)—"Panormitanus in his first book declares, that, in what pertains to our holy faith, not only a General Council, but even a private Christian, is above the Pope, if he can adduce clearer testimony from the Scriptures, and

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 181, 209.

† L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 181. 209. *Decies ferè cœpi ut loquerer, toties rursus tonabat et solus regnabat.*

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 186.

† L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 187.

‡ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 185.

better reasons.* The voice of our Lord Jesus Christ is far above the voice of all men, by whatever names they may be called.

"What most disturbs me, and excites my most painful reflections, is, that this constitution contains in it many things altogether contrary to the truth. First, it asserts that the *merits* of the saints form a treasury; whilst the whole volume of Scripture testifies that God rewards us far more richly than we have deserved. The prophet exclaims: 'Enter not into judgment with thy servant, O Lord, for in thy sight shall no man living be justified.'† 'Woe to man,' says St. Augustine, 'however honourable and praise-worthy his life may be, if God were to pronounce a judgment upon him from which mercy should be excluded.'‡

"Thus, then, the saints are not saved by their merits, but solely by the mercy of God, as I have declared. I maintain this, and I take my stand upon it. The words of Holy Scripture, which teach us that the saints have not *merit* enough, ought to be more regarded than those words of men, which affirm that they have merits in superabundance. For the Pope is not above, but under the authority of, the word of God."

Luther did not stop there: he showed, that if the indulgences could not consist in the merits of the saints, neither could they consist in the merits of Christ. He proved that the indulgences were barren and unprofitable, since they had no other effect than to excuse men from good works, such as prayer, alms, &c. "No," he exclaimed, "the righteousness of Christ Jesus is not a treasure of indulgences, excusing us from good works, but a treasure of grace quickening us to perform them. The righteousness of Christ is applied to the faithful, not by indulgences, not by the keys, but by the Holy Ghost alone, and not by the Pope. If any one holds an opinion resting on better foundations than mine," added he, in concluding what referred to this first point, "let him make it known, and then will I retract."

"I have affirmed," said he, adverting to the second charge, "that no man can be justified before God except by faith; so that it is necessary that a man should believe with a perfect confidence that he has received pardon. To doubt of this grace is to reject it. The faith of the just is his righteousness and his life."§

Luther supported his proposition by many texts from Scripture.

"Deign, then, to intercede in my behalf with our most holy lord the Pope, Leo X., that he may not treat me with so much severity. My soul seeks the light of truth. I am not so proud, nor so set upon vain-glory, that I should be ashamed to retract, if I had taught what is not agreeable to the truth. My greatest joy will be to see the triumph of that doctrine which is according to the mind of God. Only let me not be forced to do anything that is against my conscience."

The Legate took the declaration which Luther presented, and, after looking it over, said coolly: "You have wasted many words, and written what is little to the purpose; you have replied very foolishly to the two charges brought against you, and you have covered your paper with numerous passages from the holy Scriptures that have no reference whatever to the subject." De Vio, then, with a contemptuous gesture,

threw down Luther's protest, as if unworthy of his regard; and, resuming the tone which had in some degree been successful in the last interview, he renewed the cry that Luther must retract. The latter was inflexible. "Brother! brother!" cried De Vio, in Italian, "when you were last here you were very docile; but, to-day, you are altogether intractable." Then the Cardinal began a long speech, borrowed from the writings of St. Thomas; he again extolled with all his might the constitution of Clement VI.; he persisted in maintaining that, in virtue of that constitution, the very merits of Christ are distributed to the faithful by means of the indulgences: he thought he had silenced Luther. The latter, at times, attempted to speak; but De Vio scolded and thundered on without intermission; and, as on the previous occasion, claimed the sole right to be heard.

This manner of proceeding had, on the first occasion, been in some measure successful; but Luther was not a man to bear with it a second time. His indignation at length broke forth, and it was now his turn to astonish the bystanders, who thought him already conquered by the prelate's volubility. He raised his sonorous voice: he took up the Cardinal's favourite objection, and made him pay dearly for his temerity in entering the lists against him. "Retract! retract!" repeated De Vio, showing him the constitution of the Pope. "Well!" said Luther, "only prove to me, by this constitution, that the treasure of indulgences is the *very merit* of Christ, and I consent to retract, according to the will and pleasure of your eminence. . . ."

The Italians, who had not expected this, exulted at his words, and could not repress their joy at seeing the adversary at length taken in the toils. As to the Cardinal, he was like one beside himself; he laughed aloud—but it was an indignant and angry laugh; he stepped forward, took up the volume containing the famous constitution, turned over the leaves, found the passage, and, elated with the advantage he thought he had secured, read it aloud with breathless eagerness.* The Italians were now triumphant; the counsellors of the Elector were anxious and embarrassed; Luther waited the right moment. At last, when the Cardinal came to these words, "The Lord Jesus Christ acquired this treasure by his sufferings," Luther interrupted him; "Most worthy father," said he, "deign to consider this passage well, and to meditate upon it carefully: 'He has acquired.'† Christ has acquired a treasure by *his merits*; the merits then are not the treasure; for, to speak with philosophic precision, the cause is a different thing from that which flows from it. The merits of Christ have acquired for the Pope the power of giving such indulgences to the people; but they are not the very merits of the Lord which the Pope distributes. Thus, then, my conclusion is *true*, and this constitution, which you so loudly appeal to, testifies with me to the truth which I declare."

De Vio still held the book in his hand; his eyes still rested on the fatal passage: the inference was unanswerable. Behold him taken in the very net he had spread for another; and Luther, with a strong hand, held him fast, to the utter astonishment of the Italian courtiers who surrounded him. The Legate would have eluded the difficulty; but all retreat was closed. From an early stage of the discussion he had given up the testimony of the Scriptures, and that of the Fathers; and had sheltered himself under this *extravagance* of Clement VI., and now he was taken in his strong hold. Still he was too artful to betray his embarrassment. In order to conceal his confusion, the

* *Ostendit in materiâ fidei non modò generale concilium esse super papam sed etiam quælibet fidelium, si melioribus nitatur auctoritate et ratione quam papa.* (L. Opp. lat. i. p. 209.)

† Confess ix.

‡ Ps. 143. 2.
§ *Justitia justi et vita ejus, est fides ejus.* (L. Opp. lat. i. p. 211.)

* *Legit servens et anhelans.* (L. Epp. i. p. 145.)

† *Acquisivit.* (L. Epp. i. p. 145.)

Cardinal abruptly changed the subject, and vehemently attacked Luther on other points of difference. Luther, who detected this skilful manœuvre, drew tighter on every side the net in which he had taken his opponent, making it impossible for him to escape: "Most reverend father," said he, in a tone of irony, veiled under the semblance of respect, "your Eminence must not suppose that we Germans are altogether ignorant of grammar: to be a treasure, and to purchase a treasure, are two very different things."

"Retract!" exclaimed De Vio, "retract! or I will send you to Rome, there to appear before the judges commissioned to take cognizance of your cause. I will excommunicate you, and all your partizans, and all who shall at any time countenance you; and will cast them out of the Church. Full power has been given to me for this purpose by the holy apostolic see.* Think you, that your protectors will stop me? Do you imagine that the Pope can fear Germany? The Pope's little finger is stronger than all the princes of Germany put together."†

"Condescend," replied Luther, "to forward the written answer I have given you to Pope Leo X., with my most humble prayers."

The Legate, at these words, glad to have a momentary respite, again assumed an air of dignity, and turning to Luther, said in a haughty and angry tone:

"Retract, or return no more!"‡

The expression struck Luther. He must now answer in another manner than by words. He made an obeisance and withdrew. The counsellors of the Elector followed, and the Cardinal and his Italians, left alone, looked at each other utterly confounded at the result of the discussion.

Luther and De Vio never met again: but the Reformer had made a powerful impression on the Legate, which was never entirely effaced. What Luther had said concerning faith, what De Vio read in the subsequent writings of the Doctor of Wittenberg, considerably changed the Cardinal's sentiments. The theologians of Rome saw with surprise and dissatisfaction the opinions touching justification, which he brought forward in his commentary upon the Epistle to the Romans. The Reformation did not recede, nor did the Reformer retract; but his judge, who had so repeatedly commanded him to retract, changed his views—and himself, indirectly retracted his errors. Thus the unshaken fidelity of the Reformer was crowned with reward.

Luther returned to the monastery where he had been a guest. He had stood firm: he had borne witness to the truth; he had done what it was his duty to do; God would do the rest. His heart overflowed with joy and peace.

However, the tidings that were brought him were not encouraging; a rumour prevailed throughout the city that, if he did not retract, he was to be seized and thrown into a dungeon. The Vicar-general of the order, Staupitz himself,§ it was asserted, had given his consent to this. Luther could not believe that his friend would act in this manner. No! Staupitz could not betray him! As to the designs of the Cardinal, his own words had thrown sufficient light upon them. Yet Luther would not flee from the danger; his life, as well as the truth itself, was in powerful keeping, and, in spite of all these threatenings, he determined not to leave Augsburg.

The Legate soon repented of his violence; he felt that he had forgotten the part it was his policy to play, and wished to resume it. Hardly had Staupitz dined,

(for the interview had taken place in the morning—and dinner was served at noon,) when he received a message from the Cardinal, inviting him to his house. Staupitz repaired thither, accompanied by Wenceslaus Link.* The Vicar-general found the Legate alone with Serra Longa. De Vio immediately advanced toward Staupitz, and addressed him in the gentlest manner—"Try now," said he, "to prevail upon your monk, and induce him to retract. Really, I am pleased with him on the whole, and he has no better friend than myself."†

STAUPITZ.—"I have already done my endeavours, and I will now again advise him humbly to submit to the church."

De Vio.—"You must give him proper answers to the arguments that he adduces from the Scriptures."

STAUPITZ.—"I must confess, my lord, that *that* is beyond my power; for Doctor Martin is more than a match for me, both in acuteness and in knowledge of the Scriptures."

The Cardinal smiled, we may imagine, at the Vicar-general's frank confession. His own experience, moreover, had taught him the difficulty of convicting Luther of error. He continued addressing himself to Link as well as to Staupitz:

"Are you aware that, as favourers of heretical doctrine, you are yourselves exposed to the penalties of the church?"

STAUPITZ.—"Deign to resume the conference with Luther, and open a public disputation on the controverted points."

De Vio, alarmed at the thought of such a measure, exclaimed—"I will argue no more with the beast. Those eyes of his are too deeply set in his head, and his looks have too much meaning in them."‡

Staupitz finally obtained the Cardinal's promise that he would state in writing what he required Luther to retract.

The Vicar-general then returned to Luther. In some degree shaken by the representations of the Cardinal, he endeavoured to lead him to some concession. "Refute them," said Luther; "the Scriptures I have brought forward." "That is beyond my power," said Staupitz. "Very well," replied Luther, "my conscience will not allow me to retract until the passages of Scripture can be shown to have another meaning. And so," continued he, "the Cardinal professes his willingness to settle the affair in this way, without subjecting me to disgrace or detriment. Ah! these are fine Italian words, but, in plain German, they mean nothing less than my everlasting shame and ruin. What better can he look for who, from fear of man, and against his own conscience, denies the truth!"§

Staupitz desisted; he merely informed Luther that the Cardinal had consented to send him in writing the points on which he required his recantation. He then, doubtless, acquainted him with his intention of leaving Augsburg, where he had nothing more to do. Luther communicated to him a purpose he had formed for comforting and strengthening their souls. Staupitz promised to return, and they separated for a short time.

Left alone in his cell, Luther's thoughts turned toward the friends most dear to his heart. His thoughts wandered to Weimar and to Wittenberg. He wished to tell the Elector what was passing, and thinking there might be impropriety in addressing the Prince in person, he wrote to Spalatin, and begged the chaplain to let his master know the state of his affairs. He related

* Ibid. p. 204.

† Ibid. p. 185.

‡ Ego nolo amplius cum hac bestia disputare. Habet enim profundus oculos et mirabiles speculationes in capite suo. (Myconius, p. 33.)

§ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 120.

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 197.

† L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1331.

‡ Revoca aut non revertere. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 202.)

§ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 210.

to him all that had passed, even to the promise the Legate had just made, to send a statement of the controverted points in writing. He concluded by saying : * " Thus the matter stands ; but I have neither hope nor confidence in the Legate. I am resolved not to retract a single syllable. I shall publish the answer that I have put into his hands, in order that, if he proceed to violence, he may be covered with shame in the sight of all Christendom."

The Doctor next availed himself of the few moments that were still remaining, to send tidings of himself to his friends at Wittemberg.

" Peace and happiness ! " he wrote to Doctor Carlstadt. " Accept these few words in place of a long letter : for time and events are pressing. Another time, I hope to write to you and others more fully. For three days my affair has been in hand, and things are at such a point, that I have no longer a hope of seeing you again, and have nothing to expect but excommunication. The Legate will not allow me to defend myself, either publicly or in private. His wish, he tells me, is to act the part of a father, not of a judge ; and yet he will hear nothing from me but the words : ' I retract, and acknowledge that I have been in error.' And those are words I will not utter ! The peril in which my cause is placed, is so much the greater, because it is judged not only by implacable enemies, but even by men incapable of understanding its merits. However, the Lord God lives and reigns : to His keeping I commend myself ; and I doubt not that in answer to the prayers of pious souls, He will send me deliverance : "*I seem to feel that prayer is being made for me !*"

" Either I shall return to you unhurt ; or else, under a sentence of excommunication, I must seek shelter elsewhere.

" Whatever may happen to me, quit yourself manfully ; stand fast, and glorify Christ joyfully and without fear. . . .

" The Cardinal always styles me ' his dear son.' I know how little that means. Still I am persuaded I should be to him one of the dearest and most acceptable of men, if I would but pronounce the single word : '*Revoco.*' But I will not become a heretic, by renouncing the faith that has made me a Christian. Better far would it be—to be cast out and accursed, and perish at the stake.

" Farewell my dear Doctor ! show this letter to our theologians—to Amsdorff, to Philip, to Otten, and to others, in order that you may pray for me, and also for yourselves ; for it is your cause also that is now trying. It is the cause of the faith of Jesus Christ, and of the grace of God."[†]

Sweet thought ! which ever fills with consolation and peace the hearts of those who have borne witness to Jesus Christ, to his divinity and grace, when the world rains upon them from all sides its censures, its interdicts, and its scorn ! " Our cause is the cause of faith in the Lord." And what sweetness also in the conviction expressed by the Reformer : "*I seem to feel that I am prayed for.*" The Reformation was a work of prayer and of piety toward God. The struggle between Luther and De Vio was, in truth, one of a religious principle, then re-appearing in full vigour, with the expiring strength of the disputatious dialectics of the middle age.

Thus did Luther converse with his absent friends. Staupitz soon returned ; Doctor Ruhel and the knight, Feilitzch, both of them sent by the Elector, also visited him, after taking leave of the Cardinal. Some other friends of the Gospel joined them ; and Luther, seeing

thus assembled together these noble-minded men, who were soon to be parted from each other, and from whom he himself was about, perhaps, to be for ever separated, proposed that they should join in celebrating the Lord's Supper. The proposal was agreed to ; and this little assembly of the faithful partook of the body and blood of Christ. What must have been the feelings of the Reformer's friends at the moment when, as they celebrated with him the Lord's Supper, they reflected that this was perhaps the last time that this privilege would be allowed him. What joy and love must have filled the heart of Luther in the consciousness of being so graciously accepted by his Master, at the very moment when men were rejecting him. How solemn must have been that supper ! How sacred that evening ! *

The next day,[†] Luther expected to receive the instructions which the Legate was to send to him.

But not receiving any message from him, he requested his friend Doctor Wenceslaus Link, to wait upon the Cardinal. De Vio received Link most affably, and assured him that he wished to take the most friendly course. " I no longer consider Doctor Martin Luther a heretic," added he ; " I will not, at this time, excommunicate him, unless I receive further instructions from Rome : for I have sent his answer to the Pope by an express." Then, to give a proof of his good intentions towards him, he added : " If Doctor Luther would only retract on the subject of indulgences, the business would soon be concluded ; for, as to faith in the sacraments, that is an article that every one may interpret and understand in his own way." Spalatin, who relates this, adds this sarcastic but just observation : " Whence, it is evident, that Rome attaches more importance to money than to our holy faith and the salvation of souls."[‡]

Link returned to Luther. He found Staupitz there, and gave an account of his visit. When he mentioned the unexpected concession of the Legate : " It would have been well," said Staupitz, " if Doctor Wenceslaus had had a notary and witnesses with him, to have taken down that speech in writing ; for, if such a proposal were made public, it would do no small prejudice to the cause of these Romans."

However, the more the Roman prelate softened his tone, the more confirmed the honest Germans were in their distrust of him. Several of those trustworthy persons to whom Luther had been recommended held a council together : " The Legate," said they, " is preparing some mischief, through this courier he speaks of, and it is much to be feared that you will all be seized and cast into prison."

Staupitz and Wenceslaus, therefore, determined to leave the town ; they embraced Luther, who persisted in remaining at Augsburg, and directed their course by two different roads to Nuremberg, not without many misgivings as to the fate of the magnanimous witness whom they were leaving behind them.

Sunday passed very quietly. Luther waited in vain for a message from the Legate : the latter sent none. He then determined to write to him. Staupitz and Link, before they set out, had begged him to treat the Cardinal with all possible respect. Luther had not yet made trial of Rome and her envoys ; it was his first experience. If his humble deference did not succeed, he would know what to expect in future. But now, at least, he must make trial of it. As to his own share in the matter, not a day passed in which he did not condemn himself, and mourn over his proneness to use expressions stronger than the occasion required ; why should he not confess to the Cardinal what he every

* L. Opp. 149.

† L. Opp. i. 159.

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 173.

† Sunday, 15th Oct.

‡ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 182

day confessed to God? Besides, Luther's heart was easily affected by kindness, and he suspected no evil. He therefore took up his pen, and, with a feeling of respectful goodwill, wrote to the Cardinal as follows:*

"My very worthy father in God, I approach you once more, not personally, but by letter, entreating your fatherly kindness graciously to listen to me.

"The reverend Doctor Staupitz, my very dear father in Christ, has advised me to humble myself, to mistrust my own judgment, and to submit my opinion to the judgment of pious and impartial men. He also commended your fatherly kindness, and has fully convinced me of your friendly disposition towards me. This intelligence has filled me with joy.

"Now, therefore, most worthy father, I confess, as I have already done before, that as I have not shewn, (as they tell me,) sufficient diffidence, gentleness, and respect for the name of the sovereign pontiff; and though my opponents have given me great provocation, I now see that it would have been better to have conducted my cause more meekly, courteously, and reverently, and not to have answered a fool according to his folly, lest I should be like unto him.

"This grieves me very much, and I ask pardon. I will publicly acknowledge it from the pulpit, as indeed I have often done before. I will endeavour, by the grace of God, to speak differently. I will do more: I am ready to promise, of my own accord, not again to say a single word on the subject of indulgences, if this business is arranged. But then, let those also who led me to begin it be compelled, on their part, to moderate their discourses, or to be silent.

"So far as the truth of what I have taught is concerned, the authority of St. Thomas, and of the other doctors, cannot satisfy me. I must hear, (if I am worthy to do so,) the voice of the spouse, which is the Church. For it is certain she hears the voice of the bridegroom, Christ.

"I, therefore, in all humility and submission, entreat you to refer this matter, hitherto so unsettled, to our most holy lord, Leo X., in order that the Church may decide, pronounce, and ordain, and that those who shall be called on to retract, may do so with a good conscience, or believe in all sincerity."

In reading this letter, another reflection occurs to us. We see that Luther did not act upon a pre-conceived plan, but solely in obedience to convictions successively impressed upon his mind and heart. Far removed from any settled scheme or preconcerted opposition, he was sometimes, without suspecting it, in contradiction with himself; earlier convictions were still standing in his mind, although their opposites had already found a place there. And yet it is in these characters of truth and sincerity that some have sought for objections to the Reformation; it is because it followed that necessary law of progression, imposed in everything on the human mind, that some have written the history of its *variations*; it is in those very features that mark its sincerity, and make it honourable, that one of eminent genius has seen the most powerful objections against it.†. Strange perverseness of the mind of man!

Luther received no answer to his letter. Cajetan, and all his courtiers, after being so violently agitated, had suddenly become motionless. What could be the reason of this? Might it not be that calm which precedes a storm? Some viewed the delay in the light in which Pallavicini has represented it. "The Cardinal was waiting," says he, "till the proud monk, like an inflated bellows, should gradually lose the wind which filled him, and become humble."‡ Those who

thought they better understood the ways of Rome, felt sure that the legate intended to arrest Luther, but that not daring to proceed to such extremities on his own authority, on account of the imperial safe-conduct, he was awaiting an answer from Rome to his message. Others could not believe that the cardinal would wait so long. "The Emperor Maximilian," they said, (and in this they might speak the truth,) will no more scruple to give up Luther, for trial by the church, notwithstanding his safe-conduct, than Sigismund did to surrender Huss to the Council of Constance. The legate is, perhaps, now in communication with the emperor. The sanction of Maximilian may every hour be expected. The more opposed he was before to the pope, the more does he seem to seek to please him—and so it will be, till the crown of the empire encircles his grandson's brows." Not a moment was to be lost. "Draw up an appeal to the pope," said the kind-hearted men who surrounded Luther—"draw up an appeal to the pope, and leave Augsburg without delay."

Luther, whose presence in that city, had, for the last four days, been utterly useless, and who had sufficiently proved, by remaining, after the departure of the Saxon councillors, sent by the elector to watch over his safety, that he feared nothing, and was ready to answer for himself, yielded, at last, to the wishes of his friends. But first he resolved to inform de Vio of his intention. He wrote to him on the Tuesday, the eve of his departure. This letter was in a bolder strain than the former. Seeing his advances were unavailing, Luther seems to erect himself in the consciousness of his right, and of the injustice of his enemies.

"Most worthy Father in God," he wrote to de Vio, "your paternal kindness has witnessed, yea, witnessed and sufficiently acknowledged, my obedience. I have undertaken a long journey, in the midst of dangers, in great weakness of body—and, notwithstanding my extreme poverty, at the command of our most holy lord, Leo X.—I have personally appeared before your eminence; and, lastly, I have thrown myself at the feet of his Holiness, and now wait his good pleasure, ready to submit to his judgment, whether he condemn or acquit me. I therefore feel that I have left nothing undone that becomes an obedient son of the church.

"It is my intention, therefore, not uselessly to prolong my stay here; it is, indeed, impossible I should do so, as I want the means; and you have positively forbidden my again appearing before you, unless I would retract.

"Thus, I again set out in the name of the Lord, desiring, if possible, to find some place where I may live in peace. Several persons, of more importance than myself, have persuaded me to appeal from your paternal kindness, and even from our most holy lord, Leo X., ill-informed, to himself, when he shall be better informed on the matter. Though I know that such an appeal will be more agreeable to his Highness, the elector, than a recantation, yet, if it had been my duty only to consult my own feelings, I would not have made it. . . . I have committed no crime—I ought, therefore, to have nothing to fear."

Luther, having written this letter, (which was not delivered to the legate until after his departure,) prepared to leave Augsburg. God had preserved him hitherto, and, with all his heart, he praised the Lord for his protection. But it was his duty not to tempt God. He embraced his friends, Peutingier, Langemantel, the Adelmans, Auerbach, and the prior of the Carmelites, who had afforded him such Christian hospitality. On Wednesday, before daybreak, he was up, and ready to set out. His friends had advised him to take every possible precaution, fearing that if

* This letter bears date the 17th October.

† Bossuet, Hist. des Variations. (Liv. i. p. 25, &c.)

‡ Ut follis ille ventosa elatione distans. . . . (p. 40.)

his departure were known, it might be opposed. He followed their advice as well as he could. A horse, that Staupitz had left at his disposal, was brought to the door of the convent. Once more he bids adieu to his brethren; he then mounts and sets out, without a bridle for his horse, without boots or spurs, and unarmed.

The magistrate of the city had sent him as a guide a horseman, who was well acquainted with the roads. This man conducts him, in the dark, through the silent streets of Augsburg. They direct their course to a little gate in the wall of the city. One of the counsellors, Langemantel, had ordered that it should be opened to him. He is still in the legate's power. The hand of Rome is still over him. Doubtless, if the Italians knew that their prey was escaping, the cry of pursuit would be raised. Who knows whether the intrepid adversary of Rome may not still be seized and thrown into prison? At last, Luther and his guide arrive at the little gate;—they pass through. They are out of Augsburg; and, putting their horses into a gallop, they soon leave the city far behind them.

Luther, on leaving, had deposited his appeal to the pope in the hands of the prior of Pomesaw. His friends advised him not to send it to the legate. The prior was commissioned to have it posted, two or three days after the doctor's departure, on the door of a cathedral, in the presence of a notary, and of witnesses. This was done.

In this writing, Luther declared that he appealed from the most holy father, the pope, ill-informed in this business, to the most holy father in Christ, Leo X. by name, by the grace of God, when *better informed*, &c. &c.* The appeal had been drawn up in the regular form, by the assistance of the imperial notary, Gall de Herbrachten, in the presence of two Augustine monks, Bartholomew Utmair, and Wengel Steinbies. It was dated the 16th of October.

When the cardinal heard of Luther's departure, he was struck with surprise, and, as he affirmed in a letter to the elector, even with alarm and apprehension. He had, indeed, some reason to be vexed. This departure, which so abruptly terminated his negotiations, disconcerted all the hopes which his pride had so long cherished. He had been ambitious of the honour of healing the wounds of the church, and re-establishing the declining influence of the pope in Germany; and not only had the heretic escaped with impunity, but without his having so much as humbled him. The conference had served only to exhibit, in a strong light, on the one hand, the simplicity, uprightness, and firmness of Luther; and, on the other, the imperious and unreasonable procedure of the pope and his representative. Inasmuch as Rome had gained nothing, she had lost; and her authority, not having been reinforced, had, in reality, sustained a fresh check. What will be said of all this at the Vatican? What will be the next despatches received from Rome? The difficulties of the legate's situation will be forgotten, the untoward issue of the affair will be ascribed to his want of skill. Serra Longa, and the rest of the Italians, were furious on seeing themselves, dexterous as they were, outwitted by a German monk. De Vio could hardly conceal his vexation. Such an insult appeared to call for vengeance, and we shall soon see him give utterance to his anger, in a letter to the elector.

Meanwhile, Luther, accompanied by the horseman, continued his journey from Augsburg. He urged his horse, and kept the poor animal at full-speed. He called to mind the real or supposed flight of John Huss,

the manner in which he was overtaken, and the assertion of his adversaries, who affirmed that Huss, having by his flight annulled the emperor's safe-conduct, they had a right to condemn him to the flames.* However, these uneasy feelings did not long occupy Luther's mind. Having got clear from the city, where he had spent ten days under that terrible hand of Rome, which had already crushed so many thousand witnesses for the truth, and shed so much blood—at large, breathing the open air, traversing the villages and plains, and wonderfully delivered by the arm of the Lord, his whole soul overflowed with praise. He might well say: "Our soul is escaped as a bird out of the snare of the fowlers; the snare is broken, and we are delivered. Our help is in the name of God, who made heaven and earth."† Thus was the heart of Luther filled with joy. But his thoughts again reverted to de Vio: "The cardinal," thought he, "would have been well pleased to get me into his power, and send me to Rome. He is, no doubt, mortified that I have escaped from him. He thought he had me in his clutches at Augsburg. He thought he held me fast; but he was holding an eel by the tail. Shame, that these people should set so high a price upon me! They would give many crowns to have me in their power, whilst our Saviour, Christ, was sold for thirty pieces of silver.‡

Luther travelled fourteen leagues the first day. In the evening, when he arrived at the inn where he was to spend the night, he was so fatigued—(his horse, says one of his biographers, had a very rough trot,)—that, on alighting, he was unable to stand, and dropped motionless upon the straw. He, however, enjoyed some rest. The next day he continued his journey. At Nuremberg he found Staupitz, who was engaged in visiting the convents of his order. It was in this city that he first saw the brief that the Pope had sent to Cajetan concerning him. He was indignant at it, and, had he read it before he left Wittemberg, it is very probable he would never have appeared before the Cardinal. "It is impossible to believe," said he, "that any thing so monstrous can have emanated from a Sovereign Pontiff."§

Everywhere on his journey, Luther was an object of general interest. He was returning without having given up any thing. Such a victory gained by a mendicant friar over the representatives of Rome, filled every heart with astonishment. It seemed as if Germany had now its revenge for the Italian contempt of Ultramontanes. God's word had obtained more honour than the word of the Pope. The power which for ages had borne rule, had just received a formidable check. The journey of Luther was a triumph. Men rejoiced at the obstinacy of Rome, because it was likely to hasten her ruin. If she had not insisted on retaining her shameful gains—if she had been prudent enough not to despise the Germans—if she had reformed flagrant abuses—perhaps, according to human calculations, things would have returned to the death-like state from which Luther had awakened. But the Papacy would not yield; and the Doctor was to be constrained to bring many other errors to light, and to advance in the knowledge and manifestation of the truth.

On the 26th of October, Luther arrived at Graefenthal, at the extremity of the woods of Thuringia. He there met Count Albert of Mansfeldt, the same person who had so strongly dissuaded him from going to Augsburg. The Count laughed heartily at his strange equipment. He compelled him to stop, and obliged

* Weissman, Hist. Eccles. i. p. 237.

† L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 202.

‡ L. Epp. i. p. 166.

§ Ps. 124.

* Melius informandum. (L. Opp. lat. i. p. 219.)

him to become his guest: Luther soon afterward continued his journey.

He hastened on, desiring to be at Wittemberg on the 31st of October, in the expectation that the Elector would be there at the feast of All Saints, and that he might have an interview with him. The brief which he had read at Nuremberg had revealed to him all the danger of his situation. In fact, being already condemned at Rome, he could not hope either to continue at Wittemberg, or to find an asylum in a convent, or to dwell any where in peace and safety. The protection of the Elector might, perhaps, avail him; but he was far from being sure of it. He had nothing more to hope from the true friends he had hitherto possessed at this prince's court. Staupitz, having lost the favour he had long enjoyed, was then leaving Saxony. Spalatin, though beloved by Frederic, had not much influence over him. The Elector himself was not sufficiently instructed in the doctrine of the Gospel to expose himself for the sake of it to manifest dangers. However, Luther thought he could not do better than return to Wittemberg, and there wait to see what the eternal and merciful God would do with him. If, as some expected, he were unmolested, he resolved to devote himself entirely to the study and to the instruction of youth.*

Luther got back to Wittemberg on the 30th of October. His haste had been in vain. Neither the Elector nor Spalatin had come to the feast. His friends were delighted to see him again among them. He hastened to inform Spalatin of his arrival. "I have arrived to-day at Wittemberg, safe and sound, through God's mercy," said he; "but how long I shall stay here I know not. . . . I am filled with joy and peace; and find it hard to conceive how the trial I am enduring can appear so grievous to so many distinguished men."

De Vio had not waited long, after the departure of Luther, to pour fourth all his indignation to the Elector. His letter breathed vengeance.

He gave Frederic an account of the conference, with an air of self-satisfaction: "Since brother Martin," said he, in conclusion, "cannot be brought, by paternal measures, to acknowledge his error, and to continue faithful to the Catholic Church, I request your Highness to send him to Rome, or to banish him from your territories. Be assured that this complicated, evil-intentioned, and mischievous affair, cannot be long protracted; for as soon as I shall have informed our most holy lord of all this artifice and malice, he will bring it to a speedy end." In a postscript, written with his own hand, the Cardinal entreated the Elector not to tarnish with shame his own honour, and that of his illustrious ancestors, for the cause of a contemptible monk.†

Never was the soul of Luther roused to higher indignation than when he read the copy of this letter, which the Elector sent him. The sense of the sufferings he was destined to endure, the value of the truth for which he contended, contempt for the conduct of the Roman Legate, together swelled his heart. His answer, written at the moment when his whole soul was thus agitated, is distinguished by that courage, elevation, and faith, which he ever displayed in the most trying circumstances of his life. He gave, in his turn, an account of the conference at Augsburg. He described the deportment of the Cardinal, and thus proceeded:

"I would like to answer the Legate, putting myself in the place of the Elector.

"Prove to me that you understand what you talk

about," I would say to him; 'let the whole discussion be carried on in writing. I will then send brother Martin to Rome, or else I will apprehend him, and have him put to death. I will take care of my own conscience and honour, and I will not allow my glory to be sullied. But as long as your absolute knowledge shuns the light, and only discovers itself by clamour, I cannot put faith in darkness.'

"This," most excellent Prince, is the answer I would make him.

"Let the reverend Legate, or the Pope himself, specify my errors in writing; let them bring forward their reasons; let them instruct me, who desire to be instructed, who ask to be so, who intend what I say, and long for instruction, so that even a Turk would not refuse to satisfy me. If I do not retract and condemn myself, when they have proved to me that the passages of Scripture that I have quoted ought to be understood in a different sense from that in which I have understood them—then, O most excellent Elector! let your Highness be the first to prosecute and expel me, let the university reject me and overwhelm me with indignation. I will go further, and I call heaven and earth to witness, let the Lord Christ Jesus himself reject and condemn me! These are not words of vain presumption, but of firm conviction. Let the Lord deprive me of his grace, and every creature of God refuse to countenance me, if, when I have been shown a better doctrine, I do not embrace it.

"But if, on account of my low estate, and because I am but a poor mendicant brother, they despise me, and so refuse to instruct me in the way of truth, let your Highness beg the Legate to inform you in writing wherein I have erred; and if they refuse this favour to your Highness yourself, let them write their own views, either to his Imperial Majesty, or to some German Archbishop. What ought I to do—what can I do—more?

"Let your Highness listen to the voice of your conscience and of your honour, and not send me to Rome. No man has the right to require this of you; for it is impossible that I should be safe in Rome. The Pope himself is not safe there. It would be enjoining you to betray Christian blood. They have there paper, pens, and ink: they have also numberless notaries. It is easy for them to write wherein, and wherefore, I have erred. It will cost them less trouble to instruct me at a distance by writing, than, having me among them, to put me to death by stratagem.

"I resign myself to banishment. My adversaries lay snares for me on all sides; so that I can nowhere live in safety. That no harm may happen to you on my account, I leave your territories, in God's name. I will go wherever the eternal and merciful God will have me. Let him do with me what seemeth him good.

"Thus, then, most serene Elector, I reverently bid you farewell. I commend you to Almighty God, and I give you endless thanks for all your kindness to me. Whatever be the people among whom I may hereafter live, wherever my future lot may be cast, I shall ever remember you, and shall gratefully pray, without ceasing, for the happiness of you and yours.*

"I am still, thanks to God, full of joy, and praise him that Christ, the Son of God, counts me worthy to suffer in so holy a cause. May He for ever preserve your illustrious Highness. Amen."

This letter, so overflowing with the accents of truth and justice, made a deep impression on the Elector. "He was shaken by a very eloquent letter," says

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 183. † L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 203.

* Ego enim ubicumque ero gentium, illustrissime Dominationis tue nunquam non ero memor. (L. Epp. i. 187.)

Maimbourg. Never could he have had the thought of giving up an innocent man to the power of Rome. Perhaps he might have persuaded Luther to conceal himself for some time. But he resolved not even in appearance to yield in any way to the Legate's threats. He wrote to his counsellor, Pfeffinger, who was then at the court of the Emperor, to represent to his Majesty the real state of affairs, and to beg him to write to Rome, so that the matter might be brought to a conclusion, or at least be determined in Germany by impartial judges.*

Some days after, the Elector wrote to the Legate in reply: "Since Doctor Martin has appeared before you at Augsburg, you ought to be satisfied. We did not expect that, without convincing him of error you would claim to oblige him to retract. Not one of the learned men in our states has intimated to us an opinion that Martin's doctrine is impious, antichristian, or heretical." The Prince, in the latter part of his letter, declined sending Luther to Rome, or expelling him from his territories.

This letter, which was communicated to Luther, rejoiced his heart. "Gracious God!" he wrote to Spalatin, "with what joy I read and re-read it; for I know what confidence I may repose in these words, at once so forcible and so discreet. I fear the Italians will not understand their full import. But they will at least comprehend, that what they believed already finished is scarcely yet begun. Be pleased to present my grateful acknowledgments to the Prince. It is strange that he (De Vio) who, a little while ago, was a mendicant friar like myself, is not afraid to address the most powerful princes with disrespect, to call them to account, to threaten and command them, and to treat them with such preposterous haughtiness. Let him learn that the temporal power is ordained of God, and that none are permitted to trample its glory under foot."†

One thing that had undoubtedly encouraged Frederic to answer the Legate in a tone which the latter did not expect, was a letter addressed to him by the university of Wittenberg. It was not without reason that they declared themselves in the Doctor's favour. The university was increasing in reputation, and surpassed all the other schools. A crowd of students flocked thither from all parts of Germany to listen to this extraordinary man, whose instructions seemed to open a new era to religion and learning. These young men, who arrived from the different provinces, would often stop when they discovered in the distance the steeples of Wittenberg; and, raising their hands toward heaven, bless God for having caused the light of truth to shine forth from Wittenberg, as in former ages from Mount Zion, that it might penetrate to the most distant lands. A life and activity, hitherto unknown, was infused into the university studies.—"Our young men are as diligent here as ants upon an ant-hill,"‡ wrote Luther.

Thinking that he soon might be driven out of Germany, Luther busied himself in publishing a report of the conference at Augsburg. He resolved that it should be preserved as a memorial of the struggle between Rome and himself. He saw the storm ready to burst, but he did not fear it. He was in daily expectation of the maledictions of Rome. He arranged and regulated everything that he might be ready when they arrived. "Having tucked up my gown, and girded my loins," said he, "I am ready to depart, like Abraham, not knowing whither I go; or rather well know-

ing whither, since God is everywhere." He intended to leave behind him a farewell letter. "Take courage, then," he wrote to Spalatin; "to read the letter of a man accused and excommunicated."*

His friends were full of fears and anxiety on his account. They entreated him to deliver himself up as a prisoner into the Elector's hands, that that prince might keep him somewhere in safety.†

His enemies could not comprehend the grounds of his confidence. One day, at the court of the Bishop of Brandenburg, the conversation turned on the Reformer, and it was asked on what support he could be depending. Some said, "It is on Erasmus and Capito, and other learned men, that he reckons for protection." "No, no!" replied the Bishop: "the Pope would care very little for those gentry. It is to the University of Wittenberg, and the Duke of Saxony, that he looks for support." . . . Thus both parties were ignorant of that strong tower in which the Reformer had sought refuge.

Thoughts of taking his departure were passing through Luther's mind. It was not the fear of danger that gave rise to them, but the presentiment of the incessantly renewed opposition he should find in Germany to the open profession of the truth. "If I stay here," said he, "I shall be denied the liberty of speaking and writing many things. If I depart, I will pour forth freely the thoughts of my heart, and devote my life to Christ."‡

France was the country where Luther hoped he might without hindrance proclaim the truth. The liberty enjoyed by the doctors of the University of Paris appeared to him worthy of envy. Besides, he, on many points, agreed in the opinions that prevailed there. What might have ensued, if Luther had been removed from Wittenberg to France? Would the Reformation have established itself there as it did in Germany? Would the power of Rome have been de-throned there; and France, which was destined to endure a long struggle between the hierarchial principles of Rome, and the ruinous principles of an irreligious philosophy, have become the great dispenser of evangelical light? It is useless to indulge in vain conjectures. But, certainly, Luther at Paris, would have made a great difference in the fortunes of the Church, and of France.

The soul of Luther was deeply moved. He often preached in the church of the city, supplying the place of Simon Heyns Pontanus, the pastor of Wittenberg, who was frequently indisposed. He thought it right, at all hazards, to take leave of the congregation to whom he had so often preached the doctrine of salvation. "I am a very unstable preacher," said he, one day, in the pulpit, "and very uncertain in my position. How often have I left you suddenly without taking leave of you. If this should happen again, and I should never return, receive my last farewell." Then, having added a few words, he concluded by saying, with moderation and gentleness: "Finally, I warn you not to be terrified, if the Papal censures should be discharged against me in all their fury. Do not blame the Pope, nor bear any ill-will to him, or to any man living, but leave the whole matter to God."§

At length the moment of his departure seemed at hand. The Prince gave him to understand that he wished him to leave Wittenberg. The wishes of the Elector were too sacred with Luther for him not to hasten to comply with them. The Reformer prepared

* Quia deus ubique. (L. Opp. i. p. 188.)

† Ut princem in captivitate darem. (L. Epp. i. p. 189.)

‡ Si iero, totum effundam, et vitam offeram Christo. (L.

Epp. i. p. 190.)

§ Deo rem committerent. (Luth. Epp. i. p. 191.)

L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 244.

† L. Epp. i. p. 198.

‡ Scultet. Annal. i. p. 17.

§ Studium nostrum more fornicorum fervet. (L. Opp. i. p.

to depart, without knowing well to what quarter to direct his steps. Resolving, however, once more to see his friends about him, he invited them to a farewell repast. Seated with them at table, he once more enjoyed their conversation, and their affectionate and anxious friendship. A letter was brought to him. It came from the court. He opened and read it. His heart sank within him. It enclosed an order for his departure. The Prince inquired: "Why he delayed so long?"* His soul was overwhelmed with dejection. However, he resumed courage; and, raising his head, said firmly and joyfully, turning to those about him: "Father and mother forsake me; but the Lord will take me up." "Depart then he must. His friends were much affected. What would become of him? If Luther's protector rejects him, who will receive him? And this Gospel, this word of truth, and this admirable work he had taken in hand, will doubtless perish with the faithful witness. The fate of the Reformation seemed suspended by a single thread; and would not the moment in which Luther left the walls of Wittenberg, break that thread? Luther and his friends said little. Sympathising in his feelings, they gave vent to their tears. However, but a short time had elapsed, when a second messenger arrived. Luther opened this letter, expecting to find a reiterated order for his departure. But lo! the mighty power of the Lord! for the present he is saved. Everything is changed. "As the Pope's new envoy," said the letter, "hopes that everything may be settled by a conference, remain for the present."† How important was this hour! and what might have happened if Luther, ever anxious to obey the Prince's pleasure, had left Wittenberg immediately on the receipt of the first letter! Never had Luther and the cause of the Reformation been brought lower than at this moment. It might have been thought that their fate was decided: in an instant it was changed. Having reached the lowest step in his career, the Reformer rapidly arose, and from that time his influence continued to ascend. "At the word of the Lord," in the language of the prophet, "his servants go down to the depths, and mount up again to heaven."

Spalatin, by Frederic's orders, sent for Luther to Lichtenberg, to have an interview with him. They had a long conversation on the state of affairs. "If the Pope's sentence of condemnation come, I certainly cannot remain at Wittenberg," said Luther. "Be-ware," replied Spalatin, "of being in too great a hurry to go to France."‡ He left him, telling him to wait further tidings from him. "Only commend my soul to Christ," said Luther to his friends. "I see that my adversaries are more and more determined on my destruction. But Christ is meanwhile strengthening me in my determination not to give way."§

Luther at that time published his reports of the conference at Augsburg. Spalatin had written to him from the Elector to abstain from doing so; but it was too late. When the publication had taken place, the Prince gave his sanction. "Great God!" said Luther, in his preface, "what a new, what an amazing crime, to seek after light and truth, and above all in the Church, that is to say, in the kingdom of truth!" "I send you this document," said he, writing to Link; "it cuts too deep, no doubt, to please the Legate; but my pen is ready to give out much greater things. I myself know not whence these thoughts come to me.

As far as I can see, the work is not yet begun; * so little reason is there for the great men of Rome hoping to see an end of it. I shall send you what I have written, in order that you may judge if I am right in believing that the Antichrist of whom St. Paul speaks, now reigns in the court of Rome. I think I can prove that now-a-days the power that presides there is worse than the Turks themselves."

On all sides, sinister reports reached Luther. One of his friends wrote him word that the new envoy from Rome had received orders to apprehend him, and deliver him to the Pope. Another reported that, as he was travelling, he had met with a courtier, and that, the conversation having turned upon the affairs which were then the general topic in Germany, the latter confided to him that he had undertaken to seize and deliver Luther into the hands of the Sovereign Pontiff. "But the more their fury and violence increase," wrote Luther "the less do I fear them."†

Cajetan's ill success had occasioned much dissatisfaction at Rome. The vexation felt at the failure of the affair, fell in the first instance upon him. All the Roman courtiers thought they had cause to reproach him for having been deficient in the prudence and address which, in their account, were the most indispensable qualifications in a legate, and for not having relaxed the strictness of his scholastic theology on so important an occasion. "The failure is entirely owing to him," said they. "His awkward pedantry has spoiled all. Why did he provoke Luther by insults and threats, instead of alluring him by the promise of a bishopric, or even, if necessary, a cardinal's hat?"‡ These mercenaries judged of the Reformer by themselves. The failure, however, must be retrieved. On the one hand, it was requisite that Rome should declare herself; on the other, she must not offend the Elector, who might be very serviceable to her in the anticipated event of the election of an Emperor. As it was impossible for Roman ecclesiastics to form a notion of the true source whence Luther derived his strength and courage, they imagined that the Elector was much more deeply implicated in the matter than he really was. The Pope resolved, therefore, to pursue a different line of policy. He caused to be published in Germany, by his Legate, a bull, wherein he confirmed the doctrine of indulgences precisely in those points which had been questioned, but making no mention either of the Elector or of Luther. As the Reformer had always declared, that he would submit to the decision of the Romish Church, he must now, as the pope thought, either keep his word, or openly show himself to be a disturber of the peace of the Church, and a despoiler of the apostolic see. In either case, the Pope, it was thought, must be a gainer. But nothing is ever gained by so obstinate a resistance against the truth. In vain had the Pope threatened with excommunication whosoever should teach otherwise than he ordained; the light is not arrested by such orders. It would have been wiser to moderate, by certain restrictions, the pretensions of the sellers of indulgences. Apparently, this decree of Rome was a further act of impolicy. By legalizing the most flagrant abuses, it irritated all sensible men, and rendered impossible the return of Luther to his allegiance to the church. "It was commonly thought," says a Catholic historian,§ and a great enemy to the Reformation, "that this bull had been framed only for the gain of the Pope and of the mendicant friars, who be-

* Vater und mutter verlassen mich, aber der Herr nimmt mich auf.

† L. Opp. xv. 824.

‡ Ne tam cito in Galliam iram. (L. Epp. i. p. 195.)

§ Firmat Christus propositum non cedendi in me. (Ibid.)

* Res ista necdum habit initium suum, meo judicio. L. Epp. i. p. 193.

† Quò illi magis furunt et vi affectant viam eò minus ego terreor. (L. Epp. i. p. 191.)

‡ Sarpi, Concile de Trente, p. 8.

§ Maimbourg,

gan to find that no one would give anything for their indulgences."

The Cardinal De Vio published this decree at Lintz, in Austria, on the 13th of December, 1518; but Luther had already taken his stand in a position of security. On the 28th of November he had appealed, in the chapel of Corpus Christi at Whittingberg, from the Pope to a General Council of the Church. He foresaw the storm that was about to burst upon him, and he knew that God only could avert it. But there was something he himself was called to do; and he did it. He must no doubt leave Wittemberg, if it were only for the sake of the Elector, as soon as the maledictions of Rome should arrive there; yet he resolved not to quit Saxony and Germany without a public protest. He, therefore, drew up his appeal; "and that it might be ready to be distributed as soon as the furies of Rome should overtake him," as he says, he had it printed, under the express condition that the bookseller should deposit with him all the copies. But this man, from desire of gain, sold almost the whole impression, while Luther was quietly expecting to receive them.

He was much annoyed, but the thing was done. This bold appeal was dispersed far and wide. In it Luther again protested that he had no intention of saying anything against the holy Church, or the authority of the Apostolic see, and the Pope *duly informed*. "But," continued he, "seeing that the Pope, who is God's vicar upon earth, may, like any other man, fall into error, commit sin, and utter falsehood, and that the appeal to a general council is the only safeguard against acts of injustice which it is impossible to resist—on these grounds I find myself obliged to have recourse to it."*

Behold, then, the Reformation launched upon a new career. It is no longer to depend upon the Pope and his decrees, but upon a General Council. Luther speaks to the Church at large, and the voice which proceeds from the chapel of Corpus Christi is to make itself heard in all the gatherings of the Lord's flock. It is not in courage that the Reformer is wanting. Behold him giving new proof of it. Will God be wanting to him? The answer will be read in the different phases of the Reformation which are still to pass before us.

* Löschner, Ref. Act.

BOOK V.

THE LEIPSIK DISCUSSION, 1519.

THE clouds were gathering over Luther and the Reformation. The appeal to a general council was a new attack on papal authority. A bull of Pius II. had pronounced the greater excommunication against any one, even though he should be the emperor himself, who should be guilty of such a rejection of the holy father's authority. Frederic, of Saxony, scarcely yet well-established in the evangelic doctrine, was on the point of banishing Luther from his states.* A second message from Leo X. would, in that case, have thrown the Reformer among strangers, who might fear to compromise their own security, by harbouring a monk whom Rome had anathematized. And even if one of the German nobles had taken up arms in his defence, such poor knights, looked down upon with contempt by the powerful sovereigns of Germany, must, ere long, have sunk in their hazardous enterprise.

But at the moment when all his courtiers were urging Leo to rigorous measures—when another blow would have laid his enemy at his feet—that pope suddenly changed his course, and made overtures of conciliation.† Doubtless, it may be said, he mistook the disposition of the elector, and thought him much more favourable to Luther than he really was. We may allow that public opinion, and the spirit of the age—powers then comparatively new—might seem to Leo to surround the Reformer with an insurmountable rampart of defence. We may suppose, as one historian‡ has done, that Leo did but follow the impulse of his judgment and his heart, which inclined him to gentleness and moderation. But this method, so unlike Rome, at such a juncture, is so strange, that it is impossible not to acknowledge in it a more powerful intervention.

A noble Saxon, chamberlain to the pope, and canon of Mentz, of Treves, and of Meissen, was then at the court of Rome. He had worked his way into favour. He boasted of his connexion, by family relationships, with the princes of Saxony—so that the Roman courtiers sometimes called him Duke of Saxony. In Italy he paraded his German nobility. In Germany he affected awkwardly the manners and refinement of Italy. He was addicted to wine, and this vice had gained strength from his residence at Rome.* Nevertheless, the Roman courtiers built great hopes on him. His German origin, his insinuating manner, and his skill in negotiation, altogether persuaded them that Charles Miltitz would, by his prudence, succeed in arresting the revolution that threatened the world.

It was important to hide the real object of the Roman chamberlain's mission. This was not difficult. Four years before, the pious elector had petitioned the pope for the *golden rose*. This rose was deemed to represent the body of Jesus Christ. It was consecrated every year by the sovereign pontiff, and presented to one of the leading princes of Europe. It was decided to present it this year to the elector. Miltitz set out, with instructions to inquire into the state of affairs, and to gain over Spalatin and Pfeffinger, the elector's counsellors. He was intrusted with private letters for them. By thus conciliating the co-operation of those who surrounded the elector, Rome expected quickly to become the mistress of her now formidable adversary.

The new legate arrived in Germany in December, 1518, and endeavoured, in the course of his journey, to sound the general opinion. To his extreme astonishment, he noticed, wherever he stopped, that the majority of the inhabitants were favourable to the Reformation. Men spoke of Luther with enthusi-

* Letter from the elector to his envoy at Rome. L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 298.

† Rationem agendi prorsus oppositam inire statuit. (Card. Pallavicini, Hist. Concil. Trid. vol. iv. p. 51.)

‡ Roscoe, vol. iv. p. 2.

* Nec ab usu immoderato vini abstinuit. (Pallavicini, vol. i. p. 69.)

asm.* For one who declared himself on the pope's side, he found three against him.† Luther has preserved an incident that occurred. "What is your opinion of the see (*sedia*) of Rome?" often inquired the legate, of the mistresses and domestics of the inns. One day, one of these poor women answered, with naïveté: "What can we know of the sort of chairs (*sedia*) you have at Rome, whether of stone or wood?"‡

The mere report of the arrival of the new legate, spread suspicion and distrust in the elector's court, the university, the city of Wittenberg, and throughout Saxony. "Thank God, Martin is still alive!" wrote Melancthon, in alarm.§ It was whispered that the Roman chamberlain had orders to get Luther into his power, by stratagem or violence. On all sides the doctor was advised to be on his guard against the snares of Miltitz. "He is sent, said they, 'to seize and deliver you to the pope. Persons deserving of credit have seen the brief with which he is furnished.' 'I await the will of God,'" replied Luther.||

Miltitz had, indeed, arrived, bearing letters addressed to the elector, his counsellors, the bishops, and the burgomaster of Wittenberg. He brought with him seventy apostolic briefs. If the flattery and favours of Rome were successful, and Frederic should deliver up Luther, these briefs were to be used as passports. It was his plan to post up one of them in each of the towns on his route, and, in this way, to convey his prisoner to Rome without opposition.¶

The pope seemed to have taken all his measures. In the elector's court they scarce knew what course to pursue. Violence they might have resisted, but what, to oppose to the head of Christendom, uttering the language of mildness and reason? Would it not be well-timed if Luther could lie concealed till the storm should have passed by? An unforeseen event came to the deliverance of Luther, the elector, and the Reformation, from this perplexing position. The aspect of the world was suddenly changed.

On the 12th of January, 1519, died Maximilian, the Emperor of Germany. Frederic of Saxony, agreeably to the Germanic constitution, became administrator of the empire. From that moment the elector was relieved from the fear of nuncios and their projects. New interests were set to work in the Roman court, which compelled it to temporise in its negotiations with Frederic, and arrested the blow, which, it cannot be doubted, Miltitz and de Vio had meditated.

The pope had an earnest desire to exclude from the imperial throne, Charles of Austria, then the reigning king of Naples. A neighbour on a throne, was, in his judgment, more to be feared than a monk of Germany. Desiring to secure the co-operation of the elector—who, in this matter, might be of so great service, he resolved to afford some respite to the monk, that he might the better counterwork the king. In spite of this policy, both made progress. It formed, however, the motive for the change in Leo X.'s proceedings.

Another circumstance contributed to avert the storm that impended over the Reformation. Political troubles broke out immediately after the emperor's demise. In the south, the Suabian confederation sought to avenge itself on Ulric, of Wurtemberg, who had broken his allegiance. In the north, the Bishop of Hilde-

sheim invaded, with an armed force, the bishopric of Minden, and the states of the Duke of Brunswick. Amidst these confusions, how could the great ones of the age attach importance to a dispute concerning the remission of sins? But God made, above all, conducive to the progress of the Reformation, the reputation of the elector, now vicar of the empire, for prudence, and the protection he afforded to the new teachers. "The tempest was hushed," says Luther; "the papal excommunication began to be thought light of." Under shelter of the elector, the Gospel spread itself abroad, and hence no small damage to the cause of the papacy.*

We may add, that during an interregnum the severest prohibitions naturally lost much of their authority. Communication became more open and easy. The ray of liberty that beamed upon those first beginnings of the Reformation, helped materially to develop the yet tender plant; and a thoughtful observer might even then have discerned how favourable political liberty would one day be to the progress of evan-
gelic Christianity.

Miltitz, who had reached Saxony, before the death of Maximilian, had lost no time in visiting his former friend, Spalatin; but scarcely did he begin to open his charges against Luther—before the chaplain broke out in complaint against Tetzel. He acquainted the Nuncio with the falsehoods and blasphemies of the vender of indulgences, and declared that all Germany ascribed to the Dominican's proceedings the dissensions that distracted the Church.

Miltitz was astonished. Instead of accuser, he found himself in the place of one accused. His wrath was instantly turned against Tetzel; and he summoned him to appear before him at Altenburg, and account for his conduct.

The Dominican, as cowardly as he was boastful, dreading the people whose indignation had been roused by his impostures, had discontinued his progresses through the towns and provinces, and was then living in retirement in the college of St. Paul. He turned pale on the receipt of Miltitz's letter. Rome, herself seemed to abandon him—to condemn him—and to tempt him to quit the only asylum in which he reckoned himself safe—as if to expose him to the anger of his enemies. Tetzel refused to obey the Nuncio's summons. He wrote to Miltitz, on the 31st December, 1518—"Certainly I would not shrink from the fatigue of the journey, if I could leave Leipzig without risking my life—but Martin Luther has so roused and excited powerful chiefs against me, that I am no where safe. A great number of his partisans have bound themselves by oath to put me to death; therefore, I cannot come to you."* A striking contrast between the two men then dwelling, one in the college of St. Paul at Leipzig, and the other in the cloister of St. Augustine at Wittenberg. The servant of God manifested an interperid courage in the face of danger—the servants of men betrayed a contemptible cowardice.

Miltitz had been directed in the first instance to try the effect of persuasion; and it was only on the failure of this, that he was to produce his seventy briefs, and play off the favours of Rome, so as to induce the Elector to restrain Luther. He therefore expressed a wish for an interview with the Reformer. Spalatin, their common friend, offered his house for the purpose, and Luther left Wittenberg, for Altenburg, on the 2d or 3d of January.

In this interview Miltitz exhausted all the stratagems of a diplomatist and Roman courtier. At the instant of Luther's arrival, the Nuncio approached him with

* Sciscitans per viam Mitilius quam esset in aestimatione Lutherus . . . sensit de eo cum admiratione homines loqui. (Pallavicini, tom. i. p. 51.)

† Ecce ubi unum pro papa stare inveni tres pro te contra papam stabant. (L. Opp. lat. in pref.)

‡ Quid nos scire possumus quales vos Romæ habeatis sellas, ligneas an lapideas? (L. Opp. lat. in pref.)

§ Martinus noster, Deo gratias, adhuc spirat. Corpus Reformatum edidit Bretschneider. i. p. 61.

¶ Expecto consilium Dei. (L. Epp. i. p. 191.)

¶ Per singula oppida affigeret unum, et ita tutus me perduceret Romam. (L. Opp. lat. in pref.)

* Tunc desit paululum scire tempestas . . . L. Opp. lat. in pref.

† Loscher, ii. 57.

great show of friendship—"Oh," thought Luther, "how is his former violence changed to gentleness. The second Saul came to Germany the bearer of seventy briefs, authorising him to drag me in chains to that homicide, Rome, but the Lord has thrown him to the earth in the way."* "Dear Martin," said the Pope's chamberlain, in a persuasive tone, "I thought you were an old theologian, who, quietly seated at his fireside, had certain theological crotchets, but I see you are yet young, and in the prime of life."†

"Do you know," continued he, assuming a graver tone, "that you have drawn away all the world from the Pope."‡ Miltitz well knew that it is by flattering the pride of men that they are most readily deluded—but he did not know the man he had to deal with.

"Even if I were backed by an army of twenty-five thousand men," continued he, "I truly would not undertake to kidnap and carry you to Rome."§ Thus, notwithstanding her power, Rome felt weak when opposed to a poor monk, and the monk was conscious of strength in his opposition to Rome. "God arrests the billows on the shore," said Luther, "and he does so with the sand!"||

The Nuncio, thinking he had by these flatteries prepared the mind of Luther, thus continued: "Be persuaded, and yourself staunch the wound you have inflicted on the Church, and which none but yourself can heal. Beware, I beseech you," he added, "of raising a storm, in which the best interests of mankind would be wrecked."¶ And then he gradually proceeded to hint that a *retraction* was the only way of remedying the evil, but instantly softened the objectionable word by expressions of high esteem for Luther, and indignation against Tetzel. The net was spread by a skilful hand—what hope of escape from its meshes?

"If the Archbishop of Mentz, had acted thus with me from the first," said Luther, at a later period, "this matter had not made the noise it has done."**

Luther spoke out: enumerated with calmness, yet with earnestness and energy, the just complaints of the Church; he gave free expression to his indignation against the Archbishop of Mentz, and boldly complained of the unworthy manner in which the Roman Court had treated him, notwithstanding the purity of his intentions.

Miltitz, who had not expected so decided a tone, nevertheless suppressed his anger. "I offer," said Luther, "from this time forth, to keep silence on these things, and to let the matter die away,†† provided my enemies are reduced to silence; but if they continue their attack, we shall very soon see a partial dispute give rise to a serious struggle. My weapons are ready prepared."‡ After a moment's pause, he continued, "I will even go a step further: I will write to his holiness, acknowledging that I have been a little too violent; and declare that it is as a faithful son of the Church that I have opposed a style of preaching which drew upon it the mockeries and insults of the people. I even consent to put forth a writing, wherein I will desire all who shall read my works, not to see in them any attack on the Church of Rome, and to continue in submission to its authority. Yes, I am willing to do

* Sed per viam a Domino postratus . . . mutavit violentiam in benevolentiam fallacissimè simulatam. (L. Epp. i. 206.)

† O Martine, ego credebam te esse senem aliquem theologum, qui post fornicem sedens . . . (L. Opp. lat. in præf.)

‡ Quod ordem totum mihi conjunxerim et papæ abstraxerim. (L. Epp. i. 231.)

§ Si haberem 25 millia armorum, non confiderem te posse a me Romam perducì. (L. Opp. in præf.)

|| L. Opp. (W.) xxii.

¶ Profusus lacry mis ipsum oravit, ne tam perniciosam Christiano generi tempestatem cerneret. (Pallavicini, i. 52.)

** Non evasisset res in tantum unumtum. (L. Opp. lat. in præf.)

†† Und die Sache sich zu Tode bluten. (L. Epp. i. 207.)

everything, and bear everything: but as to a retraction, don't expect it from me."

Miltitz saw, by Luther's resolute manner, that the wisest course was to seem satisfied with what the Reformer was willing to promise. He merely proposed that they should name an Archbishop as arbitrator on some of the points they would have to discuss. "Be it so," said Luther—"but I much fear that the Pope will not accept of any judge; if so, I will not abide by the Pope's decision, and then the dispute will begin again. The pope will give us the text, and I will make my own commentary on it."

Thus ended the first interview of Luther with Miltitz. They met once again, and at this meeting the truce, or rather the peace, was signed. Luther immediately gave information to the Elector of all that had passed.

"Most serene Prince and gracious Lord," wrote he, "I hasten humbly to inform your Electoral Highness that Charles Miltitz and myself are at last agreed, and have terminated our differences by the following articles:

"1. Both sides are forbidden to write or act, henceforward, in the question that has been raised.

"Miltitz will, without delay, communicate to his Holiness, the state of affairs. His Holiness will commission an enlightened bishop to inquire into the affair, and to point out the erroneous articles which I am to retract. If proof is afforded me that I am in error, I will gladly retract, and never more do anything that can lessen the honour or authority of the holy Roman Church."*

The agreement thus effected, Miltitz's joy broke forth. "For a century," said he, "no question has caused more anxiety to the Cardinals and Court of Rome. They would have given ten thousand ducats rather than see it prolonged."†

The Pope's chamberlain spared no marks of attention to the monk of Wittenberg; one moment he expressed his satisfaction, the next, he shed tears. These demonstrations of sensibility but little moved the Reformer, yet he avoided betraying what he thought of them. "I feigned not to understand the meaning of those crocodile tears," said he. The crocodile is said to weep when it is unable to seize on its prey.‡

Miltitz invited Luther to supper. The doctor accepted the invitation. His host laid aside the dignity of his function, and Luther gave free vent to the cheerfulness of his natural temper. The repast was joyous;§ and, the moment of adieu arriving, the Legate opened his arms to the heretic doctor, and saluted him.|| "A Judas kiss," thought Luther. "I affected not to understand these Italian manners," wrote he to Staupitz.¶

Would that salute indeed make reconciliation between Rome and the dawning Reformation? Miltitz hoped it might, and rejoiced in the hope; for he had a nearer view than the Roman Court could take of the terrible effect the Reformation was likely to produce on the Papacy. If Luther and his opponents are silenced, said he, to himself, the dispute will be terminated; and Rome, by skilfully calling up new circumstances, will regain her former influence. To all appearance, therefore, the struggle was nearly passed

* L. Epp. i., p. 209.

† Ab integro jam sæculo nullum negotium Ecclesie contigisse quod majorem illi sollicitudinem incussisset. (Pallav. t. i., p. 52.)

‡ Ego dissimulabam has crocodili lacrymas a me intelligi. (L. Epp. i., p. 216.)

§ Atque vesperi, me accepto, convivio lætati sumus. (Ibid. 231.)

|| Sic amice discessimus etiam cum osculo (Jude scilicet.) (L. Epp. i., p. 216.)

¶ Has Italitates. (Ibid. 231.)

—Rome had opened her arms, and the Reformer had cast himself into them. But this work was not of man, but of God. It was the mistake of Rome to see only a controversy with a monk, in what was in reality a revival of the Church. The kisses of a papal chamberlain could not arrest the renewal of Christianity.

Miltitz, acting on the agreement that he had just concluded, repaired from Altenburg to Leipsic, where Tetzel was then residing. There was no need to enjoin silence on the Dominican, for he would gladly have sought, if possible, to hide himself in the bowels of the earth; but the Nuncio resolved to vent his wrath upon him. On arriving at Leipsic he cited him before him. He overwhelmed him with reproaches, accused him of being the cause of all the evil, and threatened him with the Pope's anger.* He went farther: the agent of the house of Fogger, who was then at Leipsic, was confronted with him. Miltitz exhibited to the Dominican the accounts of that house, papers that bore his own signature! and demonstrated that he had squandered, or appropriated to his own use, considerable sums. The unhappy man, whom, in the day of his triumph, nothing could abash, was struck motionless by these well-founded charges. He shrunk, despairingly—his health gave way—and he knew not where to hide his shame. Luther received intelligence of the miserable fate of his former adversary, and seems to have been the only person concerned for him. "I pity Tetzel," wrote he to Spalatin.† He did not stop there. It was not the man, but his actions, that he had hated. At the very time when Rome was pouring wrath upon him, Luther wrote to him a letter of consolation. But all was in vain! Tetzel, haunted by the remorse of conscience, alarmed by the reproaches of his dearest friends, and, dreading the anger of the Pope, died miserably shortly afterward. It was commonly believed that grief had hastened his end.‡

Luther, in fulfilment of the promises that he had made to Miltitz, wrote to the Pope, on the 3d of March, as follows:—"Most Holy Father,—May your Holiness condescend to incline your paternal ear, which is that of Christ himself, toward your poor sheep, and listen, with kindness, to his bleating. What shall I do, most holy father? I cannot stand against the torrent of your anger, and I know no way of escape. They require of me that I should retract. I would be prompt to do so, if that could lead to the result they desire. But the persecutions of my enemies have spread my writings far and wide, and they are too deeply engraven on the hearts of men to be, by possibility, erased. A retraction would only still more dishonour the Church of Rome, and call forth from all a cry of accusation against her. Most holy father, I declare it in the presence of God, and of all the world, I never have sought, nor will I ever seek, to weaken, by force or artifice, the power of the Roman Church, or your Holiness. I confess that there is nothing in heaven or earth that should be preferred above that church, save only Jesus Christ, the Lord of all."§

These words might appear strange, and even reprehensible, in Luther, if we failed to bear in mind that the light broke in upon him, not suddenly, but by slow and progressive degrees. They are evidence of the important truth, that the Reformation was not a mere

opposition to the Papacy. It was not a war waged against a certain form or condition of things, neither was it the result of any negative tendency. Opposition to the Pope was its secondary sign. A new life, a positive doctrine, was its generating principle—"Jesus Christ, the Lord of all, and who should be preferred before all," and above Rome herself, as Luther intimates in the latter words of his letter. Such was essentially the cause of the Revolution of the sixteenth century.

It is probable, that a short time previous to the period we are recording, the Pope would not have passed over, unnoticed, a letter, in which the monk of Wittenberg flatly refused any retraction. But Maximilian was no more; it was a question who was to succeed him, and Luther's letter was disregarded in the midst of the political intrigues which then agitated the city of the pontiffs.

The Reformer turned his time to better account than his potent enemy. While Leo the Tenth, absorbed in his interests as a temporal prince, was straining every nerve to exclude a formidable neighbour from the throne, Luther daily grew in knowledge and in faith. He studied the *decretals* of the Popes, and the discoveries he made, materially modified his ideas. He wrote to Spalatin—"I am reading the *decretals* of the pontiffs, and, let me whisper it in your ear, I know not whether the Pope is Antichrist himself, or whether he is his apostle; so misrepresented, and even crucified, does Christ appear in them."*

Yet he still esteemed the ancient Church of Rome, and entertained no thought of separation from it. "That the Roman Church," said he, "is more honoured by God than all others, is not to be doubted. St. Peter, St. Paul, forty-six popes, some hundreds of thousands of martyrs, have laid down their lives in its communion, having overcome hell and the world, so that the eyes of God rest on the Roman Church with special favour. Though, now-a-days, everything there is in a wretched state, it is no ground for separating from it. On the contrary, the worse things are going, the more should we hold close to it; for it is not by separation from it that we can make it better. We must not separate from God on account of any work of the devil, nor cease to have fellowship with the children of God, who are still abiding in the pale of Rome, on account of the multitude of the ungodly. There is no sin, no amount of evil, which should be permitted to dissolve the bond of charity or break the unity of the body. For love can do all things, and nothing is difficult to those who are united."†

It was not Luther who separated himself from Rome, but Rome that separated herself from Luther; and, in so doing, put from her the ancient faith of that Catholic Church which she then represented. It was not Luther who took from Rome her power, and obliged her bishop to descend from a throne that had been usurped: the doctrines he proclaimed, the word of the apostles, which God again made known in the Church, with power and clearness, were alone effectual to dethrone the tyranny that had, for centuries, enslaved the Church.

These declarations of Luther, published toward the end of February, were not such as were altogether satisfactory to Miltitz and De Vio. These two vultures had both seen their prey escape them, and had retired within the walls of ancient Treves. There, under favour of the Archbishop, they nourished the hope of accomplishing, by their union, the purpose each had, separately, failed to effect. The two Nun-

* Verbis minisque pontificis illa fregit hominem, hactenus terribilem cunctis et imperterritum stentorem. (L. Opp. in præf.)

† Doleo Totzellum . . . (L. Epp. i., n. 223.)

‡ Sed conscientia indignati Papæ sorte occubuit. (L. Opp. in præf.)

§ Præter unum Jesum Christum Dominum omnium. (L. Epp. i., p. 234.)

* Nescio an Papa sit Antichristus ipse vel apostolus ejus. (L. Epp. i. 239.)

† L. Opp. L. xvii. 224.

cios saw, plainly, that nothing was to be expected from Frederic, now invested with supreme power. They saw that Luther persisted in his refusal to retract. The only chance of success consisted in depriving the heretical monk of the Elector's countenance, and then inveigling him within their reach. Once at Treves, in a state subject to a prince of the church, and no cunning will deliver him, till he shall have fully satisfied the requirements of the Pontiff. They went to work without delay. "Luther," said Miltitz to the Elector, Archbishop of Treves, "has accepted the arbitration of your Grace: we request you, therefore, to summon him before you." The Elector of Treves accordingly wrote, on the 3d of May, to the Elector of Saxony, requesting him to send Luther to him. De Vio, and shortly after, Miltitz himself, repaired to Frederic, to announce to him that the Golden Rose had arrived at Augsburg, consigned to the care of the Fuggers. The moment, they thought, had arrived for striking a decisive blow.

But affairs were changed—neither Frederic nor Luther was moved from his confidence. The Elector comprehended his new position, and no longer feared the Pope, much less his agents. The Reformer, seeing Miltitz and De Vio united, foresaw the fate that awaited him, if he complied with their summons. "On all sides," said he, "my life is waylaid."* Besides, he had appealed to the Pope, and the Pope, busy in intrigues with crowned heads, had not answered his appeal. Luther wrote to Miltitz, "How can I set out without an order from Rome, in these troublous times? How can I expose myself to so many dangers, and such heavy expense, poor as I am?"

The Elector of Treves, a prudent and moderate man, and connected, by relations of friendship, with Frederic, resolved to consult the interests of the latter. He had no wish to interfere, unless positively required to do so. He, therefore, came to an agreement with the Elector of Saxony, to adjourn the examination to the ensuing Diet—and it was not until two years after that the Diet assembled.

While the dangers that threatened Luther were thus warded off by a providential hand, he himself was boldly advancing to a result he did not discern. His reputation was increased, the cause of truth gained strength, the number of students at Wittenberg increased, and, among them, were found the most distinguished youth of Germany. "Our city," wrote Luther, "can scarce hold the numbers who are arriving;" and, on another occasion, he observes, "The students increase upon us like an overflowing tide."†

But, already, the Reformer's voice was heard beyond the confines of Germany. Passing the frontiers of the empire, it had begun to shake the foundations of the Roman power among the several nations of Christendom. Frobenius, the celebrated printer of Basle, had put forth a collection of Luther's writings. They circulated rapidly. At Basle, the bishop himself commended Luther. The Cardinal of Sion, after reading his works, exclaimed, with an ironical play on his name, "O Luther! thou art a true Luther," (a purifier, *law-terer*).

Erasmus was at Louvain when the writings of Luther were received in the Low Countries. The Prior of the Augustines of Antwerp, who had studied at Wittenberg, and acquired, according to the testimony of Erasmus, a knowledge of primitive Christianity, read them with eagerness, as did other Belgians. But those who were intent only on their own selfish interests, remarks Erasmus, men who fed the people with

old wives' tales, broke out in angry fanaticism. I cannot tell you," wrote Erasmus to Luther, "the emotion and truly tragic agitation your writings have occasioned."*

Frobenius sent 600 copies of these writings to France and Spain. They were publicly sold in Paris; the Sorbonne doctors read them with approbation, as it would appear. It was high time, said some of them, that those who devoted themselves to biblical studies, should speak out freely. In England, these books were received with still greater eagerness. Some Spanish merchants translated them into Spanish, and forwarded them from Antwerp to their own country. "Assuredly," says Pallavicini, these merchants must have been of Moorish blood.†

Calvi, a learned bookseller of Pavia, took a large quantity of copies to Italy, and distributed them in the transalpine cities. It was no desire of gain that inspired this man of letters, but a wish to contribute to the revival of the love of God. The power with which Luther maintained the cause of Christ filled him with joy. "All the learned men of Italy," wrote he, "will unite with me, and we will send you tributary verses from our most distinguished writers."

Frobenius, in transmitting to Luther a copy of his publication, related these joyful tidings, and thus continued:—"I have sold all the impressions except ten copies, and no speculation ever answered my purpose so well as this." Other letters informed Luther of the joy his writings diffused. "I am delighted," said he, "that the truth is found so pleasing, although she speaks with little learning, and in stammering accents."‡

Such was the commencement of the awakening in the several countries of Europe. If we except Switzerland, where the preaching of the Gospel had been already heard, the arrival of the Doctor of Wittenberg's writings everywhere forms the first page in the history of the Reformation. A printer of Basle scattered the first germs of truth. At the moment when the Roman Pontiff thought to stifle the work in Germany, it began to manifest itself in France, the Low Countries, Italy, Spain, England, and Switzerland. Even though the power of Rome should fell the parent stem . . . the seeds are henceforth spread abroad in all lands.

While the conflict was beginning beyond the limits of the empire, it seemed to be suspended within. The most turbulent allies of Rome, the Franciscan monks of Juterbok, who had imprudently attacked Luther, had retired in silence after a vigorous reply from the Reformer. The pope's partisans were no longer heard—Tetzels was incapable of any movement. The friends of Luther entreated him to give over further contest, and he had promised to do so. The theses were beginning to be forgotten. This hollow peace struck powerless the eloquence of the Reformer. The Reformation appeared arrested in its progress—"But," observed Luther, speaking subsequently of this period, "men were forming vain schemes, for the Lord had arisen to judge among the nations."§ Elsewhere we find him exclaiming, "God does not conduct, but drives me, and carries me forward. I am not master of my own actions. I would gladly live in peace, but I am cast into the midst of tumult and changes."||

The scholastic Eck, author of the Obelisks, and Luther's early friend, was the first to re-commence the combat. He was sincerely attached to the Papacy;

* *Nullus sermone consequi queam, quas tragedias hic excitantur libelli . . . (Erasm. Epp. vi. 4.)*

† *Maurorum stirpe prognatis. (Pallavicini, i. 91.)*

‡ *In his id gaudeo, quod veritas, tam barbare et indocte loquens, adeo placet. (L. Epp. i. 255.)*

§ *Dominus vigilavit et stat ad iudicandos populos. (L. Opp. lat. in. pref.)*

|| *Deus rapit, pellit, nedom ducit me; non sum compos mei volo esse quietus, et rapior in medios tumultos. (L. Epp. i. 231)*

* *Video ubique, undique, quocumque modo, animam meam queri.*

† *Sicut aqua inundans. L. Epp. i. p. 279, 279*

but he appears to have been a stranger to the religion of the heart, and to have been of that class, too numerous in every age, who look upon science, and even upon theology and religion, as means of advancement in the world. Vain glory dwells under the cassock of the pastor, as well as under the armour of the warrior. Eck had applied himself to the logic of the schools, and was acknowledged an adept in this kind of controversy. While the knights of the middle ages, and the warriors of the age of the Reformation, sought glory in tournaments, the scholastic pedants contended for distinction in those syllogistic discussions for which the academies often afforded a stage. Eck, full of confidence in himself, and proud of the popularity of his cause, and of the prizes he had won in eight universities of Hungary, Lombardy, and Germany, ardently desired an opportunity of displaying his ability and address. The "obscure monk," who had so suddenly grown into a giant—this Luther, whom no one had hitherto humbled—offended his pride and aroused his jealousy.* It may have occurred to him, that in seeking his own glory he might ruin the cause of Rome. . . . But scholastic pride was not to be checked by such a thought. Divines, as well as princes, have at times sacrificed the general weal to their own personal glory. We shall see what particular circumstance afforded the Doctor of Ingolstadt the desired opportunity of entering the lists with his rival.

The zealous, but too ardent Carlstadt, was still in communication with Luther; they were also especially united by their attachment to the doctrine of grace, and by their admiration for St. Augustine. Of enthusiastic character and small discretion, Carlstadt was not a man to be restrained by the skill and policy of a Miltitz. He had published against Eck's *obelisks* some theses, wherein he espoused the opinions of Luther, and their common faith. Eck had put forth a reply, and Carlstadt had not left him the advantage of the last word.† The discussion grew warm. Eck, desiring to profit by the opportunity, had thrown down the gauntlet, and the impetuous Carlstadt had taken it up. God used the passions of these two men to bring about his purposes. Luther had taken no part in these discussions, and yet he was destined to be the hero of the struggle. There are some men who by the necessity of the case are continually brought forward on the stage. It was settled that Leipsic should be the scene of the discussion. This was the origin of the Leipsic dispute, afterwards so famous.

Eck thought it a small thing to contest the question with Carlstadt. It was his object to humble Luther. He therefore sought by every means to tempt him into the field, and for this end put forth thirteen theses,‡ which he so framed as to bear directly on the principal doctrines of the Reformer. The thirteenth was in these words,—“We deny that the authority of the Roman Church did not rise above that of other churches before the time of Pope Sylvester; and we acknowledge in every age as successor of St. Peter, and vicar of Jesus Christ, he who was seated in the chair and held the faith of St. Peter.” Sylvester lived in the time of Constantine the Great; Eck, therefore, in this thesis, denied that the primacy possessed by Rome was given to it by that Emperor.

Luther, who had consented, not without reluctance, to remain silent, was deeply moved as he read these propositions. He saw that they were directed against him, and felt that he could not decline the challenge

without disgrace. “That man,” said he, “declares Carlstadt to be his antagonist, and at the same moment attacks me. But God reigns. He knows what it is that He will bring out of this tragedy.* It matters little how it affects Doctor Eck or me. The purpose of God must be fulfilled. Thanks to Eck, this, which has hitherto been but a trifle, will in the end become a serious matter, and strike a fatal blow against the tyranny of Rome and her pontiff.”

The truce had been broken by Rome herself. Nay, more, in again giving the signal of battle, the contest had been transferred to a quarter which Luther had not yet directly attacked. Eck had called the attention of his adversaries to the *primacy* of Rome. He thus followed the dangerous example of Tetzelt.† Rome invited the stroke; and if, in the result, she left on the arena proofs of her defeat, it is certain that she herself had provoked the formidable blow.

The Pontiff's supremacy once overturned, all the superstructure of Rome must needs crumble into dust. Hence the papacy was in danger, and yet neither Miltitz nor Cajetan, took any step to prevent this new contest. Could they imagine the Reformation subdued—or were they smitten with the blindness which deludes the powerful to their ruin?

Luther, who had set a rare example of moderation in keeping silence so long, boldly accepted the challenge of his new antagonist. He put forth fresh theses in reply to those of Eck. The concluding one was thus expressed—“It is by contemptible decretals of Roman pontiffs, composed hardly four centuries ago, that it is attempted to prove the primacy of the Roman Church;—but arrayed against this claim are eleven centuries of credible history, the express declarations of Scripture, and the conclusions of the council of Nice, the most venerable of all the councils.”‡

“God knows,” wrote Luther, at the same time, to the elector, “that it was my fixed purpose to keep silence, and that I was rejoiced to see the struggle brought to a close. I was so scrupulous in my adherence to the treaty concluded with the pope's commissary, that I did not answer Sylvester Prierias, notwithstanding the taunts of my adversaries, and the advice of my friends. But, now Dr. Eck attacks me; and not me only, but the whole University of Wittemberg. I cannot allow truth to be thus loaded with opprobrium.”§

Luther wrote at the same time to Carlstadt: “Worthy Andrew, I am not willing that you should enter on this dispute, since the attack is in reality directed against me. I gladly lay aside my serious studies to turn my strength against these parasites of the pontiff.”|| Then turning to his adversary, and disdainfully calling from Wittemberg to Ingolstadt, he exclaims, “Now then, dear Eck, take courage—gird on thy sword.¶ If I could not please thee when thou camest as a *go-between*, perhaps I may better satisfy thee as an antagonist. Not that I, of course, can expect to overcome thee—but that, after all thy triumphs in Hungary, Lombardy, Bavaria, (if we are to believe thy own report,) I shall be giving thee the opportunity of earning the name of conqueror of Saxony and Misnia!—so that thou shalt ever after be hailed with the glorious epithet of *Augustus*.”***

All Luther's friends did not share in his courage—

* Sed Dennis in medio horum; ipse novit quid ex eis tragediâ deducere vult. (L. Epp. i. 230, 232.)

† See Vol. I. 331.

‡ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 245.

§ L. Epp. i. 237.

|| Gaudens et videns posthabeo istorum mea seria ludo. (L. Epp. i. p. 261.)

¶ Esto vir fortis et accingere gladio tuo super femur tuum, potentissime! (Ibid.)

** Ac si voles semper Augustus saluteris in eternum. (Ibid.)

* Nihil cupiebat ardentius, quam sui specimen præbere in solemnî disputatione cum æmulo. (Pallavicini, tom. i., p. 25.)

† Defensio adversus Eckii monomachiam.

‡ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 242.

for no one had hitherto been able to resist the sophisms of Eck. But their great cause of alarm was the subject matter of the dispute . . . the pope's primacy! How can the poor monk of Wittenberg dare to stand up against the giant who, for ages, has crushed all his enemies? The courtiers of the elector were alarmed. Spalatin, the prince's confidant, and the intimate friend of Luther, was filled with apprehensions. Frederic himself was not at ease. Even the sword of the Knights of the Holy Sepulchre, with which he had been invested at Jerusalem, would not avail him in this struggle. Luther alone was unmoved. "The Lord," thought he, "will deliver him into my hand." His own faith furnished him with encouragement for his friends. "I beseech you, my dear Spalatin," said he, "do not give way to fear. You well know that if Christ had not been on our side, what I have already done must have been my ruin. Even lately did not news come from Rome, to the Duke of Pomerania's chancellor, that I had destroyed all respect for Rome, and that no way appeared of quieting the general feeling; so that it was intended to deal with me, not judiciously, but by Roman stratagem; such were the words used—I suppose meaning poison, ambush, or assassination!"

"I restrain myself, and out of regard to the Elector and the University, I keep back many things which I would employ against Babylon, if I were elsewhere. O, my dear Spalatin, it is not possible to speak truth, concerning Scripture and the Church, without rousing the beast. Don't expect to see me at peace, unless I renounce the study of divine things. If this matter be of God, it will not end till all my friends have forsaken me, as all the disciples of Christ forsook him. Truth will stand unaided, and will prevail by his right hand, not mine, or yours, or by any other man's.* If I perish, the world will not perish with me.† But, wretch that I am, I fear I am not worthy to die in such a cause." "Rome," wrote he, again, about this time, "Rome eagerly longs for my destruction, and I grow weary of defying her. I am credibly informed that a paper effigy of Martin Luther has been publicly burnt in the Campus Floralis, at Rome, after being loaded with execrations. I await their onset."‡ "The whole world," he continued, "is in motion and shaking. What will be the consequence, God alone knows. For my part I foresee wars and calamities. God have mercy on us."§

Luther wrote letter after letter to Duke George, to ask permission of that prince,§ in whose states Leipsic was situated, to repair thither, and take part in the discussion: still he received no answer. The grandson of the Bohemian king, Podiebrad, alarmed by Luther's proposition touching the Pope's authority, and fearing, lest Saxony should become the theatre of struggles similar to those which had long ravaged Bohemia, resolved not to consent to Luther's request. The latter hereupon decided to publish some explanations of his thirteenth thesis. But this tract, so far from persuading Duke George, strengthened him in his resolution; and he decidedly refused the Reformer his permission to take part in the discussion, allowing him only to be present as a spectator.|| Luther was greatly mortified; nevertheless, it was his desire simply to follow God's leadings, and he resolved to repair

thither, to witness what took place, and wait any opening that might offer.

At the same time, the prince promoted by all his influence the discussion between Eck and Carlstadt. George was devotedly attached to the established doctrine—but he was upright, sincere, a friend to free enquiry, and far from deeming all exercise of individual judgment in such things justly open to the charge of heresy, merely because it might give offence to Rome. Add to this, the Elector united his influence with his cousin, and George, emboldened by the language of Frederic, ordered that the dispute should take place.*

Bishop Adolphus, of Morseburg, in whose diocese Leipsic was situated, saw more clearly than Miltitz and Cajetan, the danger of subjecting questions of such high importance to the uncertain issue of a single combat. Rome could not well expose to such hazard the acquisition of several centuries. All the divines of Leipsic sharing in the alarm, entreated their bishop to interfere and prevent the discussion. Adolphus, therefore, earnestly dissuaded Duke George, but the latter answered with much good sense:† "I am surprised to find a bishop holding in abhorrence the ancient and laudable custom of our fathers, to inquire into doubtful questions in matters of faith. If your theologians object to defend their doctrines, the money given them would be better bestowed in maintaining old women and children, who at least might sew and sing."

This letter produced little effect on the bishop and his divines. Error has a hidden conscience which makes its supporters fear discussion, even while they talk most largely of free inquiry. Advancing without circumspection, it draws back with cowardice. Truth provokes not, but holds firm. Error provokes inquiry and then retires. The prosperity of the university of Wittenberg was an object of jealousy at Leipsic. The monks and the priests from their pulpits besought the people to avoid the new heretics. They reviled Luther, depicting him and his friends in the darkest colours, to rouse the fanaticism of the lowest classes against the doctors of the Reformation.‡ Tetzels himself, who was still living, exclaimed from his retreat, "It is the devil himself who is urging on this contest."§

Still not all the Leipsic professors were of this opinion. Some belonged to the class of indifferent spectators, ever ready to find amusement in the faults of both sides. Of this number was Peter Mosellanus. He cared little for John Eck, or Carlstadt, or Martin Luther, but he promised himself much amusement from their contest. "John Eck, the most illustrious of gladiators of the pen and rhodomontadists," said he, writing to his friend, Erasmus, "John Eck, who, like the Socrates of Aristophanes, looks down upon the gods themselves, is about to come to blows with Andrew Carlstadt. The battle will end in smoke. There will be matter for mirth for ten Democrituses."||

On the other hand, the timid Erasmus was alarmed at the idea of a dispute: and his prudence tried to prevent the discussion. "If you would trust Erasmus," wrote he to Melancthon, "you would apply yourself rather to the cultivation of literature, than to disputes with its enemies.¶ In that way I think we should get on better. Above all, let us remember in the contest, that we must not conquer by force of words only, but also by modesty and gentleness."

* Principis nostri verbo firmatus. (L. Epp. i. 265.)

† Schneider, Lips. Chr. iv. 163.

‡ Theologi interim ne proscribunt . . . populum Lipsie in clamant. L. Epp. i. 265.

§ Das walt der Teufel! (Ibid.)

|| Secondorf, 201.

¶ Malim te plus operæ sumere in asserendis bonis litteris, quam in sectandis harum hostibus. (Corpus Reform. ed. Bretschneider, i. 78, April 22, 1519.)

* Et sola sit veritas, quæ salvet se dextrâ suâ, non meâ, non tuâ, non ullius hominis. . . (L. Epp. i. 261.)

† Expecto furorem illorum. (Ibid. 280 of the 30th May, 1519.)

‡ Totus orbis nutat et movetur, tam corpore quam animâ. (L. Epp. i. 261.)

§ Tenuis litera, a duce Georgio non potui certum obtinere responsum. (Ibid. 282.)

|| Ita ut non disputator sed spectator futurus Lipsiam ingrederer. (L. Opp. in præf.)

Neither the fears of the priests, nor the prudence of pacificators, could now prevent the contest. Each party prepared himself.

Eck was the first to arrive at the place of rendezvous. On the 21st of June he entered Leipsic, accompanied by Polander, a young man whom he brought from Ingolstadt to take notes of the discussion. He was received with great honours. Attired in priestly garments, at the head of a numerous procession, he passed through the streets of the city on *Corpus Christi* day. All crowded to see him. "The whole population was in my favour," said he, in speaking of it; "nevertheless," he continues, "a rumour was spread abroad in the city that I should be defeated in the encounter."

The day after the festival, Friday, the 24th of June, and St. John's day, the party from Wittemberg arrived in Leipsic. Carlstadt, who was to conduct the controversy against Eck, was alone in his travelling car, in advance of the rest. Duke Barnim, of Pomerania, who was at that time studying at Wittemberg, and had been chosen Rector of the University, followed in an open carriage. Seated beside him were the two celebrated divines—the fathers of the Reformation—Melancthon and Luther. Melancthon had refused to be separated from his friend. "Martin, that soldier of Jesus Christ," were his words to Spalatin, "has stirred up all this filthy bog.* My soul is moved with indignation when I think of the shameful conduct of the Pope's doctors. Stand firm and constant with us." Luther himself had requested his Achates, as he has been termed, to bear him company.

John Lange, vicar of the Augustines, several doctors of law, a few masters of arts, two licentiates in theology, and other ecclesiastics, among whom was noticed Nicholas Amsdorff, closed the procession. Amsdorff, descended from a noble family of Saxony, far from being fascinated by the brilliant career to which his birth seemed to call him, had devoted himself to theology. The theses on indulgences had led him to the knowledge of the truth. Instantly he had made a courageous profession of faith.† Of energetic mind and vehement character, Amsdorff was accustomed to urge on Luther, already by nature prompt, to actions of questionable prudence. Born to elevated station, he was not awed by rank, and, in addressing the great, he spoke at times with a freedom bordering upon rudeness. "The Gospel of Jesus Christ," said he, in presence of a noble assembly, "belongs to the poor and afflicted, and not to princes, lords, and courtiers, such as you who live in a round of pleasures and enjoyments."‡

But this was not all the array of Wittemberg. A large body of students accompanied their teachers. Eck affirms, that there were as many as two hundred. Armed with pikes and halberds, they attended the doctors in their route, resolved to defend them, and proud of their cause.

In this order the procession of the Reformers arrived at Leipsic. Just as it had passed the Grimma gate, and had reached the cemetery of St. Paul, a wheel of Carlstadt's travelling car broke down. The archdeacon, whose vanity was pleasing itself with so solemn an entry, was precipitated into the mud. He was not hurt, but was compelled to proceed on foot to the place of his abode. Luther's chariot, which was following that of Carlstadt, got before him, and bore the Reformer safe and sound to his destination. The people of Leipsic, who had assembled to witness the entry of

the champions of Wittemberg, interpreted this accident as an ill omen for Carlstadt; and it was soon a prevalent impression that he would break down in the conflict, but that Luther would remain master of the field.*

Adolphus, of Merseburg, was not idle. As soon as he learned the approach of Luther and Carlstadt, and even before they had alighted, he caused to be affixed on the doors of the churches, a notice prohibiting the opening of the discussion under pain of excommunication. Duke George, astounded at this audacity, directed the city council to tear down the bishop's placard, and committed to prison the daring meddler who had ventured to be agent of his orders.† George had himself arrived at Leipsic. He was accompanied by all his court; among the rest, by Jerome Emser, with whom Luther had spent a memorable evening at Dresden.‡ George made the customary presents to the two disputants. "The Duke," said Eck, boastfully, "presented me with a fine stag, and to Carlstadt he gave only a roebuck."§

The moment Eck heard that Luther had arrived, he repaired to the doctor's lodgings—"What is this?" said he, "I am told you object to dispute with me."—LUTHER. "How can I dispute, since the Duke forbids me to do so."—ECK. "If I am not allowed to dispute with you, I shall take very little interest in discussing with Carlstadt. It is on your account I am here."|| Then, after a moment's silence, he continued, "If I obtain the Duke's permission, will you take the field?"—LUTHER (overjoyed.) "Only obtain permission, and we will meet."

Eck instantly waited on the Duke; he laboured to dissipate his fears; he assured him that he was certain of victory, and that the Pope's authority, far from suffering by the dispute, would come out of it the more glorious. "It was fit," he said, "that the argument should bear against the principal party.—If Luther be unhumiliated, every thing is still to be done; if he is overcome, all is at an end." George granted the desired permission.

The Duke had had a large apartment prepared in his palace, named Pleissenburg. Two elevated pulpits had been erected opposite each other—tables had been placed for the notaries engaged to take notes of the discussion, and benches were ranged around for the audience. The pulpits and benches were hung with rich tapestry. In front of that intended for the doctor of Wittemberg, was suspended the portrait of St. Martin—on that of Eck, was the figure of St. George.—"We shall see," said the haughty Eck, as he contemplated this emblem—"if I do not trample my antagonists under my feet." Every thing announced the high importance attached to the dispute.

On the 25th of June, a meeting was held in the Castle to settle the order that should be followed. Eck, who placed even more dependance on his declamation and action, than on his arguments, exclaimed, "We will dispute freely and extempore, and the notaries need not take down our words."

CARLSTADT. "It was understood that the discussion should be written, printed, and submitted to the judgment of the public."

ECK. "Writing down all that is said wearies the minds of the disputants, and protracts the contest. There is an end at once of the spirit necessary to give animation to the discussion. Do not delay the flow of eloquence."**

* Martinus, Domini miles, hanc camarinam movit. (Corp. Ref. i. 82.)

† Nec cum carne et sanguine diu contulit, sed statim palam ad alios fidei confessionem constanter edidit. (M. Adami Vita Amsdorff.)

‡ Weismann, Hist. Eccl. i. 1444.

* Seb. Frischel von Priesterthum. Wittemb. 1585, in præf.

† L. Opp. L. xvii. 245.

‡ See Vol. I. p. 247.

§ Seckend. p. 190.

|| Si tecum non licet disputare neque cum Carlstatio volo; propter te enim hunc veni. (L. Opp. in præf.)

¶ Melancth. Opp. i. 139. (Koethe ed.)

The friends of Eck supported his proposal—but Carlstadt persisted in his objections, and the champion of Rome was obliged to give way.

ECK. "Well, be it so; let it be in writing: but at least the discussion, taken down by notaries, must not be made public before it has been submitted to the inspection of chosen judges."

LUTHER. "Then, does the truth that Doctor Eck and his followers hold, dread the light?"

ECK. "There must be judges."

LUTHER. "What judges?"

ECK. "When the discussion is closed, we will settle who they shall be."

The object of the Romanists was apparent. If the Wittenberg divines accepted judges, they were lost: for their adversaries were previously secure of the favour of those who would be applied to. If they refused to abide their decision, their enemies would cover them with shame, by circulating the report that they feared to submit themselves to impartial award.

The Reformers demanded for judges—not this and that individual, whose opinion had been previously formed, but the general body of Christians. It was to this universal suffrage they appealed. Besides, sentence of condemnation given against them would, in their judgment, matter little, if, in defending their cause before the Christian world, they should lead souls to the discovery of the light. "Luther," says a Roman historian, "required the whole body of believers for his judges—in other words, a tribunal so extensive, that no urn would be found to receive the suffrages."⁷

The parties separated.—"Observe their artifices," remarked Luther, and his friends, to each other.—"They no doubt mean to require that the Pope or the Universities should be the judges of the result."

In fact, on the following morning, the Romish party sent one of their number to Luther, with instructions to propose to him . . . the Pope . . . as judge—the Pope! "The Pope!" said Luther, "how can I accede to such a proposal?"

"Beware," said all his friends, "of accepting such unjust conditions." Eck and his advisers held another council. They gave up the Pope, and proposed certain Universities. "Do not retract the liberty you have before conceded to us," said Luther. "We cannot yield this point," replied they. "Then," exclaimed Luther, "I will take no part in the discussion."⁸

Again the parties separated, and throughout the city the affair was a subject of conversation. "Luther will not accept the challenge," said the Romanists. . . . He will not acknowledge any judge!" His words are commented on and misconstrued, and endeavours are made to represent them in the most unfavourable colours. "What, is it true that he declines the discussion?" said the warmest friends of the Reformer. They flock around him and give expression to their misgivings—"You decline the discussion!" said they, "your refusal will bring lasting shame on your University, and on the cause you have taken in hand."

It was assailing him on his weak side. "Well, then," said he, indignantly, "I accept the conditions proposed; but I reserve to myself the right to appeal, and decline the jurisdiction of Rome."⁹

The 27th of June was the day fixed for the opening of the discussion. Early in the morning a meeting took place in the great college of the University, and from thence the train walked in procession to the church of St. Thomas, where a solemn mass was performed by order, and at the expense, of the Duke.

⁷ Aiebat, ad universos mortales pertinere iudicium, hoc est ad tribunal ejus colligendis oculis nulla urna satis capax. (Pallavicini, tom. i. 65.)

⁸ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 245.

⁹ Ibid. 246.

After the service the parties present repaired in procession to the ducal castle. In front, walked Duke George and the Duke of Pomerania; then came counts, barons, knights, and other persons of rank, and, lastly, the doctors, of both sides. A guard, consisting of seventy-three citizens, armed with halberds, accompanied their march, with banners flying, and martial music, halting at the castle-gates.

The procession having reached the palace, each took his seat in the hall, where the discussion was to take place. Duke George, the hereditary Prince John, Prince George of Anhalt, then twelve years of age, and the Duke of Pomerania, occupied the seats assigned them.

Mosellanus ascended the pulpit, to remind the theologians, by the Duke's order, in what manner they were to dispute. "If you fall to quarrelling," said the speaker; "what difference will remain between a theologian in discussion, and a shameless duellist! In this question, what is victory, but the recovery of a brother from error? It means as if each of you should be more desirous to be so conquered than to conquer!"^{*}

This address terminated, sacred music resounded in the halls of the Pleissenburg; the whole assembly fell upon their knees, and the ancient hymn of invocation to the Holy Spirit, *Veni, Sancte Spiritus*, was chanted. Solemn moments in the history of the Reformation! Thrice was the invocation repeated, and while this impressive voice was heard around, the defenders of the ancient doctrine, and the champions of this new teaching, the churchmen of the middle ages, and those who sought to restore the church of the apostles, humbly bowed their foreheads to the earth. The time-honoured bond of one communion still bound together all these different minds; the same prayer still proceeded from all these lips, as if *one heart* pronounced it.

These were the last moments of outward and lifeless unity: a new Oneness of the spirit and of life was commencing. The Holy Spirit was invoked upon the church, and was preparing to answer in the revival of Christianity.

The chanting and prayer being concluded, all rose from their knees. The discussion was about to commence, but it being twelve o'clock, it was postponed till two in the afternoon.

The Duke assembled at his table the principal persons who intended to be present at the discussion. After the repast, they returned to the castle. The hall was filled with spectators. Discussions of this kind were the public meetings of that age. It was in such meetings that the men, who represented the generation in which they lived, agitated the questions which occupied the general mind. Soon the speakers took their places. That their appearance may be better conceived, we will give their portraits as traced by one of the most impartial witnesses of the encounter.

"Martin Luther is of middle size, and so thin, by reason of his continual studies, that one can almost count his bones. He is in the prime of life, and his voice is clear and sonorous. His knowledge and understanding of the Holy Scriptures are incomparable: the whole word of God is at his fingers' ends." Added to this, he has vast resources of argument and ideas. One might perhaps desire somewhat more judgment to arrange everything in its right order. In conversation he is agreeable and obliging; in no respect stoical or proud; he accommodates himself to every one; his manner of speaking is pleasing, and full of joviality;

^{*} Seckend, p. 209.

[†] Seine Gelehrsamkeit aber und Verstand in heiliger Schrift ist unvergleichlich, so drass er fast alles im Griff hat. (Mosellanus in Seckend, 206.)

he evinces much firmness, and has ever a contented expression of countenance, whatever may be the threats of his adversaries. So that one is constrained to believe that it is not without divine assistance that he does such great things. He is blamed, however, for being more severe in his reproofs than is becoming in a divine, especially when advancing novelties in religion."

"Carlstadt is smaller in stature: he has a dark and sunburnt complexion; his voice is harsh; his memory less tenacious than that of Luther, and he is yet more warm in temper. Yet he possesses, though in a lower degree, the same qualities for which his friend is remarkable."

"Eck is tall and broad shouldered; his voice is strong and truly German. He has good lungs, so that he would be well heard in a theatre, and would even make a capital town-crier. His articulation is rather thick than clear. He has none of the grace so much commended by Fabius and Cicero. His mouth, eyes, and whole countenance, give you the idea rather of a soldier, or a butcher, than of a divine.* His memory is wonderful, and if his understanding were equal to it, he would be a truly perfect man. But his comprehension is slow, and he wants that judgment, without which all other gifts are useless. Hence, in disputing, he produces a mass of passages from the Bible, citations from the Fathers, and different kinds of proof, without careful selection or discernment. Add to this, his effrontery is almost inconceivable. If he is embarrassed he breaks off from the subject in hand, plunges into another, sometimes even takes up the opinion of his antagonist under a different form of expression, and, with wonderful address, attributes to his opponent the very absurdity he himself was defending."

Such is the description given by Mosellanus of the men who then engaged the attention of the multitude who thronged the great hall of the Pleissenburg.

The discussion was opened by Eck and Carlstadt.

Eck's eyes rested for an instant on some articles that lay on the desk of his adversary's pulpit, and which seemed to offend his eye. These were the Bible and the Fathers. "I object to entering upon the discussion," exclaimed he, on a sudden, "if you are permitted to bring your books with you." Strange that a theologian should have recourse to books in order to dispute. Eck's surprise ought to have been yet more surprising. "All this is but a fig-leaf by which this Adam seeks to hide his shame," said Luther. "Did not Augustine consult books when he contended against the Manicheans?"† It mattered not! the partisans of Eck were loud in their clamours. Mutual imputations were thrown out. "The man has no memory," said Eck. Finally, it was arranged, according to the wish of the Chancellor of Ingolstadt, that each party should be restricted to the use of his memory and of his tongue. "Thus, then," said many, "in this disputation, the point at issue will not be the inquiry after truth, but what praise is to be assigned to the speech and memory of the disputants."

It being impossible to relate, at length, the course of a discussion which lasted seventeen days, we must, to borrow the expression of an historian, imitate painters, who, in representing a battle, give prominence to the more memorable actions, leaving the rest in the back ground.‡

The subject in dispute, between Eck and Carlstadt, was an important one. "Man's will, previous to his

conversion," said Carlstadt, "can do no good work. Every good work proceeds entirely and exclusively from God, who gives to man first the will, and afterward the power, to perform it." This truth had been proclaimed by Holy Scripture, in the words—*It is God that worketh in you, both to will and to do of his good pleasure*,* and by Saint Augustine, who, in disputing with the Pelagians, had expressed it almost in the same words. Every action which is wanting in love to God, and obedience to Him, is in His sight destitute of that which can alone render it good; even though in other respects flowing from the noblest of human motives. But there is in man a natural opposition to the will of God. He has not in himself the strength to overcome this. He has neither the power nor the will to do so. This then must be the work of divine power.

This is the doctrine so cried down by the world, and which is yet so simple; the doctrine of Free-will. But the scholastic divines had expounded it so as scarcely to be recognised. Doubtless, said they, the will of man in a state of nature can do nothing truly acceptable to God; but it can do much to render him more capable of receiving the grace of God, and more meet to obtain it. They called these preparations a merit of congruity;† "because it was congruous," says Thomas Aquinas, "that God should treat with special favour the men who makes a right use of his own will." And as to the conversion which must be wrought in man, doubtless it was the grace of God, which, as the scholastic divines taught, must effect it; but without excluding natural powers. These powers, said they, have not been destroyed by sin:—sin but interposes an obstacle to their development; but when this impediment is removed, and that, said they, it is the office of the Spirit of God to accomplish, the action of these powers is restored. To make use of their favourite illustration, the bird that has been long confined, has, in this condition, neither lost its strength nor forgotten how to fly; but a friendly hand is needed to loose its fetters before it can again rise on the wing. Such, said they, is the condition of man.‡

This was the subject of dispute between Eck and Carlstadt. Eck had at first seemed entirely opposed to Carlstadt's propositions on this subject; but finding it difficult to maintain the position he had chosen, he said, "I grant that our will has not power to do a good act, and that it receives power from God." "Do you then acknowledge," asked Carlstadt, overjoyed at having won such a concession, "that a good work comes entirely of God." The whole good work comes truly from God," replied the subtle Eck, "but not entirely." "That is a discovery most worthy of theological learning," cried Melancthon. "An entire apple," pursued Eck, "is produced by the sun, but not by one effect, and without the co-operation of the plant."§ Doubtless no one ever maintained that an apple was altogether the product of the sun.

Well, then, said the opposing parties, going deeper into this question, at once so delicate and so important in philosophy and religion, let us then inquire how God acts on man, and how man concurs with this action. "I acknowledge," said Eck, "that the first thought leading to the conversion of a man comes from God, and that man's will is in this entirely passive."|| So far the two antagonists were agreed. "I acknowledge," said Carlstadt, "on my side, that after this first act, which proceeds from God, something is requisite on the

* Das Maul, Augen und ganze Gesicht, presentirt ehe einen Fleischer oder Soldaten, als einen Theologum. (Mosellanus in Seckond. 206.)

† Prætextit tamen et hic Adam ille folium fici pulcherrimum. (L. Epp. i. 294.)

‡ Pallavicini, i. 65.

* Philippians ii. 13. † Meritum congruum.

‡ Planck, i. 176.

§ Quamquam totum opus Dei sit, non tamen totaliter a Deo esse quemadmodum totum pomum efficitur a sole, sed non a sole totaliter et sine plantæ efficientiâ. (Pallavicini, t. i. 65.)

|| Motionem seu inspirationem prevenientem esse a solo Deo; et ibi liberum arbitrium habet se passive.

part of man, which St. Paul calls *will*, which the Fathers term, *consent*." Here again both agreed; but from this point they diverged. "This consent on the part of man," said Eck, "comes partly from our natural will, partly from God's grace to us." "No," said Carlstadt, "it is requisite that God should entirely create this will in man."† Hereupon Eck began to manifest surprise and anger at words so well adapted to make man sensible of his own nothingness. "Your doctrine," said he, "regards man as a stone, a log, incapable of reciprocal action." "What!" answered the Reformers, "does not the capacity for receiving the strength that God produces in him—a capacity which, according to us, man possesses—sufficiently distinguish him from a stone, or a log of wood?" "But," replied their antagonists, "you take a position that directly contradicts experience, when you refuse to acknowledge any natural ability in man." "We do not deny," replied the others, "that man possesses certain powers and ability to reflect, meditate, and choose; only we count such powers as mere instruments which can do no good thing until the hand of God has moved them; they are like to a saw that a man holds in his hands."‡

The great question of Free-will was here discussed; and it was easy to demonstrate that the doctrine of the Reformers did not take away from a man the liberty of a moral agent, and reduce him to a passive machine. The liberty of a moral agent consists in the power of acting conformably to his choice. Every action performed without external constraint, and in pursuance of the determination of the soul itself, is a free action. The soul is determined by motives; but we constantly see the same motives acting diversely on different minds. Many do not act conformably to the motives of which they yet acknowledge all the force. This failure of the motive proceeds from obstacles opposed by the corruption of the heart and understanding. But God, in giving "a new heart and a new spirit," takes away these obstacles; and, in removing them, far from depriving man of liberty, he removes that which hindered him from acting freely, and from following the light of his conscience; and thus, as the Gospel expresses it, makes him free. (John viii. 36.)

A trivial incident interrupted the discussion. Carlstadt, as Eck relates,§ had prepared certain arguments, and, like many preachers of our own day, he was reading what he had written. Eck saw in this mere college tactics; he objected to it. Carlstadt, embarrassed, and fearing he should not get on well without his paper, persisted. "Ah!" exclaimed the doctor of the schools, proud of the advantage he thought he had obtained, "he has not quite so good a memory as I have." The point was referred to arbitrators, who permitted the reading of passages of the Fathers, but came to the resolution that, with that exception, the discussion should be extempore.

This first stage of the dispute was often interrupted by the spectators. Much agitation, and even audible expressions of feeling, broke forth. Any proposition that did not find favour with the majority excited instant clamours, and then it was necessary to enjoin silence. The disputants themselves were sometimes carried away by the eagerness of the dispute.

Close to Luther stood Melancthon, who was almost in an equal degree an object of curiosity. He was of small stature, and would have passed as not above eighteen years of age. Luther, who was a head taller,

seemed connected with him in the closest friendship; they came in and went out together. "To look at Melancthon," said a Swiss divine,* who studied at Wittenberg, "one would say he was but a youth; but in understanding, learning, and talent, he is a giant; and one wonders how such heights of wisdom and genius can be contained within so slight a frame." Between the sittings, Melancthon conversed with Carlstadt and Luther. He aided them in their preparation for the discussion, and suggested the arguments that his vast learning enabled him to contribute; but while the discussion was going on, he remained quietly seated among the spectators, listening with attention to the words of the speakers.† At times, however, he came to the assistance of Carlstadt. Whenever the latter was near giving way under the declamation of the Chancellor of Ingolstadt, the young professor would whisper a word, or hand him a slip of paper whereon he had noted down a reply. Eck having, on one occasion, perceived this, and indignant that the grammarian, as he termed him, should dare to meddle in the discussion, turned round and said, insolently; "Be silent, Philip, mind your studies, and do not stand in my way."‡ Eck may perhaps have even then foreseen how formidable an opponent he would one day find in this youth. Luther was roused by this rude insult directed against his friend. "The judgment of Philip," said he, "has greater weight with me than a thousand Dr. Ecks."

The calm Melancthon easily detected the weak points of the discussion. "One cannot help feeling astonished," said he, with that prudence and gracious spirit which we recognise in all his words, "when we think on the violence with which these subjects were treated. How could any expect to derive instruction from it? The Spirit of God loves retirement and silence; it is there he penetrates into our hearts. The bride of Christ does not take her stand in the streets and cross-ways, but she leads her spouse into the house of her mother."§

Each party claimed the victory. Eck resorted to every artifice to appear victorious. As the lines of divergence ran closely together, it often happened that he exclaimed that he had reduced his adversary to his opinion; or else, like another Proteus, said Luther, he turned suddenly round, put forth Carlstadt's opinion differently expressed, and triumphantly demanded if he could refuse to acknowledge it. And the uninitiated, who had not watched the manœuvre of the sophist, began to applaud and exult with him. Nevertheless, Eck, without perceiving it, in reality gave up, in the course of the discussion, much more than he had intended. His partisans laughed immoderately at his successive devices; "but," said Luther, "I am much inclined to think that their laughter was affected, and that they were actually on thorns, when they saw their chief, who had commenced the battle with bravadoes, abandon his standard, leave his own ranks, and act the part of a shameless deserter."||

Three or four days after the opening of the conference, it had been interrupted on account of the festival of the apostles, St. Peter and St. Paul.

The Duke of Pomerania had requested Luther to preach on the occasion in his chapel. Luther gladly consented. But the chapel was early thronged, and the crowds of hearers increasing, the assembly ad-

* John Kessler, afterwards Reformer at St. Gall.

† Lipsiæ pugnæ ociosus spectator in reliquo vulgo sedi, (Corpus Reformatorum, i. 111.)

‡ Tace tu; Philippe, ac tua studia cura, ne me perturba, (Ibid. i. 149.)

§ Melancthon. Opp. p. 134.

|| Relictis signis, desertorem exercitus et transfugam factum. (L. Epp. i. 265.)

* Partim a Deo, partim a libero arbitrio.

† Consentit homo, sed consensus est donum Dei.—Consentire non est agere.

‡ Ut terra in manu hominis trahentis,

§ Seckendorf, p. 192.

journed to the great hall of the castle, where the conference had been carried on. Luther took his text from the gospel of the day, and preached on the grace of God, and the authority of St. Peter. What he was accustomed to maintain before a learned auditory, he then declared to the people:—Christianity brings the light of truth to the humblest as well as the most intelligent minds. It is this which distinguishes it from all other religions, and all systems of philosophy. The Leipsic divines, who had heard Luther's sermon, hastened to report to Eck the offensive expressions with which they had been scandalized. "You must answer him," cried they; "these specious errors must be publicly refuted." Eck desired nothing better. All the churches were at his service; and, on four successive occasions, he ascended the pulpit, and inveighed against Luther and his sermon. Luther's friends were indignant. They demanded that the theologian of Wittenberg should, in his turn, be heard. But their demand was disregarded. The pulpits were open to the enemies of the Gospel, and shut to those who proclaimed it. "I was silent," said Luther, "and was obliged to suffer myself to be attacked, insulted, and calumniated, without even the power to excuse or defend myself."*

It was not only the clergy who opposed the teachers of the evangelical doctrine; the burghers of Leipsic were, in that, of one mind with the clergy. A blind fanaticism rendered them the ready dupes of the falsehood and prejudice which were circulated abroad. The principal inhabitants abstained from visiting Luther or Carlstadt; and, if they accidentally met in the street, they passed them without salutation. They misrepresented them to the duke. On the other hand, they were in daily communication, and interchange of visits, with the Doctor of Ingolstadt. To Luther they offered the disputant's customary present of wine. Beyond this any who were favourably disposed toward him, concealed their predilection from others: several, following the example of Nicodemus, came to him by night, or by stealth. Two individuals alone stood forward, to their own honour, and publicly declared themselves his friends:—Doctor Auerbach, whom we have already seen at Augsburg, and Doctor Pistor, the younger.

The greatest agitation prevailed in the city. The two parties resembled two hostile camps, and sometimes came to blows. Frequent quarrels took place in the inns between the Leipsic students and those of Wittenberg. It was currently asserted, even in the meetings of the clergy, that Luther carried about with him a devil enclosed in a small box. "I know not," said Eck, spitefully, "whether the devil is in the box or under his frock—but sure I am, he is in one or the other."

Several doctors of the opposing parties were lodged, during the progress of the disputation, in the house of the printer, Herbpolis. Their contentions ran so high, that their host was obliged to place a police sergeant, armed with a halberd, at the head of the table, with instruction to preserve the peace. One day Baumgarten, a vender of indulgences, came to blows with a gentleman attached to Luther, and, in the violence of his fit of passion, burst a blood-vessel, and expired. "I myself," says Fröschel, who relates the fact,* "was one of those who carried him to the grave." In such results the general ferment in men's minds manifested itself. Then, as in our days, the speeches in the assemblies found an echo in the dinner-room and public streets.

Duke George, though strongly biased in favour of

Eck, did not evince so much zeal in his cause as his subjects. He invited all three, Eck, Luther, and Carlstadt, to dinner. He even requested Luther to visit him in private; but soon manifested the prejudices that had been artfully inculcated. "Your tract on the Lord's prayer," said the duke, "has misled the consciences of many. There are some who complain that, for four days together, they have not been able to say one *pater*."

It was on the 4th of July that the contest commenced between Eck and Luther. Everything announced that it would be more violent and decisive than that which had just terminated. The two disputants were advancing to the arena, firmly resolved not to lay down their arms till victory should have declared in favour of one or the other. General attention was alive, for the subject of dispute was the pope's primacy. Two prominent hinderances obstruct the progress of the gospel, the hierarchy, and rationalism, as applied to the doctrines of man's moral powers, had been the object of attack in the early part of the discussion. The hierarchy viewed, in what was at once its basis as well as climax—the doctrine of the pope's authority was now to be impugned. On the one side appeared Eck, the defender of the established teaching, and, like some boastful soldier, strong in confidence derived from previous triumphs.* On the other side came Luther, to whom the contest seemed to promise nothing but persecutions and ignominy, but who presented himself with a clear conscience, a firm determination to sacrifice everything to the cause of truth, and a hope full of faith in God's power to deliver him.

At seven in the morning the two disputants had taken their places, encompassed by an attentive and numerous auditory.

Luther stood up, and adopting a necessary precaution, said, with humility:

"In the name of the Lord—Amen. I declare that the respect I have for the sovereign pontiff would have prevented my sustaining the part I am taking in this discussion, had not the worthy Doctor Eck persuaded me thereto."

ECK. "In thy name, blessed Jesus! Before I enter on this discussion, I protest in your presence, noble chiefs, that all I shall say is subject to the judgment of the first of all episcopal chairs, and to the master who fills it."

After a moment's silence, Eck continued:

"There is in God's Church a *primacy* derived from Christ himself. The church militant has been set up in the likeness of the church triumphant. But this latter is a monarchy, wherein everything ascends hierarchically to its sole head—God himself. Therefore it is that Christ has established a similar order upon earth. How monstrous would the church be without a head."†

LUTHER, turning to the assembly,

"When the doctor declares that it is most needful that the Church universal have a head, he says well. If there be any one among us who affirms the contrary, let him stand forth. I hold no such thing."

ECK. "If the church militant has never been without its one Head, I would beg to ask who he can be, but the Roman Pontiff?"

LUTHER, raising his eyes to heaven,

"The Head of the Church militant is Christ himself, and not a mortal man. I believe this, on the au-

* Mich verklagen, schelten und schmähen . . . (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 247.)

† Löschner, iii. 278.

* Faciebat hoc Ecclesius quia certam sibi gloriam propositam cernebat, propter propositionem meam, in qua negabam Papam esse jure divino caput Ecclesie; hic patuit ei campus magnus. (L. Opp. in pref)

† Nam quod monstrum esset, Ecclesiam esse acephalam! (L. Opp. lat. i. 243.)

thority of God's testimony, whose word says, He must reign until his enemies be put under his feet.* Let us then no longer give ear to those who put away Christ to the Church triumphant in Heaven. His kingdom is a kingdom of faith. We see not our Head, and yet we are joined to him."†

Eck. "Not discomfited, and turning to other arguments, resumed :

"It is from Rome, as St. Cyprian tells us, that sacerdotal unity proceeded."‡

LUTHER. "As regards the Western Church, agreed. But is not this Roman Church herself derived from that of Jerusalem? And, to speak correctly, the church of Jerusalem was mother and nurse of all the churches."§

Eck. "St. Jerome affirms, that if authority above that of all other churches is not lodged with the Pope, there will be in the Church as many schisms as there are bishops."||

LUTHER. "I admit it,¶ that is to say, that if all the faithful were consenting, this authority might, agreeably to the principles of human legislation, be rightfully ascribed to the chief pontiff. Neither would I deny that if the whole body of believers should consent to acknowledge as first and chief bishop—the bishop of Rome, or of Paris, or of Magdeburg, it would be our duty to acknowledge him as such—from respect to this general consent of the whole church : but that is what the world has never seen, nor ever will see. Even in our own day, does not the Greek church withhold her consent to Rome?"

Luther was at this time quite prepared to acknowledge the pope as chief magistrate of the Church—freely chosen by it; but he denied his divine right. It was not until a later period that he denied that any submission was due to him. That was an advance to which the Leipsic controversy mainly contributed. But Eck was on ground which Luther knew better than he. As Eck appealed to the authority of the Fathers, Luther resolved to defeat him by the Fathers themselves.

"That my construction of the words," said he, "is truly what St. Jerome intended, I will prove by his own epistle to Evagrius. Every bishop, says he, whether of Rome or of Eugubium, whether of Constance or of Regium, whether of Alexandria or of Thanis, has the same honour and the same priestly rank.** The influence of wealth, or the humility of poverty alone, makes their difference of standing."

From the Fathers Luther passed to the decrees of the councils, which recognize in the bishop of Rome only the first among his peers.†† "We read," said he, "in the decree of the Council of Africa, 'Let not the bishop of the chief see be called Prince of the Pontiffs, or Sovereign Pontiff, or any other name of that sort, but simply, bishop of the first see.' If the monarchy of the bishop of Rome were of divine right," continued Luther, "would not this decision be heretical?"

Eck met this by one of the subtle distinctions to which he was so accustomed to have recourse.

"The bishop of Rome, if you please, is not universal bishop, but bishop of the church universal."‡‡

* 1 Cor. xv. 25.

† *Prorsus audiendi non sunt qui Christum extra Ecclesiam imitantem tendunt in triumphantem, cum sit regnum fidei. Caput nostrum non videmus; tamen habemus.* (L. Opp. lat. i. 243.)

‡ Unde sacerdotalis unitas exorta est. (Ibid. 243.)

§ Hæc est matrix propriæ omnium ecclesiarum. (Ibid. 244.)

|| Cui si non exors quædam et ab omnibus eminens datur potestas. (Ibid. 243.)

¶ *Detur, inquit, hoc est jure humano, posse fieri, consentientibus cæteris omnibus fidelibus.* (Ibid. 244.)

** *Ejusdem meriti et ejusdem sacerdotii est.* (L. Opp. lat. i. 244.)

†† Primus inter pares.

‡‡ Non episcopus universalis sed universalis Ecclesiæ Episcopus. (Ibid. 246.)

LUTHER. "I will not say one word on that answer. Let our hearers themselves judge concerning it."

"Certainly," he afterward observed, "that was a gloss worthy of a theologian, and just of a kind to content a disputant eager for triumph. I have not remained at Leipsic, at considerable cost, to no purpose, since I have learned that the pope, of a truth, is not universal bishop, but bishop of the church universal!"*

Eck. "Well, to come to the point. The venerable doctor requires from me a proof that the primacy of the church of Rome is of divine right; I find that proof in the words of Christ—'Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my church.'" St. Augustine, in one of his epistles, has thus explained the meaning of the passage—'Thou art Peter, and on this rock, that is to say, on Peter, I will build my church.' It is true, that Augustine has elsewhere said, that by this rock we must understand Christ himself, but he has not retracted his first explanation."

LUTHER. "If the revered doctor brings against me these words of St. Augustine, let him himself first reconcile such opposite assertions. For certain it is, that St. Augustine has repeatedly said, that the rock was Christ, and hardly once that it was Peter himself. But even though St. Augustine, and all the Fathers, should say, that the apostle is the rock of which Christ spake, I would, if I should stand alone, deny the assertion—supported by the authority of the Holy Scripture—in other words, by divine right—†—for it is written, *Other foundation can no man lay than that is laid, even Christ Jesus.*‡ Peter himself calls Christ *the chief corner-stone, and living rock, on which we are built up a spiritual house.*"§

Eck. "I am astonished at the humility and diffidence with which the reverend doctor undertakes to stand alone against so many illustrious Fathers, thus affirming that he knows more of these things than the Sovereign Pontiff, the councils, divines, and universities! . . . It would no doubt be very wonderful if God had hidden the truth from so many saints and martyrs till the advent of the revered father."

LUTHER. "The Fathers are not opposed to me. St. Augustine, St. Ambrose, and the most eminent divines, say as I do. On that confession of faith the church is built, says St. Ambrose,|| explaining what is to be understood by the stone on which the church rests. Let my antagonist then restrain his speech. Such expressions as he has just used do but stir up animosity, instead of helping in learned discussion."

Eck had not expected so much learning in his adversary, and managed to extricate himself from the labyrinth in which he had endeavoured to entangle him. "The reverend father," said he, "has entered on this discussion, after well preparing his subject. Your excellencies will excuse me if I should not produce so much exact research. I came hither to discuss, and not to make a book." Eck was in some sort taken by surprise, but not defeated. Having no other argument at hand, he had recourse to an odious and contemptible artifice, which, if it did not bear down, must at least greatly embarrass his adversary. If the suspicion of being a Bohemian, a heretic, a Hussite, do but hang over Luther, he is vanquished; for the Bohemians were detested in the church. The doctor of Ingolstadt adopted this stratagem. "From primitive times," said he, "it has been ever acknowledged, that the Church of Rome derives her primacy from Christ him-

* *Ego gloriar me tot expensis non frustra . . .* (L. Opp. i. 299.)

† *Resistam eis ego unus, auctoritate Apostoli id est, divino jure.* (L. Opp. lat. i. 237.)

‡ 1 Cor. iii. 11.

§ 1 Peter ii. 4, 5.
|| The Church is built upon that confession of faith. (L. Opp. lat. i. 264.)

self, and not from human law. I must admit, however, that the Bohemians, in their obstinate defence of their errors have attacked this doctrine. I ask the reverend father's pardon if I am opposed to the Bohemians on account of their opposition to the Church; and if the present discussion has recalled those heretics to my recollection; for . . . according to my humble judgment . . . the inferences the doctor has drawn are entirely favourable to their errors; and, it is said, they boast of this."*

Eck had rightly calculated the effect. All his partisans loudly applauded the artful insinuation, and an exultation was manifest in the auditory. "These insults," said the Reformers at a subsequent period, "pleased their fancy much more than the progress of the discussion."

LUTHER. "I neither love, nor ever shall love, a schism. Since on their own authority the Bohemians have separated from unity with us, they are in the wrong: even though divine right should be in favour of the doctrine: for the highest divine right is love, and the unity of the Spirit."†

It was on the 5th of July, in the morning, that Luther uttered these words. The meeting shortly after broke up, the dinner hour having arrived. It is likely that some one of the friends, or perhaps of the enemies of the doctor, drew his thoughts to the fact, that he had gone very far in thus condemning the Christians of Bohemia. Had they not in reality stood for those doctrines that Luther was then maintaining? Hence it was, when the assembly were again together at two in the afternoon, Luther broke silence, and said, courageously:—"Among the articles of John Huss and the Bohemians, there are some that are most agreeable to Christ. This is certain; and of this sort is that article. 'There is only one church universal:' and again: 'That is not necessary to salvation, that we should believe the Roman church superior to others.'—It matters little to me whether Wickliff, or Huss, said it. It is Truth."

This declaration of Luther produced an immense sensation on the auditory. *Huss, Wickliff*, names held in abhorrence, pronounced with respect by a monk, in the midst of a Catholic assembly! . . . An almost general murmur ran round the hall. Duke George himself was alarmed. He foresaw for Saxony the unfurling of the standard of that civil discord which had ravaged the states of his maternal ancestors. Not able to suppress his feelings, he broke forth in a loud exclamation, in the hearing of all the assembly: "He is mad."‡ Then shaking his head, he rested his hands on his sides. The whole assembly was in high excitement. Those who were seated rose from their seats, conversing in groups: The drowsy were aroused; the enemies of Luther exulted; and his friends were greatly perplexed. Several who till then had listened to him with satisfaction, began to doubt his orthodoxy. The effect of this speech was never effaced from the mind of Duke George: from that hour he looked with an evil eye on the Reformer, and became his enemy.§

As to Luther, he did not give way to this burst of murmurs. "Gregory Nazianzen," continued he, with noble calmness, "Basil the great, Epiphanius, Chrysostom, and a great many other Greek bishops, are saved; and yet they never believed that the Church of Rome was superior to other churches. It does not

belong to the Roman pontiffs to add new articles of faith. There is no authority for the believing Christian but the Holy Scripture. It, alone, is of divine right. I beg the worthy doctor Eck to grant me that the Roman pontiffs have been men, and not to speak of them as if they were Gods."*

Eck here resorted to one of those pleasantries which give an easy advantage, in appearance, to him who uses them.

"The reverend father, who is not skilful in his cookery," said he, "has just made a very bad hash of heretics and Greek saints; so that the odour of sanctity of the one, hides the taste of poison in the others."†

LUTHER, interrupting Eck, with spirit—"The worthy doctor speaks with effrontery. In my judgment, Christ can have no concord with Belial."

Such were the discussions which gave employment to the two doctors. The assembly were attentive. The interest at times flagged, however, and the hearers were not displeased, when any incident occurred to enliven them by some distraction. It often happens, that events of the greatest importance are, in this way, broken in upon by comic accidents. Something of this sort took place at Leipsic.

Duke George, following the custom of the age, kept a court fool. Some wags said to him, "Luther is contending that a court fool may get married; Eck, maintains the contrary opinion." Hereupon the fool conceived great aversion for Eck, and every time he came to the hall in the Duke's suite, he eyed the theologian with threatening looks. One day, the chancellor of Ingolstadt, descending to buffoonery, shut one eye, (the fool was blind of one eye) and, with the other, looked askance at the dwarf. The latter, no longer able to control himself, poured forth a torrent of abuse on the learned doctor. The whole assembly, says Peifer, gave way to laughter, and this incident lessened, in some degree, the extreme tension of their minds.‡

During this time the city was the scene of events which showed the horror with which the bold assertions of Luther inspired the partisans of Rome. The loudest clamours proceeded from the convents in the Pope's interest. One Sunday the doctor of Wittemberg entered the church of the Dominicans just before high mass. There were present only a few monks, who were going through the earlier masses at the lower altars. As soon as it was known in the cloister that the heretic, Luther, was in the church, the monks ran together in haste, caught up the remonstrance, and taking it to its receptacle, carefully shut it up, lest the holy sacrament should be profaned by the impure eyes of the Augustine of Wittemberg. While this was doing, they who were reading mass collected together the sacred furniture, quitted the altar, crossed the church, and sought refuge in the sacristy, as if, says a historian, the devil himself had been behind them.

Everywhere the discussions furnished subject of conversation. In the lodging houses, at the university, at the court, each one gave his opinion. Duke George, with all his irritation, did not pertinaciously refuse to allow himself to be convinced. One day, when Eck and Luther were dining with him, he interrupted their conversation, by the remark: "Whether the Pope be by divine right, or human right, it is at any rate a fact that he is Pope."* Luther was quite pleased with

* Nec potest fidelis Christianus cogi ultra sacram Scripturam, quæ est proprie juris divinum. (L. Opp. lat. i., 252.)

† At Rev. pater artis coquinariæ minus instructus, commiscet sanctos græcos cum schismaticis et hereticis, ut fucus sanctitatis Patrum, hæreticorum tæneat perfidiam. (Ibid. 252.)

‡ L. Opp. W. xv. 1440.—2 Lüscher, iii. 281.

§ Ita ut ipse dux Georgius inter prædandum ad Ecclesiam et me dicat: "Sive sit jure humano, sive sit jure divino, papa; ipse est papa. (L. Opp. in præf.)

* Et, ut fama est, se hoc plurimum gratulantur. (Ibid. 250.)

† Nunquam mihi placuit nec in æternum placebit quoddamque schisma. . . Cum supremum jus divinum sit Charitas et Unitas Spiritus. (L. Opp. lat. i. 250.)

‡ Das walt die Sucht!

§ Nam adhuc erat dux Georgius mihi non inimicus, quod sciebam certo. (L. Opp. in præf.)

these words. "The prince," said he, "would never have given utterance to them, if my arguments had not impressed him."

The dispute on the Pope's primacy had lasted five days. On the 8th of July they came to the subject of purgatory. The discussion lasted rather more than two days. Luther at this time admitted the existence of purgatory; but he denied that this doctrine was taught in Scripture, and by the fathers in the way the scholastic divines and his adversary asserted. "Our doctor Eck," said he, alluding to the superficial character of his opponent, "has to-day run over Scripture almost without touching it, as a spider runs upon the water."

On the 11th of July the disputants arrived at the indulgences. "It was no better than play, a mere joke," said Luther. "The indulgences sell with scarce the shadow of defence. Eck agreed with me in almost everything.* Eck himself observed, "If I had not met Doctor Martin on the question of the Pope's primacy, I could almost come to agreement with him."†

The discussion afterward turned on repentance, the priest's absolution, and satisfactions. Eck, as his practice was, quoted the scholastic divines, the Dominicans, and the Pope's canons. Luther closed the discussion by these words:

"The reverend doctor avoids the Holy Scriptures, as the devil flees from before the cross. For my part, saying the respect due to the fathers, I prefer the authority of the word of God; and it is *that* which I would press upon our judges."‡

Thus ended the dispute between Eck and Luther. Carlstadt, and the doctor of Ingolstadt, continued for two days to discuss the merits of man in good works. On the 16th of July the affair was terminated, after having lasted twenty days, by a sermon from the superior of Leipsic. As soon as this was over, a band of music was heard, and the solemnity was closed by the *Te Deum*.

But, during this solemn chant, men's minds were no longer as they were when the hymn *Veni Spiritus* had been sung. Already the presentiments of some appeared realized. The arguments of the two opposing champions had inflicted an open wound on the papacy.

These theological discussions, which in our days would excite little attention, had been followed and listened to with interest for twenty days, by laymen, knights, and princes. Duke Barnim, of Pomerania, and Duke George, were constant in attendance. "But on the other hand," says an eye-witness, "some Leipsic divines, friends of Eck, slept soundly much of the time, and it was even necessary to wake them at the close of the discussion, lest they should lose their dinner."

Luther was the first who quitted Leipsic. Carlstadt set out soon after. Eck remained a few days after their departure.

No decision was made known on the matters discussed.§ Each one commented on them as he pleased. "There has been at Leipsic," said Luther, "loss of time, not search after truth. For these two years past that we have been examining the doctrines of the adversaries, we have counted all their bones. Eck,

on the contrary, has hardly grazed the surface,* yet he has made more outcry in one hour, than we in two long years."

Eck, in private letters to his friends, acknowledged his having been defeated on many points; but he was at no loss for reasons to account for it.† "The Wittenberg divines," said he, in a letter to Hochstraten, dated the 24th July, "have had the best of the argument on certain points; first, because they brought with them their books; secondly, because their friends took notes of the discussion, which they could examine at home at leisure; thirdly, because they were several in number:—two doctors, (Carlstadt and Luther,) Lange, vicar of the Augustines, two licentiates, Amsdorff, and a most arrogant nephew of Reuchlin, (Melancthon,) three doctors of law, and several masters of arts, all were assisting in the discussion, either publicly or in secret. As for myself, I came forward alone, having only right on my side." Eck forgot Emser, the bishop, and all the doctors of Leipsic.

If such admissions were made by Eck in his confidential correspondence, it was quite otherwise in public. The doctor of Ingolstadt, and the theologians of Leipsic, loudly boasted of "their victory." They spread everywhere false reports. The mouth-pieces of their party repeated their self-gratulations. "Eck," wrote Luther, "boasts, in all companies, of his victory."‡ But the laurels were an object of contention in the camp of Rome. "If we had not come in aid of Eck," said his Leipsic allies, "the illustrious doctor would have been overthrown." "The divines of Leipsic are well-meaning people," said the doctor of Ingolstadt, "but I had formed too high expectations from them—I did all myself." "You see," said Luther to Spalatin, "that they are singing another Iliad and Æneid. They are so kind as to make me play the part of Hector or Turnus, whilst Eck is their Achilles or Eneas. Their only doubt is, whether the victory was gained by the forces of Eck, or of Leipsic. All I can say, to throw light on the question, is, that doctor Eck clamoured continually, and the men of Leipsic kept continual silence."§

"Eck has obtained the victory, in the opinion of those who do not understand the question, and who have grown gray in scholastic studies," observed the elegant, witty, and judicious Mosellanus; "but Luther and Carlstadt remain masters of the field, in the judgment of those who have learning, intelligence, and modesty."||

The dispute was, however, destined not to vanish in mere smoke. Every work done in faith bears fruit. The words of Luther had found their way, with irresistible power, to the minds of his hearers. Several, who had regularly attended in the hall of the castle, were brought under the truth. It was especially in the very midst of its most active enemies, that its conquests were achieved. Poliander, secretary to Eck, and his intimate friend and disciple, was gained to the cause of the Reformation; and as early as the year 1522, he preached the gospel, publicly, at Leipsic. John Cellarius, professor of Hebrew, one of the warmest opponents of the Reformation, struck by the words of the mighty doctor, began to search the Scriptures

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 246.

† So wolt' er fast einig mit mir gewest seyn. (Ibid.)

‡ Videtur fugere a facie Scripturarum, scilicet diabolus crucem. Quare, salvis reverentis Patrum, præfere ego auctoritatem Scripturæ, quod commendo iudiciis futuris. (L. Opp. lat. i. 291.)

§ Ad exitum certaminis, uti solet, nulla prodiit decisio. (Pallavicini i. 65.)

* Totam istam conclusionum cohortem multo acrius et validius nostri Wittenbergenses . . oppugnaverunt et ita examinaverunt ut ossa eorum numerare liceret, quas Eccius vix in facie civis leviter perstrinxit. (L. Opp. i. 291.)

† Verum in multis me obervunt. (Corpus Reform. i. 83.)

‡ Eccius triumphat ubique. (L. Opp. i. 299.)

§ Novam quamdam Iliadæ et Æneidæ illas cantare . . (L. Opp. i. 305.)

|| Lutheri Sieg sey um so viel weniger berühmt, weil der Gelehrten, Verständigen, und derer die sich selbst nich hoch rühmen, wenig seyen. (Seckendorf, 207.)

more deeply. Shortly after, he gave up his place; and, full of humility, came to Wittenberg, to study at the feet of Luther. He was subsequently pastor at Frankfurt, and at Dresden.

Among those who sat on the benches reserved for the court, and who surrounded Duke George, was George of Anhalt, a young prince of twelve years, descended from a family celebrated for their bravery against the Saracens. He was then prosecuting his studies under a private tutor. This illustrious youth was early distinguished for his eager desire of knowledge and love of truth. Often he was heard to repeat the proverb of Solomon, "Lying lips do not become a prince." The discussion at Leipsic awakened in this child serious reflections, and a decided partiality for Luther.* Shortly after, he was offered a bishopric. His brothers and all his relations urged him to accept it; desiring to see him rise to the higher dignities of the church. He was immovable in his refusal. On the death of his pious mother, he found himself in possession of all the Reformer's writings. He put up constant and fervent prayers to God, beseeching him to bring his heart under the power of the truth; and often, in the privacy of his cabinet, he exclaimed, with tears, "Deal with thy servant according to thy mercy, and teach me thy statutes."† His prayers were answered. Under strong conviction, and constrained to action on it, he fearlessly ranged himself on the side of the gospel. In vain his tutors, and foremost among them, Duke George, besieged him with entreaties and remonstrances. He continued inflexible; and George, half brought over by the answers of his pupil, exclaimed, "I am not able to answer him; but I will, nevertheless, continue in my church, for it is not possible to break an old dog." We shall again meet with this amiable prince; who was, indeed, one of the noble characters of the Reformation; who himself preached the word of life to his subjects: and to whom has been applied the saying of Dion Cassius on the emperor Marcus Antonius, "In his whole life, he was consistent with himself; a good man without any guile."‡

It was especially among the students that the words of Luther were received with enthusiasm. They felt the difference between the spirit and power of the Wittenberg doctor, and the sophistical distinctions and vain speculations of the chancellor of Ingolstadt. They saw Luther relying on the word of God. They saw Doctor Eck taking his stand only on the traditions of men. The effect was instantaneous. The lecturing halls of the university of Leipsic were almost deserted after the disputation. A circumstance of the time contributed to this: the plague showed itself. But there were several other universities, as Erfurt and Ingolstadt, to which the students might have retired. The force of truth attracted them to Wittenberg. There the number of students was doubled.§

Among those who removed from the one university to the other, there was a young man of sixteen, of melancholy character, silent, and often lost in abstraction, in the very midst of the conversation and amusements of his fellow-students.¶ His parents had thought him of weak intellect, but, ere long, they found him so quick in his learning, and so continually occupied in his studies, that they conceived great expectations of him. His uprightness, candor, diffidence, and piety,

made him an object of general affection, and Mosellanus pointed to him as a pattern to the whole university. His name was Gaspard Cruciger, and he was a native of Leipsic. The young student of Wittenberg, was, at a later period, the friend of Melancthon, and fellow-labourer with Luther in the translation of the Bible.

The disputation at Leipsic had yet nobler results. It was there that the theologian of the Reformation received his call to the work. Modest and silent, Melancthon had been present at the discussion, taking scarcely any part in it. Hitherto he had applied himself only to literature. The conference communicated to him a new impulse, and launched the eloquent professor into theology. From that hour he bowed the heights of his learning before the word of God. He received the evangelical doctrine with the simplicity of a child. His auditors heard him explain the way of salvation with a grace and clearness which delighted every one. He advanced boldly in this path so new to him; for, said he, "Christ will not be wanting to those who are his."* From this period, the two friends went forward together, contending for liberty and truth, the one with the energy of Paul, the other with the gentleness of John. Luther has well expressed the difference of their vocations. "I," says he, "was born for struggling on the field of battle, with parties and devils. Thus it is that my writings breathe war and tempest. I must root up stock and stem, clear away thorns and brambles, and fill up swamps and sloughs. I am like the sturdy woodcutter, who must clear and level the road. But our master of arts, Philip, goes forward quietly and gently, cultivating and planting, sowing and watering, joyfully, according as God has dealt to him so liberally of his gifts."†

If Melancthon, the tranquil sower, was called to his work by the Leipsic discussion, Luther, the sturdy woodcutter, felt that it added strength to his arm, and his courage was proportionately exalted. The mightiest result of the discussion was, indeed, that which was wrought in Luther himself. "The scholastic theology," said he, "then crumbled into dust before me, under the boasted presidency of Dr. Eck." The covering which the schools and the church had spread before the sanctuary, was rent from top to bottom. Driven to further investigation, he attained unexpected discoveries. With equal surprise and indignation, he beheld the evil in all its magnitude. Searching into the annals of the church, he discovered that the supremacy of Rome had its origin in the ambition of one party, and the credulous ignorance of another. Silence, as to these melancholy discoveries, was not permitted to him. The pride of his adversaries, the victory they pretended to have gained—their endeavours to put out the light, decided his purpose. He went forward in the way wherein God led him, without disquieting himself as to the result to which it might lead him. Luther has marked this as the epoch of his enfranchisement from the papal yoke. "Learn of me," says he, "how hard it is to unlearn the errors which the whole world confirms by its example,‡ and which, by long use, have become to us as a second nature. I had for seven years read and hourly expounded the Scriptures with much zeal, so that I knew them almost all by heart.§ I had also all the first fruits of the knowledge and faith of my Lord Jesus Christ; that is, I knew that we are justified and saved, not by our works, but by faith in Christ; and I even openly maintained that

* Christus suis non deerit. (Corpus Reform. i. 104.)

† L. Opp. W. xv. 200.

‡ Quam difficile sit eluctari et emergere ex erroribus, totius orbis exemplo firmatis . . . (L. Opp. lat. in præf.)

§ Per septem annos, ita ut memoriter penia omnia tenerem . . . (Ibid.)

* L. Opp. (W.) xv. 1440.

† A Deo petitiv, flecti pectus suum ad veritatem, ac lacrymans sæpe nœc verba repetivit . . . (M. Adami, Vita Georgii Anhalt, p. 243.)

‡ Ὅμοιος διὰ πάντων ἔγενετο ἀγαθος δὲ ἦν, καὶ οὐδὲν προσπολὺν ἔχεν. Vid. Melch. Adam, p. 255.

§ Pfeiffer Histor. Lipsiensis, 365

¶ Et cogitabundus et sæpe in medios sodalities quovis peregrinate animo. (Melch. Adami Vita Crucigeri, p. 193.)

it is not by divine right that the pope is chief of the Christian church. And yet . . . I could not see the conclusion from all this—namely, that of necessity, and beyond doubt, the pope is of the devil. For what is not of God, must needs be of the devil.”* Luther adds, further on, “I do not now give free utterance to my indignation against those who still adhere to the pope, since I, who had for so many years read the holy Scriptures with so much care, yet held to the papacy with so much obstinacy.”†

Such were the real results of the Leipsic discussion, and they were much more important than the discussion itself. They were like the first successes which discipline and inspirit an army.

Eck gave himself up to all the intoxication of what he had tried to represent as a victory. He circulated slanders against Luther.‡ He heaped one imputation upon another.¶ He wrote to Frederic: He sought, like a skilful general, to profit by the confusion which ever follows a conflict, in order to obtain from the prince some important concessions. Before taking measures against his adversary in person, he invoked the flames to consume his writings—even those which he had not read. He entreated the elector to convoke the provincial council. “Let us,” said the foul-mouthed doctor, “exterminate all these vermin, before they have multiplied beyond bounds.”§

It was not against Luther alone that he poured out his wrath. His rashness called Melancthon into the lists. The latter, connected by the tenderest friendship with the worthy Œcolampadius, sent him an account of the discussion, speaking in terms of commendation of Doctor Eck.|| Nevertheless, the pride of the chancellor of Ingolstadt was wounded. He instantly took pen in hand against “that grammarian of Wittenberg, who, to say the truth, is not unacquainted with Greek and Latin, but had dared to circulate a letter, wherein he had insulted him, Dr. Eck.”¶

Melancthon answered. This was his first theological writing. It is marked by the exquisite urbanity which distinguished this excellent man. After laying down the principles of hermeneutical science, he shows that we ought not to explain the holy Scripture by the fathers, but the fathers by the holy Scripture. “How often,” says he, “has not Jerome been mistaken! how often Augustine! how often Ambrose! How often do we not find them differing in judgment; how often do we not hear them retracting their errors! There is but one Scripture divinely inspired, and without mixture of error.”***

“Luther does not adhere to certain dubious positions of the ancients, say his adversaries: and why should he adhere to them? In his explanation of the passage of St. Matthew, *Thou art Peter, and on this rock will I build my church*, he says the very same thing as Origen, who, in his account, is a host, yea, the very thing that Augustine writes in his homily, and Ambrose, in his sixth book on St. Luke, not to mention others. What then, you will say, can the fathers contradict each other? And what is there so surpris-

ing in that? I reverence the fathers because I believe the holy Scripture. The sense of Scripture is one and simple, as heavenly truth itself. We enter into it by comparing Scripture with Scripture, and deduce it from the thread and connection of the whole.† There is a philosophy enjoined us, with respect to the Scriptures, given by God; it is, to bring to them all the thoughts and maxims of men, as to the touchstone by which these are to be tried.”‡

For a long time, no one had so elegantly set forth such powerful truths. The word of God was reinstated in its proper place, and the fathers in theirs. The course by which a true sense of Scripture is obtained was plainly indicated. The preaching of the Gospel rose above the difficulties and glosses of the schools. Melancthon furnished a means, available for all times, of answering those who, like Dr. Eck, would involve this subject in perplexities. The weak “grammarian” had arisen, and the broad and robust shoulders of the scholastic gladiator had yielded under the first movement of his arm.

The more Eck felt his weakness, the louder were his clamours. He thought, by rhodomontade and accusations, to secure the victory which his argument had failed to achieve. The monks, and all the partisans of Rome, re-echoed these clamours. From all parts of Germany, reproaches were showered upon Luther; but he remained unmoved by them. “The more reproach is heaped upon me,” said he, at the conclusion of some explanations, which he published, of the propositions of Leipsic, “the more do I glory in it. Truth, that is to say, Christ, must increase, while I must decrease. The voice of the bridegroom and of the bride, gives me a joy that is far above the fears their clamours cause me. It is not men that are opposing me, and I have no enmity against them. It is Satan, the prince of evil, who is labouring to intimidate me. But he who is in us is greater than he who is in the world. The opinion of this age is against us—that of posterity will be more favourable.”§

If the discussion at Leipsic multiplied the enemies of Luther in Germany, it augmented the number of his friends in distant parts. “That which Huss was formerly in Bohemia,” wrote the Brethren to him from that country, “you, Martin, are now in Saxony; therefore, continue in prayer, and be strong in the Lord.”

About this time a rupture took place between Luther and Emser, then professor at Leipsic. The latter wrote to Dr. Zack, a zealous Roman Catholic of Prague, a letter apparently intended to remove from the Hussites the impression that Luther partook of their views. Luther could not doubt that the design of the Leipsic professor was under the semblance of justifying him, to cause the suspicion to hang over him, of adhering to the Bohemian heresy, and he resolved at once to rend asunder the veil with which his former guest at Dresden sought to cover his enmity. With this view he published a letter, addressed “to the he-goat, Emser.” (The armorial bearing of Emser was a he-goat.) He concluded this writing with words which well express the writer's character—“Love for all men, but fear of none!”¶

While new friends and new enemies came forth, some earlier friends began to show signs of estrangement from Luther. Staupitz, by whose means the

* Quod enim ex Deo non est, necesse est ex diabolo esse. (Ibid.)

† Cum ego tot annis sacra legens diligentissime, tamen ita hæsi tenaciter. (Ibid.)

‡ Proscidit, post abitum nostrum, Martinum inhumanissime. (Melancthon Corp. Reform. i. 106.)

§ Ehe das Ungeziffer uberhand nehme. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 271.)

¶ Ecceus ob varias et insignes ingenii dotes . . . (L. Opp. lat. i. 337.)

¶ Ausus est grammaticus Wittenbergensis, Græce et Latine sane non inductus, epistolam edere . . . (Ibid. 338.)

¶ Una est Scriptura, celestis spiritus, pura, et per omnia verax. (Contra Eekium Defensio, Corp. Reform. i. 116.)

* Quid igitur? Ipsi secum pugnant! quid mirum? (Contra Eekium Defensio, Corp. Reform. i. p. 115.)

† Quem collatis Scripturis e filo ductuque orationis licet assequi. (Ibid. 114.)

‡ Ut hominum sententias, decretaque ad ipsas, cou ad Lydium lapidem exigamus. (Ibid.)

§ Præsens male iudicat ætas; iudicium melius posteritatis erit. (L. Opp. Lat. i. 310.)

¶ L. Opp. Lat. i. 352.

Reformer had emerged from the obscurity of the cloister of Erfurt, began to evince some coldness toward him. Luther rose to an elevation of views, whither Staupitz was not able to follow him. "You abandon me," wrote Luther to him; "I have been all this day grieving like a weaned child.* I dreamed of you last night," continues the Reformer. "I thought you were taking leave of me, and I was weeping and sobbing bitterly; but I thought you put out your hand to me, and bade me be tranquil, for you would return to me again."

The peace-maker, Miltitz, resolved to make another effort to calm the minds of the disputants. But what influence could be had over men still agitated by the feeling of conflict. His endeavours were unavailing. He presented the famous Golden Rose to the Elector, and the prince did not give himself the trouble even to receive it in person.† Frederic well knew the artifices of Rome; it was useless, therefore, to think any longer of deceiving him.‡

Far from giving ground, Luther continued to advance. It was at this time that he struck one of his heaviest blows against prevailing error, by publishing his first Commentary on the Epistle to the Galatians.§ The second commentary undoubtedly surpassed the first; but even in this he set forth with great power the doctrine of justification by faith. Every word of the new apostle was full of life, and God made use of him as an instrument to introduce the knowledge of himself into the hearts of the people. "Christ has given *Himself* for our sins," said Luther to his contemporaries: "It is not silver or gold that he has given for us; it is not a man, it is not the host of angels; it is Himself, without whom nothing is great, that he has given. And this incomparable treasure he has given for our sins! Where now are those who proudly boast the power of our will?—where are the precepts of moral philosophy? where the power and the obligation of the law? Since our sins are so great that nothing less than a ransom so stupendous could remove them, shall we still seek to attain unto righteousness by the strength of our will, by the force of law, by the doctrines of men? What use can we have of all these subtleties and delusions? Alas! they could but cover our iniquities with a cloak of lies, and make us hypocrites beyond the reach of salvation."

But while Luther proved that there is no salvation for man but in Christ; he showed, also, that this salvation changes the heart of man, and makes him abound in good works. "He who has truly heard the word of Christ, and keeps it, is thenceforward clothed with the spirit of charity. If thou lovest him who hath made thee a present of twenty florins, or rendered thee any service, or testified in any other way his affection toward you, how much more shouldst thou love Him, who hath given for thee, not gold or silver, but *himself*; who hath received for thee so many wounds; who hath undergone for thy sake an agony and sweat of blood; who, in thy stead, hath suffered death; in a word, who, in discharge of thy sins, hath swallowed up death, and acquired for thee a *Father* in heaven full of love! If thou dost *not* love him, thy heart hath not entered into or understood the things which he hath done; thou hast not believed them; for *faith* worketh by love."—"This epistle is *my* epistle," said Luther, speaking of the Epistle to the Galatians; "I have espoused it."

His adversaries did but hasten his progress. Without them it would have been more gradual. Eck provoked against him at this period a new attack on the part of the Franciscans of Juterbok. Luther, in his answer,* not satisfied with repeating what he had already taught, attacked some errors which he had recently discovered: "I should be glad to be informed," said he, "where, in the Scriptures, the power of canonizing saints has been given to the Popes; and also what necessity, what use there can be, in canonizing them?" "For aught it matters," he added, ironically, "let them go on canonizing to their heart's content."†

These new attacks of Luther remained unanswered. The infatuation of his enemies favoured him as much as his own courage. They contended, with much warmth and passion, for things that were at most but secondary and subordinate opinions; and when Luther assailed the very foundations of the Romish doctrine, they saw them struck without uttering a word. They exerted themselves to defend some advanced outworks at the very time that their intrepid adversary was penetrating into the citadel, and planting there the standard of the truth. Hence they were afterward much astonished to see the fortress, of which they had constituted themselves the defenders, undermined, on fire, and sinking in the midst of the flames, while they thought it impregnable, and were braving the besiegers. It is the ordinary course in such catastrophes.

The Sacrament of the Lord's Supper began now to occupy the thoughts of Luther. He sought in vain to find this holy Supper in the *Mass*. One day (it was a short time after his return from Leipzig,) he ascended the pulpit. Let us pay attention to his words, for they are the first he uttered on a subject which has since divided the Reformed Church into two parties: "There are three things," said he, "necessary to be understood in the holy sacrament of the altar: the sign, which must be external, visible, and under a corporeal form; the thing signified, which is internal, spiritual, and within the soul of man; and *Faith*, which uses both."‡ If definitions had been carried no further, the unity of the Church would not have been destroyed. Luther continued:

"It would be well if the Church, in a general council, would order the sacrament to be administered in 'both kinds' to all believers; not however that one kind would not be sufficient, for *Faith* of itself would suffice."

These bold words pleased his hearers. Some, however, were surprised, and angry. "It is false," said they; "it is a scandal."§ The preacher continued: "There is no union more intimate, more deep, more indivisible, than that which takes place between the food and the body which the food nourishes. Christ unites himself to us in the sacrament in such a manner, that he acts as if he were identical with us. Our sins assail him: his *righteousness* defends us."

But Luther was not satisfied with declaring the truth: he attacked one of the fundamental errors of Rome.¶ The Romish Church pretends that the sacrament operates by itself, independently of the person who receives it. "Nothing can be more convenient than such an opinion. Hence the ardour with which the sacrament is sought for, and hence come the profits of the Romish clergy. Luther attacked this doctrine,¶

* Defensio contra malignum Ecclesie judicium. (l. lat. 356.)

† Canonizet quisque quantum volet. (Ibid. 367.)

‡ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 272. § L. Opp. (L.) Ibid. 251.

§ Si quis dixerit per ipsa novæ legis sacramenta ex opere operato non conferri gratiam, sed solum fidem divinæ promissionis, ad gratiam consequendum sufficere, anathema sit. (Concil. Trident. Sess. 7. can. 8.)

¶ Known by the name of *opus operatum*.

* Ego super te, sicut abalactatus super matre sua, tristissimus hac die fui. (L. Opp. i. 342.)

† Rosam quam vocant auream nullo honore dignatus est; imo pro ridiculo habuit. (L. Opp. lat. in pref.)

‡ Intellexit principes artes Romanæ curiæ et eos [legatos] dignè tractare novit. (Ibid.)

§ September, 1519. ¶ L. Opp. (L.) x. 461.

and met it with its opposite,* which requires faith and consent of heart in him who receives it.

This energetic protest was calculated to overthrow the long established superstitions. But, strange to say, no attention was paid to it. Rome passed unnoticed, what one would have thought would have called forth a shriek, while she bore down haughtily on a remark Luther had let fall at the commencement of his discourse, on "communion in both kinds."

This discourse having been published in the month of December, a cry of heresy arose on all sides. "It is the doctrine of Prague, to all intents and purposes!" was the exclamation at the court of Dresden, where the sermon arrived during the festival of Christmas: "besides, the work is written in German, in order that the common people may understand it."† The devotion of the prince was disturbed, and, on the third day of the festival, he wrote to his cousin Frederic: "Since the publication of this discourse, the number of the Bohemians who received the Lord's Supper, in both kinds, has increased six thousand. Your Luther, instead of a simple Wittenberg professor, will ere long be Bishop of Prague, and an arch-heretic." "He is a Bohemian by birth," said some, and of Bohemian parents! He was brought up at Prague, and instructed from the writings of Wickliff!"

Luther thought fit to contradict these reports in a tract, wherein he formally gave an account of his origin. "I was born at Eisleben," he said, "and was baptized in the Church of St. Peter. I never in my life was nearer to Bohemia than Dresden."‡

The letter of Duke George did not estrange the Elector from Luther. A few days afterward, this prince invited the doctor to a splendid banquet, which he gave to the Spanish Ambassador, and Luther on this occasion boldly disputed with the minister of Charles.§ The Elector, through the medium of his chaplain, had begged him to defend his cause with moderation. "Too much imprudence displeases men," answered Luther to Spalatin, "but too much *prudence* is displeasing to God. It is impossible to make a stand for the Gospel without creating some disturbance and offence. The word of God is a sword, waging war, overthrowing and destroying; it is a casting down,|| a disturbance, and comes, as the prophet Amos says, as a bear in the way, and as a lion in the forest. I want nothing from them. I asked nothing. There is One above who seeks and requires. Whether his

requirements be disregarded or obeyed, affects not me."¶

Everything announced that Luther would soon have more need than ever of faith and courage. Eck was forming plans of vengeance. Instead of gathering the laurels which he had reckoned upon, the gladiator of Leipzig had become the laughing-stock of all the men of sense of his country. Keen satires were published against him. One appeared as a "letter from some unlearned Canons." It was written by Ecolampadius, and stung Eck to the quick. Another was a complaint against Eck, probably written by the excellent Pirckheimer, of Nuremberg, abounding in a pungency, and at the same time a dignity of which nothing but the Provincial Letters of Pascal can convey any idea.

Luther expressed his displeasure at some of these writings. "It is better," said he, "to attack openly, than to wound from behind a hedge."**

How was the Chancellor of Ingolstadt deceived in his calculations! His countrymen abandoned him. He prepared to cross the Alps, to invoke foreign assistance. Wherever he went, he breathed threats against Luther, Melancthon, Carlstadt, and even the Elector himself. "Judging by the haughtiness of his words," says the Doctor of Wittenberg, "one would say that he imagines himself to be the Almighty."† Inflamed with anger and the thirst of vengeance, Eck took his departure for Italy, there to receive the reward of his asserted triumphs, and to forge in the capitol at Rome mightier bolts than those weapons of scholastic controversy which had been broken in his hands.

Luther well knew the dangers which this journey of his antagonist was likely to draw down on him, but he did not quail. Spalatin, in alarm, urged him to make advances to an accommodation. "No," replied Luther, so long as he challenges, I dare not withdraw from the contest. I commit everything to God, and give up my bark to the winds and waves. The battle is the Lord's. Why will you fancy that it is by *peace* that Christ will advance his cause? Has he not himself—have not all the martyrs after him, poured forth their blood in the conflict?‡

Such, at the commencement of the year 1520, was the position of the two combatants of Leipzig. The one engaged in rousing the power of the Papacy to crush his rival. The other awaiting the contest with all the calmness of one who seems to reckon upon peace. The year then opening was destined to witness the bursting of the storm.

* That of *opus operantis*. † L Opp. (L.) xvii. 281.
‡ Ceteram ego natus sum in Eisleben. (Luth. Epp. i. i. 389.)
§ Cum quo heri ego et Phillippus certavimus, splendide invitati. (Ibid. 396.)
|| Verbum Dei gladius est, bellum est, ruina est, scandalum est, perditio est, venenum est. . . . (Ibid. 417.)

* Ego nihil quero: est, qui querat. Stet ergo, sive cadat: ego nihil lucror, aut amitto. (Ibid. 418.)
† Melior est aperta criminatio, quam iste sub sepe morsus, (L. Epp. i. 426.)
‡ Deum crederes omnipotentem loqui. (Ib. 380.)
§ Cogor rem Deo committere, data flatibus et fluctibus nave; Bellum Domini est. (Ibid. 426.)

BOOK VI.

THE ROMAN BULL, 1520.

A new actor was about to appear on the stage. It was the will of God that the monk of Wittenberg should be brought face to face with the most powerful monarch who had appeared in Christendom since the days of Charlemagne. He made choice of a prince

in the vigour of youth, to whom everything promised a reign of long duration, a prince whose sceptre bore sway over a considerable part of the old, and also over a new, world, so that, according to a celebrated saying, the sun never set upon his vast domains; and

with this prince he confronted the humble Reformation, that had had its beginning in the secret cell of a convent at Erfurth, in the anguish and groans of a poor monk. The history of this monarch, and of his reign, was destined, apparently, to read an important lesson to the world. It was to show the nothingness of all "the strength of man," when it presumes to strive against "the weakness of God." Had a prince, friendly to Luther, been called to the empire, the success of the Reformation might have been attributed to his protection. Had an emperor of feeble character filled the throne—even though he should have been opposed to the new doctrine, the success that attended it might have admitted of explanation by the weakness of the reigning sovereign. But it was the haughty conqueror of Pavia whose pride was to be humbled before the power of the divine Word; and the whole world was called to witness, that he to whom power was given to lead Francis I. to the dungeons of Madrid, was compelled to lay down the sword before the son of a poor miner.

The Emperor Maximilian was no more. The electors were assembled at Frankfort to choose his successor. This was a decision of high importance to all Europe under present circumstances. All Christendom was occupied with the election. Maximilian had not been what is called a great prince; but his memory was dear to the people. They were fond of calling to mind his ready wit, and good nature. Luther often mentioned him in conversation with his friends, and one day related the following sally of the monarch:

A mendicant was following him closely, asking alms, and calling him brother; "for," said he, "we are both descended from the same father, Adam. I am poor," he continued, "but you are rich, and therefore ought to assist me." The emperor turned round at these words, and said: "Here, take this penny; go to your other brethren, and if every one of them gives you as much, you will soon be richer than I am."*

The crisis required, for the Imperial crown, a prince of more energy than the good-natured Maximilian. The times were about to change; ambitious potentates were to contest the throne of the Emperors of the West; a powerful hand must seize the reins of the Empire, and long and bloody wars must succeed to a profound peace.

Three kings contended at the diet of Frankfort for the crown of the Cæsars. A young prince, grandson of the late Emperor, born in the first year of the century, and consequently nineteen years of age, was the first who presented himself. He was named Charles, and was born at Ghent. His grandmother, on the father's side, Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold, had bequeathed to him Flanders, and the rich territories of Burgundy. His mother, Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand of Arragon, and Isabella of Castile, and wife of Philip, son of the Emperor Maximilian, had transmitted to him the united crowns of Spain, Naples, and Sicily: to which Christopher Columbus had added a new World. The death of his grandfather placed him at this moment in possession of the hereditary dominions of Austria. This young prince, endowed with much intelligence, and amiable when it pleased him to be so, combined with the taste for military exercises, in which the illustrious Dukes of Burgundy had so long distinguished themselves, the subtlety and penetration of the Italians, the reverence for existing institutions which still characterises the house of Austria, and which promised a firm and zealous defender to the Papacy, and a great knowledge of public affairs, acquired under the tutorage of Chievres. From the age of fifteen he had attended at all the deliberations of

his council.* These various qualities were in some degree concealed and veiled by the reserve and taciturnity peculiar to the Spanish nation. There was something melancholy in his long, thin visage. "He is pious and silent," said Luther; "I venture to say that he does not speak so much in a year as I do in a day."† If the character of Charles had been developed under the influence of liberal and christian principles, he would perhaps have been one of the most admirable princes recorded in history; but political considerations absorbed his thoughts, and tarnished his better qualities.

Not contented with the many sceptres gathered together in his hand, the young Charles aspired to the imperial dignity. "It is a sunbeam which sheds splendour on the house it lights upon," remarked some; "but when any one puts forth the hand to lay hold on it, he grasps nothing." Charles, on the contrary, saw in it the summit of all earthly greatness, and a means of obtaining a sort of magic influence over the minds of the people.

Francis I. of France, was the second of the competitors. The young paladins of the court of this king, incessantly urged on him, that he ought, like Charles, to be Emperor of all the West; and following the example of the knights of old, lead them against the Crescent, which menaced the empire, strike the power of the infidels to the dust, and recover the holy sepulchre. "It is necessary," said the ambassadors of Francis to the Electors, "to prove to the dukes of Austria, that the imperial crown is not hereditary. Germany has need, under existing circumstances, not of a young man of nineteen, but of a prince who unites, with experienced judgment, talents already acknowledged. Francis will combine the forces of France and Lombardy, with those of Germany, to make war upon the Musselmans. Besides this, as he is sovereign of the duchy of Milan, he is already a member of the Empire." The French ambassadors supported these arguments with 400,000 crowns, expended in purchasing suffrages, and with entertainments, at which the guests were to be gained over to their party.

Lastly, Henry VIII., king of England, jealous of the power which the choice of the Electors would give, either to Francis or to Charles, also entered the lists: but he soon left these two powerful rivals to dispute the crown between them.

The Electors were disinclined to the cause of the latter candidates. The people of Germany, they thought, would see in the king of France a foreign master, and this master might very likely deprive themselves of that independence of which the nobility of his own dominions had lately seen themselves stripped. As for Charles, it was an established maxim with the Electors, not to choose a prince already playing an important part in the Empire. The Pope partook of their apprehensions from such a choice. He was for rejecting the king of Naples, his neighbour, and the king of France, whose enterprising spirit he dreaded. "Choose rather one from among yourselves," was the advice he caused to be conveyed to the Electors. The Elector of Treves proposed the nomination of Frederic of Saxony. The Imperial crown was laid at the feet of this friend of Luther.

Such a choice would have obtained the approbation of all Germany. The prudence of Frederic, and his love for the people were well known. At the time of the revolt of Erfurth, he had been urged to take that town by assault. He refused, that he might spare the effusion of blood. And when it was urged that the assault would not cost the lives of five men: his an-

* L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1869.

* Memoires de Du Bellay, i. 46.
† L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1874.

swer had been, "A single life would be too much."* It seemed as if the election of the protector of the Reformation was on the point of securing its triumph. Ought not Frederic to have regarded the wish of the Electors as a call from God himself? Who was better able to preside over the destinies of the Empire, than so prudent a prince? Who more likely to withstand the Turks than an Emperor abounding in faith? It may be that the Elector of Saxony's refusal, so much lauded by historians, was a fault on the part of this prince. It may be that the struggles by which Germany was afterward torn, are to be partly attributed to this refusal. But it is hard to say, whether Frederic deserves censure for want of faith, or honour for his humility. He judged that the safety of the Empire required that he should refuse the crown.† "There is need of an Emperor more powerful than myself to save Germany;" said this modest and disinterested prince: "the Turk is at our gates. The king of Spain, whose hereditary possessions (in Austria) border on the menaced frontier, is its natural defender."

The Legate of Rome, seeing that Charles was about to be chosen, declared that the Pope withdrew his objections; and, on the 28th of June, the grandson of Maximilian was elected. "God," said Frederic, at a subsequent period, "has given him to us in mercy and in displeasure."‡ The Spanish envoys offered 30,000 gold florins to the Elector of Saxony, as a mark of their master's gratitude; but this prince refused the gift, and prohibited his ministers from accepting any present. At the same time, he contributed to the security of the liberties of Germany, by a treaty to which the envoys of Charles swore in his name. The circumstances under which the latter assumed the Imperial crown, seemed to give a stronger pledge than these oaths in favour of German liberty, and of the continued progress of the Reformation. The young prince felt himself cast into shade by the laurels which his rival, Francis I., had gathered at Marignan. Their rivalry was to be continued in Italy, and the time it would occupy would, doubtless, be sufficient to strengthen and confirm the Reformation. Charles quitted Spain in May, 1520, and was crowned on the 22d of October, at Aix-la-Chapelle.

Luther had foreseen that the cause of the Reformation would, ere long, have to be pleaded before the Emperor. He wrote to Charles, while this prince was still at Madrid. "If the cause which I defend," said he to him, "is worthy of appearing before the throne of the Majesty of heaven, it is surely not unworthy of engaging the attention of a prince of this world. O Charles! thou prince among the kings of the earth! I throw myself as a suppliant at the feet of your Most Serene Majesty, and conjure you to deign to receive, under the shadow of your wings, not me, but the very cause of that eternal truth, for the defence of which God has intrusted you with the sword."§ The young king of Spain treated this strange letter from a German monk with neglect, and gave no answer.

While Luther was in vain turning his eyes towards Madrid, the storm seemed to increase around him. The flame of fanaticism was kindled in Germany. Hochstraten, never weary in attempts at persecution, had extracted certain theses from the writings of Luther. The universities of Cologne and of Louvain had, at his solicitation, condemned these works. That of Erfurth, still retaining an angry recollection of Luther's preference of Wittenberg, was about to follow their example;

but Luther, on learning their intention, wrote to Lange in such strong terms, that the theologians of Erfurth were alarmed and kept silence. The condemnation, pronounced at Cologne and Louvain, was sufficient, however, to produce great excitement. Add to this, that the priests of Meissen, who had taken part with Emser in his quarrel, openly declared (according to the statement of Melancthon) that whosoever should kill Luther, would be without sin.* "The time is come," says Luther, "in which men will think they do service to Jesus Christ in putting us to death." These murderous suggestions, as might have been expected, produced their natural results.

While Luther was walking one day before the monastery of the Augustines, says one of his biographers, a stranger, having a pistol concealed in his sleeve, approached, and said to him: "Why do you go thus alone?" "I am in the hands of God," answered Luther; "he is my strength and shield. What can man do unto me?"† Hereupon, adds the historian, the stranger turned pale, and fled, trembling. Serra Longa, the orator of the conference of Augsburg, wrote about the same time to the Elector: "Let not Luther find an asylum in your Highness's territories; let him be everywhere driven and stoned in open day: that will rejoice me more than if you were to give me 10,000 crowns."‡

It was, however, on the side of Rome that the storm was chiefly gathering. A nobleman of Thuringia, Valentin Teutleben, vicar of the Archbishop of Mentz, and a zealous partisan of the Papacy, was the representative of the Elector of Saxony at Rome. Teutleben, scandalised at the protection which his master granted to the heretical monk, saw with vexation and impatience his mission paralysed by this, as he thought, imprudent conduct. He imagined, that by alarming the Elector he should induce him to abandon the rebellious theologian. "I can get no hearing," wrote he, "on account of the protection which you grant to Luther." But the Romanists were deceived, if they thought to intimidate the prudent Frederic. This prince knew that the will of God and the voice of the people were more irresistible than decrees of the papal court. He directed his ambassador to intimate to the Pope, that, far from defending Luther, he had always left him to defend himself; that he had already requested him to quit the university, and even Saxony; that the doctor had declared himself ready to obey, and would not have been then in the electoral states, had not the Legate himself, Charles Miltitz, begged the prince to keep him near his own person, lest, repairing to other countries, Luther should act with more liberty than in Saxony itself.§ Frederic did still more: he wished to open the eyes of Rome. "Germany," continued he, in his letter, "possesses a great number of learned men, well acquainted with languages and sciences; the laity themselves are beginning to be enlightened, and to be fond of the sacred writings; and if the reasonable terms of Dr. Luther are refused, it is much to be feared that peace will never be re-established. The doctrine of Luther has taken deep root in many hearts. If, instead of refuting it by the testimony of the Bible, attempts are made to crush it by the thunders of the Church, great offence will be occasioned, and terrible and dangerous rebellions will be excited.¶

* Ut sine peccato esso cum censebant qui me interfecerit. (L. Opp. i. 383.)

† Wass kann mir ein Mensch thun? (Keith, L. Umstände, 89.)

‡ Tenzel Hist. Ber. ii. 168.

§ Da er viel freyer und sicherer schreiben und handeln möchte was er wollte. . . (L. Opp. (L.) i. 298.)

¶ Schreckliche, grausame, schädliche und verderbliche Empörungen erregen. (Ibid.)

* L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1833.

† Is vero heretica plane moderatione animi magnifice repudiavit. (Pallavicini, i. 79.)

‡ L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1880.

§ Causam ipsam veritatis.—(L. Opp. i. 392, Jan. 15, 1520.)

The Elector placing confidence in Luther, caused the letter of Teutleben, as well as another which he had received from the Cardinal, St. George, to be communicated to him. The Reformer was much moved on reading them. He saw at once all the dangers that surrounded him, and his mind was for an instant overwhelmed. But it was at such moments that his faith broke forth, and manifested itself in all its strength. Often weak and ready to fall into despondency, he was seen to rise and appear greater in the midst of the storm. He would gladly have been delivered from so many trials, but he knew well at what price peace was offered to him, and he indignantly rejected it. "Hold my peace!" said he; "I am willing to do so, if they will permit me, that is to say, if they will silence others. If any one envies me my appointments, let him take them; if any one desires the destruction of my writings, let him burn them. I am ready to keep silence, provided it be not required that evangelical truth should stand still.* I ask for no cardinal's hat, nor gold, nor anything else that Rome values. I will make any sacrifices; so that the way of salvation is left open to Christians.† All their threats do not terrify me, all their promises cannot seduce me."

Warmed by these feelings, Luther soon recovered his disposition for action, and chose the Christian's conflict rather than the calm of the recluse. One night sufficed to reproduce in his mind the desire to overthrow the power of Rome. "My resolution is taken," he wrote next morning: "I despise alike the rage and the favour of Rome. Away with reconciliation! I desire never more to have any communication with her.‡ Let her condemn—let her burn my writings! In my turn, I will condemn and publicly burn the canon law, the nest of all heresies. My moderation hitherto has been useless; and I renounce it!"

His friends were very far from being so confident. The consternation was great at Wittenberg. "Our expectation is on the stretch," said Melancthon. "I would rather die than be separated from Luther.§ If God does not send us help we perish." "Our Luther is still alive," wrote he a month afterward in his anxiety; "God grant that he may yet live long! for the Romish sycophants leave no stone unturned for his destruction. Pray for the preservation of the intrepid vindicator of sacred learning."||

These prayers were heard. The warnings which the Elector had addressed to Rome through the medium of his representative were not without foundation. The preaching of Luther had resounded far and wide; in cottages, in convents, in the houses of the citizens, in the castles of the nobles, in the academies, and in the palaces of kings. "Let my life," he said to Duke John, of Saxony, "be found to bear fruit only in the conversion of one man, and I shall willingly consent that all my books should perish."¶ It was not a single individual, it was a great multitude, that had discovered light in the writings of the humble doctor. Accordingly, everywhere, men were found ready to protect him. The sword, intended for his destruction, was being forged in the Vatican; but heroes were arising in Germany who would defend him at hazard of their own lives. At the moment when the bishops were chafing with anger, when the princes kept silence,

when the people were in expectation, and the thunders were already rolling above the seven hills, God stirred up the German nobility to form a bulwark for his servant.

Sylvester of Schaumburg, one of the most powerful knights of Franconia, at this juncture sent his son to Wittenberg, with a letter for the Reformer. "Your life is in danger," wrote Schaumburg. "If the assistance of the electors, of the princes, or of the magistrates should fail you, beware, I entreat you, of seeking refuge in Bohemia, where learned men have formerly had so much to endure; come rather to me. I shall soon, God willing, have collected above a hundred gentlemen, and with their help I shall be able to preserve you from all peril."*

Francis of Sickingen, that hero of his age, whose intrepid courage we have already seen,† loved the Reformer, both because he thought him worthy to be loved, and also because he was hated by the monks.‡ "My services, my possessions, and my person, in short every thing which I have," he wrote, "is at your disposal. You are resolved to stand up for the truth of the Gospel. I am ready to lend my aid in that work."§ Harmuth of Cronberg held the same language. Lastly, Ulric of Hütten, the poet and valiant knight of the sixteenth century, took every occasion to speak out in favour of Luther. But what a contrast between these two men! Hütten wrote to the Reformer: "We want swords, bows, javelins, and bombs, in order to repel the fury of the devil." Luther, on receiving these letters, exclaimed, "I will not resort to arms and bloodshed for the defence of the Gospel. It is by the preaching of the Word that the world has been conquered; by the Word the Church has been saved; by the Word, also, it will be restored." "I do not despise his offer," said he again, on receiving the letter of Schaumburg which we have mentioned, "but I will depend on none but Christ alone."|| Not thus had the Roman Pontiffs spoken, when they waded in the blood of the Waldenses and Albigenses. Hütten was conscious of the difference between Luther's object and his own; and accordingly wrote thus nobly to him on the subject: "My thoughts are running on earthly aims, while you, contemplating such things, are devoted to the things of God alone;¶ and forwith he set out to endeavour, if possible, to gain over to the cause of truth Ferdinand and Charles V.**

Thus at one moment the enemies of Luther overwhelm him, and at another his friends arise in his defence. "My bark," says he, "is driven at the mercy of the winds—fear and hope alternately prevail; but what does it signify?†† Nevertheless, the testimonies of sympathy which he received were not without their effect upon his mind. "The Lord reigns," he said; "I see His hand palpably present."‡‡ Luther felt that he no longer stood alone; his words had borne fruit—and this thought inspired him with fresh courage. The fear of compromising the interest of the Elector could no longer keep him in check, now that he felt that he had other defenders prepared to brave the anger of Rome. He became consequently more free, and, if possible, more resolute. This is an im-

* Denn ich, und hundert von Adel, die Ich (ob Gott will) anbringen will, euch redlich anhalten. . . (Ibid. 391.)

† Equitum Germanie rarum decus," says Melancthon on the occasion. (Corp. Reform. i 201.)

‡ Et ob id iuvisis illis. (Ibid. 193.)

§ Nolo nisi Christo protectore niti. (L. Epp. i 143.)

¶ Mela humana sunt: tu perfectior, jam totus ex divinis pendes. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 175.)

** Viam facturus libertati (cod. Bavar. veritati) per maximos principes. (Corp. Ref. i. 301.)

†† Ita fluctuat navis mea; nunc spes, nunc timor regnat. (L. Epp. i. 443.)

‡‡ Dominus regnat, ut palpare possimu. (Ibid. 451.)

* Semper quiescere paratus, modo veritatem evangelicam non jubente quiescere. (L. Epp. i. 462.)

† Si salutis viam Christianis permittant esse liberam, hoc unum peto ab illis, ac præterea nihil. (Ibid.)

‡ Nolo eis reconciliari nec communicare in perpetuum. (Ibid. 466. July 10th, 1520.)

§ Emori mallim, quam ab hoc viro avelli. (Corpus Reform. i. 160, 163.)

|| Martinus noster spirat, atque utinam diu. . . (Ibid. 190, 205.)

¶ L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 392

portant epoch in the development of Luther's character. "It is right that Rome should understand," wrote he, at this time, to the chaplain of the Elector, "that although she should succeed in obtaining by her threats my expulsion from Wittenberg, she would only injure her own cause. Not in Bohemia, but in the heart of Germany, are those who are ready to defend me against the thunders of Papacy. If I have not yet brought to bear upon my adversaries all that I am preparing for them, it is neither to my moderation nor to the weight of their tyranny that they are to attribute my forbearance, but to the name of the Elector, and the interest of the University of Wittenberg, which I feared to compromise; now that such fears are dissipated I am about to re-double my efforts against Rome and her courtiers."*

Yet it was not so much on the great Reformer relied. He had been often urged to dedicate one of his books to Duke John, brother of the elector, but had abstained from doing so. "I fear," he had said, "lest this suggestion may proceed from himself. The Holy Scriptures ought not to minister to the glory of any other name but that of God."† Luther now shook off these fears, and dedicated to Duke John his discourse on Good Works. Of all his writings, this is one in which the Reformer most powerfully opens the doctrine of justification by faith, that great truth, whose power he estimates far above the sword of Hütten, the armed bands of Sickingen, or the favour of dukes or electors.

"The first, the noblest, and the greatest of all works," says he, is *faith* in Jesus Christ.‡ From this work, all others must flow. They are all but the vassals of faith, and receive from it alone all their efficacy."

"If a man but feel in his heart the assurance that what he does is acceptable to God, his action is good, though he should but raise a straw from the earth; but if he has not this confidence, his action is not a good work, even though he should raise the dead to life. A Heathen, a Jew, a Turk, a sinner, may do all other works; but to put one's trust in God, and have assurance that we are accepted by him, is what none but the Christian standing in grace is capable of doing."

"A Christian, who has faith in God, does all with liberty and joy: while that man, who is not at one with God, is full of cares, and under bondage; he enquires anxiously what amount of good works is required of him; he turns to ask of this man or another, finding no rest for his soul, and doing everything with fear and dissatisfaction."

"Therefore it is that I have ever held up the necessity of Faith. But, in the world around me, it is otherwise. There the essential thing is represented to be the having many works, works of high fame, and of all degrees, without regarding whether they are done in faith. Thus they build up their peace, not on the good pleasure of God, but on their own merits, or in other words, on the sand."§ (Matt. vii. 26.)

"It is said that to preach faith, is to discourage good works; but though a man should have in himself the combined strength of all his race, or even of all created beings, this one duty of the life of faith would be a task too great to be ever performed. If I say to a sick man: 'resume your health, and you will have the use of your limbs,' can it be said that I forbid him to use his limbs? Must not *health* precede *labour*? It is

the same when we preach faith: faith must go before works, *in order* to good works."

"Where, then, you will say, is this faith to be found, and how is it to be received? Truly, this is what most concerns us to know. Faith comes from Jesus Christ alone, promised and given freely."

"O man! consider Christ, and see in him how God displays his mercy toward thee, without any worthiness of thine going before.* Draw from this discovery of His grace, the belief and assurance that all thy sins are forgiven thee. Works never could produce this faith. It flows in the blood—from the wounds and death of Christ. It springs up, from that source, to rejoice our hearts. Christ is the rock whence flow our milk and honey." (Deut. xxxii.)

Not being able to notice all the works of Luther, we here quote some short extracts from this discourse on Good Works, on account of the Reformer's own opinion of it. "In my opinion," said he, "it is the best of my published writings, and he immediately adds this deep reflection: "but I know that when I please myself with what I write, the infection of that bad leaven hinders it from pleasing others."† Melancthon, in transmitting this discourse to a friend, accompanied it with these words: "No one among all the Greek and Latin writers has come nearer to the spirit of St. Paul than Luther."‡

But beside the substitution of a scheme of merits in place of the grand truth of grace and amnesty, another evil had grown up in the Church. A haughty power had arisen in the midst of the humble shepherds of Christ's flock. Luther resolved to attack this usurped authority. In the midst of all his troubles, he had privately studied the rise, progress, and usurpations, of the Papacy. The discoveries he had made had filled him with amazement. He no longer hesitated to make them known, and to strike the blow which, like the rod of Moses in old time, was to awaken a people that had long slumbered in bondage. Even before Rome could find time to publish her formidable bull, he himself hurled against her a declaration of war. "The 'time to be silent' is past," he exclaims: "the 'time to speak' is arrived." On the 23d of June, 1520, he published the celebrated *Appeal to his Imperial Majesty, and the Christian nobility of the German nation, concerning the Reformation of Christianity*.||

"It is not rashly and without consideration," said he, in the commencement of this appeal, "that I, a man of the common people, take upon myself to address your highnesses. The misery and oppression which at this hour weigh down all Christian states, and more especially Germany, wring from me a cry of distress. I find myself compelled to call for help; I must see if God will not give his Spirit to some one or other of our countrymen; and thus stretch forth his hand to save our wretched nation: God has placed over us a young and generous prince, the Emperor Charles V.,¶ and has thus filled our hearts with high hopes. But we ourselves must, on our parts, do all that is possible for us to do."

"Now, it is of the very first necessity, that we do not at all rely upon our own strength, or our own wisdom. If we begin even a good work with confidence

* Siche, also musst du Christum in dich bilden, und sehen wie in Ihm Gott—seine Barmherzigkeit dir fürhält und arbent. (L. Opp. (L.) 398.)

† Eric, meo judicio, omnium quæ ediderim optimum: quamquam scio quæ mihi mea placet, hoc ipso fermento infecta, non solera aliis placere. (L. Opp. i. 431.)

‡ Quo ad Pauli spiritum nemo propius accessit. (Corp. Ref. i. 202.)

§ Vol. I. p. 2, &c.

|| L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 437 to 502.

¶ Gott hat uns ein junges edles Bint zum Haupt gegeben. (Ibid. 457.)

* Sævius in Romanenses grassaturus . . . (L. Epp. i. 465.)

† Scripturam sacram nolim alicuius nomini nisi Dei servire. (Ib. 431.)

‡ Das erste und höchste, allerdelste—gute Werk ist der Glaube in Christum. . . L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 394.)

§ Wenn ein Mensch tausend, oder alle Menschen, oder alle Creaturen wäre. (L. Opp. (L.) 369)

in ourselves, God overturns and destroys it. Frederic I., Frederic II., and many other emperors beside, before whom the world stood in awe, have been trampled under foot by the popes, because they trusted in their own strength rather than in God. Therefore they could not succeed. It is against the power of hell that we have to contend in this struggle. We must set about the work, hoping nothing from the strength of our own arms, and depending humbly on the Lord; looking to the present distress of Christians, instead of dwelling on the acts of evil doers. Take but another course, and though the work may seem to prosper for a while, all of a sudden, in the very height of the struggle, confusion will come in, evil men will cause boundless disasters, and the world will be deluged with blood. The greater our power, the greater our danger if we walk not in the fear of the Lord."

After this exordium, Luther continued as follows:

The Romanists have raised three barriers against all reformation. When the temporal power has attacked them, they have denied its authority, and asserted that the spiritual power was superior to it. When any one rebuked them out of the Scripture, they have answered that no one, but the pope, was able to interpret Scripture. When they have been threatened with a council, the reply has been, no one, but the Sovereign Pontiff, has authority to convoke a council."

"They have thus wrested from our hands the three rods destined to correct them, and have given the rein to all evil. But now, God help us, and give us one of those trumpets which overthrew the walls of Jericho! With the breath of our lips, let us throw down the paper walls which the Romanists have built around them, and lift up the scourges which punish the wicked, by exposing the wiles and stratagems of the devil."

Luther then begins the assault. He shakes, to its very foundation, that papal monarchy which had for centuries past banded together the nations of the west under the sceptre of the Roman bishop. That there is no such thing as a priestly caste, is the truth, hidden from the church even from its first ages, which he powerfully sets forth at the outset:

"It has been said, that the pope, the bishops, the priests, and those who dwell in the convents, form the spiritual, or ecclesiastical, state; and that the princes, nobles, citizens, and peasants, form the secular state, or laity. This is a fine story, truly. Let no one, however, be alarmed by it. *All Christians* belong to the spiritual state; and there is no other difference between them, than that of the functions which they discharge. We have all one baptism, one faith, and it is this which constitutes the spiritual man. The unction, the tonsure, ordination, consecration by the bishop, or the pope, may make an hypocrite, but never a spiritual man. We are all alike consecrated priests by baptism, as St. Peter says: 'Ye are priests and kings;' although it does not belong to all to exercise such offices, for none can take to himself that which is common to all, without the consent of the community. But if we were without this consecration from God, the Pope's unction could never constitute a priest. If a king had ten sons of equal claim to the inheritance, and they should choose one of their number to act for them, they would all be kings, though only one of them would administer their common power. The case is the same with the church. If any pious laymen were banished to a desert, and having no regularly consecrated priest among them, were to agree to choose for that office one of their number, married or unmarried, this man would be as truly a priest as if he had been consecrated by all the bishops in the world. Augustine, Ambrose, and Cyprian, were chosen in this manner.

"Hence it follows that laity and priests, princes and bishops, or, as they say, the clergy and the laity, have in reality nothing to distinguish them, but their functions. They all belong to the same estate; but all have not the same work to perform.

"If this be true, why should not the magistrate chastise the clergy? the secular power has been ordained by God for the punishment of evil-doers, and the praise of those who do well. And free scope should be allowed for it to act throughout Christendom; let it touch whom it may, pope, bishops, priests, monks, nuns, or any others. St. Paul says to all Christians: *Let every soul* (consequently the Pope also,) *be subject to the higher powers, for they bear not the sword in vain.*"

Having in like manner overturned "the other barriers," Luther passed in review the corruptions of Rome. He displayed, in a popular style of eloquence, the evils that had been felt and acknowledged for centuries. Never had a more noble protest been heard. The great assembly before whom Luther spoke, was the church; the power whose corruptions he attacked, was that papal power which had for ages weighed heavily upon all nations; and the Reformation he so loudly called for, was destined to exert its powerful influence over all Christian nations throughout the world, and to last as long as man shall exist upon the earth.

He commenced with the Pope. "It is monstrous," he says, "to see him who is called the vicar of Christ, displaying a magnificence unrivalled by that of any emperor. Is this to resemble the poor and lowly Jesus, or the humble St. Peter? The Pope, say they, is the lord of the world! But Christ, whose vicar he boasts himself to be, said: *My kingdom is not of this world.* Ought the power of the vicar to go beyond that of his Lord?"

Luther next proceeded to describe the effects of papal sway. "Do you know what end the Cardinals serve? I will tell you. Italy and Germany have many convents, religious foundations, and benefices, richly endowed. By what machinery can this wealth be drawn to Rome?—Cardinals have been created; to them these cloisters and prelacies have been given; and, at this moment, Italy is almost deserted, the convents are destroyed, the bishoprics devoured, the towns falling to decay, the inhabitants demoralized, religious worship expiring, and preaching abolished! And why is all this? Because, forsooth, all the wealth of the churches must go to Rome. The Turk himself would never have so ruined Italy."

Luther then turned to his native country.

"And now that they have sucked the blood of their own nation, they come to Germany; they begin softly; but let us be on our guard! or Germany will soon be like Italy. We have already some cardinals here and there. Before the dull-minded Germans comprehend our design, think they, they will have neither bishopric, convent, benefice, nor so much as one penny left. Antichrist must possess the treasure of the earth. Thirty or forty cardinals will be created in a day: to one will be given Bamberg, to another, the bishopric of Wurzburg; to these will be attached rich benefices, until the churches and the cities are left desolate. And then the Pope will say: I am the vicar of Christ, and shepherd of his flocks. Let the Germans submit to my authority!"

The indignation of Luther kindled as he proceeded. "What! shall we Germans endure these robberies and extortions of the Pope? If the kingdom of France has been able to defend itself from them, why should we suffer ourselves to be thus ridiculed and laughed

at! And oh! would that they robbed us only of our goods: but they also lay waste the churches: they fleece the sheep of Christ, abolish the worship, and silence the word of God."

Luther exposed the "Romish practice" of gradually abstracting the wealth and the revenues of Germany. Annats, palls, commendams, administrations, expective graces, reversions, incorporations, reserves, &c., all pass before him; "let us," says he, "endeavour to put a stop to so much wretchedness and desolation. If we want to march against the Turks, let us begin with those Turks who are the worst of all. If we hang thieves, and cut off the heads of brigands, let us not suffer the avarice of Rome to escape, which is the greatest of all robbers and thieves; and that, too, in the name of St. Peter, and of Jesus Christ! Who can tolerate this! Who can keep silence! Has not all that the Pope possesses been obtained by robbery! for he has neither purchased it, nor inherited it from St. Peter, nor gained it by his labours. Whence, then, does it all come!"

The Reformer proposes remedies for all these evils. He calls energetically upon the German nobility, to put an end to these depredations on the part of Rome. Coming then to the Pope himself, "Is it not ridiculous," he exclaimed, "that the Pope should pretend to be the lawful heir of the empire! who gave it to him? Was it Christ, when he said: '*The kings of the Gentiles exercise lordship over them; but it shall not be so with you*?' (Luke xxii. 25, 26.) How is it possible to govern an empire, and at the same time to preach, pray, study, and have care for the poor? Christ forbade the twelve to carry with them either gold or two coats, because the duties of the ministry cannot be discharged, unless there is a freedom from all other care; and the Pope would at the same time govern the empire, and remain Pope!"

Luther went on to strip the pontiff of his spoils: "Let the Pope renounce all pretensions to the kingdom of Naples and Sicily. He has no more right to it than I have. It is without any just claim, and inconsistent with the directions of Christ, that he holds possession of Bologna, Imola, Ravenna, Romagna, the Marches of Ancona, &c. '*No man that warreth*,' says St. Paul, '*entangleth himself with the affairs of this life*.' (2 Tim. ii. 4.) And the Pope, who claims to be chief of the church militant, entangles himself more with the things of this life, than any emperor or king. We must relieve him from all this burden. Let the emperor put into the hands of the Pope, the Bible and mass-book, in order that his holiness may leave government for kings, and keep to preaching and praying."*

He was quite as earnest against the Pope's ecclesiastical authority in Germany, as against his temporal power in Italy. "As a first step," says he, "it behoves us to expel from all the German States the Pope's legates, and the pretended benefites which they sell us as their weight in gold, and which are mere impostures. They take our money, and for what? for legalizing ill-gotten gains—for dissolving the sacredness of oaths—for teaching us to break faith—for instructing us in sin, and leading us directly to hell. Hear this—O Pope! not '*most holy*'—but '*most sinning*! May God, from his throne on high, hurl thy throne ere long to the bottomless pit!"

The Christian tribune proceeded. Having summoned the Pope to his bar, he cited before him all the corruptions which followed in the train of the papacy, and began to sweep from the floor of the Church, the rubbish that encumbered it. He commenced with the monks:

"Now then I come to that slothful crew who pro-

mise much, but do little. Bear with me, my friends, I mean you well; what I have to say to you is a truth both sweet and bitter—it is that no more cloisters must be built for mendicant friars. God knows we have enough already, and would to heaven they were all levelled with the ground! Vagabonding through a country never has done, and never can do, good."

The marriage of ecclesiastics comes next. It was the first time that Luther had spoken on that subject: "To what a condition is the clergy fallen, and how many priests do we find burdened with women and children, and their bitter remorse, while no one comes to their aid! It may suit the Pope and the bishops to let things go on as they list, and that which is lost continue lost: be it so. But for my part, I will deliver my conscience. I will open my mouth freely: let pope, bishop, or who ever will, take offence at it! I say then, that according to the appointment of Christ and his apostles, every town should have a pastor, or bishop, and that this pastor may have one wife, as St. Paul writes to Timothy: '*Let the bishop be the husband of one wife*,' (Tim. iii. 2,) and as is still the practice in the Greek church. But the devil has persuaded the Pope, as St. Paul tells Timothy (1 Tim. iv. 1—3), '*to forbid*' the clergy '*to marry*.' And hence miseries innumerable. What is to be done? What resource for so many pastors, irreproachable in everything, except, that they live in secret commerce with a woman to whom they would, with all their heart, be joined in wedlock! Ah! let them set their consciences at rest! let them take this woman for their lawful wife, let them live virtuously with her, without troubling themselves whether it please the pope or not. The salvation of the soul is of more consequence than tyrannous and arbitrary laws, which come not from the Lord."

It is in this way that the Reformation sought to restore purity of morals in the Church. The Reformer continued:

"Let festivals be abolished, and none observed but Sunday: or if it is wished to keep the great Christian festivals, let them be celebrated only in the morning, and the rest of the day be regarded as a working-day. For since people do nothing on feast-days but drink, play, run into vice, or waste their time in idleness, there is much more offence to God on these days than on others."

He then turns to the dedication of churches, which he designates mere taverns; and next notices the customary fasts, and the different religious fraternities—He insists not only against the abuses of these things, but aims to put an end to schisms. "It is time," he says, "that we should take a serious interest in the affair of the Bohemians; that we should lay aside hatred and envy, and unite with them." He proposes some excellent measures of conciliation, and adds: "It is thus that we ought to convince heretics by Scripture, following in this the example of the early fathers, and not exterminate them by fire. According to the contrary course, the executioners would be the best teachers in the world. Oh! would to God, that on both sides we would stretch out the right hand of brotherly humility, instead of erecting ourselves in the opinion of our strength of argument and right. Charity is more needed than the Roman Papacy. I have done all in my power. If the Pope and his adherents offer opposition, on their own heads must rest the responsibility. The Pope ought to be willing to surrender everything—authority, wealth, and honour—if by so doing he could save one soul. But he would rather see the whole universe perish, than yield a hair's-breadth of the power he has usurped! I am clear of these things."*

* Ihm die Biblien und Betbücher dafür anzeigen—un erd predige und bete. (L. Opp. xvii. 472.)

* Nun liess er ehe dei Welt untergehen ehe er ein Haar-

After this, Luther turns to the universities and schools :

"I fear much," he says, "that the universities will be found to be great gates leading down to hell, unless they take diligent care to explain the Holy Scriptures, and to engrave them in the hearts of our youth. I would not advise any one to place his child where the Holy Scriptures are not regarded as the rule of life. Every institution, where God's word is not diligently studied, must become corrupt."* Weighty words ! which governments, fathers, and the learned in all ages, would do well to consider.

Toward the close of his appeal, he reverts to the Empire and the Emperor :

"The Pope," he says, "not being able to manage the ancient masters of the Roman empire, bethought himself of the plan of appropriating their title and empire, and then giving them to us Germans. Thus it has happened that we have become vassals of the Pope. The Pope took possession of Rome, extorting from the Emperor an oath not to reside there ; and hence it is that the Emperor is Emperor of Rome, without Rome ! We have the name ; the Pope the country and its cities. We have the title and arms of the Empire : the Pope monopolizes its treasure, power, privileges, and liberties. He devours the kernel, and we are put off with the shell. It is thus that the pride and tyranny of Rome has at all times abused our simplicity."

"But may God, who has given us such an empire, now stand by us ! Let us act worthily of our name, our title, and our arms ; let us preserve our liberty ! and let the Romans learn what it is that God has given us by their hands. They boast of having given us an empire. Well, then, let us take it, for it is ours. Let the Pope abandon Rome, and all he holds possession of in the Empire. Let him cease his taxes and extortions ! Let him restore to us our liberty, our power, our property, our honour, our souls, and bodies ! Let the Empire be what an Empire ought to be, and let the sword of princes no longer be lowered before the hypocritical pretensions of a Pope !"

There is a lofty reason in these words, besides their force and persuasion. Did ever, before, any orator make such an appeal to the whole nobility of the empire, and the Emperor himself ? Far from wondering that so many of the German States separated themselves from Rome, ought we not rather to be astonished that all Germany did not rise *en masse* and re-take from Rome that imperial power which the Popes had with so much effrontery usurped ?

Luther terminates this bold harangue with these words :

"I can easily believe that I may have held too high a tone, that I may have proposed many things which will appear impossible, and attacked many errors with too much vehemence. But what can I do ? Let the world be offended rather than God ! They can but take my life. Again and again I have offered peace to my adversaries. But God has, by their own instruments, compelled me continually to uplift a louder and a louder voice against them. I have one indictment in reserve against Rome. If their ears itch to know what it is, I will utter it aloud. Dost thou not know, O Rome ! dost thou not know well what I mean ? . . ."

Allusion is probably made here to a tract on Popery, which Luther intended to give to the world, but which has not been published. The prior, Burkhard, wrote at the time to Spenglar ; "There is also a little book *de execranda venere Romanorum* ; but it is kept back." *breit seiner vermessenen Gewalt liess abbrechen.* (L. Opp. (L.). xvii. 483.)

* *Ess muss verderben, alles was nicht Gottes Wort ohne Unterlass treibt.* (Ibid. 486.)

The title indicated the probability that it would afford great occasion of scandal. There is reason to rejoice that Luther had the moderation not to publish this work.

"If my cause is just," continued he, "it will be its lot to be condemned on earth, and espoused only by Christ in heaven. Let them come on then, popes, bishops, priests, monks, and doctors ! let them bring forth all their zeal, and let loose all their rage ! Verily, it is their part to persecute the truth, as every age has witnessed."

But where did this monk acquire so clear a perception of public affairs, which the States of the Empire themselves often found it difficult to estimate correctly ! What could embolden this obscure German to stand up in the midst of his own long-enslaved nation, and to strike such mighty blows against the papal authority ! What is this mysterious strength which inspires him ! May we not answer that he had heard these words of God, addressed to one of the holy men of old : "Behold, I have made thy face strong against their faces ; as an adamant, harder than flint, have I made thy forehead : fear them not."

Addressed to the German nobility, Luther's appeal soon reached all those for whom it had been written. It spread through Germany with wonderful rapidity. His friends trembled ; Staupitz, and those who preferred a moderate course, thought the blow too severe. "In these days," answered Luther, "whatever is quietly mooted, falls into oblivion, and no one troubles himself about it."† At the same time, he evinced perfect simplicity and humility. He had no conception of the prominent part he was to perform. "I know not what to say of myself," he wrote : "perhaps I am the precursor of Philip, (Melancthon,) and, like Elias, am preparing the way for him in spirit and in power. And it is *he* who will one day trouble Israel, and the house of Ahab."‡

But there was no need to wait for another than him who had already appeared. The house of Ahab was already shaken. The *Appeal to the German Nobility* had appeared on the 26th of June, 1520 ; and in a short time 4000 copies were sold—an extraordinary number for that period. The astonishment was universal. This writing produced a powerful sensation among all the people. The force, the spirit, the clearness, and the noble daring which reigned throughout it, rendered it a most popular tract. In short, it was felt by the common people as proceeding from one who loved them. The hesitating views of very many wise men were clearly brought out, and the usurpations of Rome were made evident to the minds of all. No one at Wittenberg any longer doubted that the Pope was Antichrist. Even the Elector's court, so circumspect and timid, manifested no disapprobation, and seemed to wait the result. But the nobility and the people did not wait. The whole nation was roused ; the voice of Luther had deeply moved it ; henceforth it was gained over, and rallied round the standard that he raised. Nothing could have been more favourable to the Reformer than this publication. In palaces, in the castles of the nobles, in the citizens' dwellings, and even in the cottages of the peasantry, all were now prepared, and as though cased in steel, against the sentence of condemnation which was about to fall upon this prophet of the people. All Germany was in a flame ; and whenever the Pope's bull might come, it would not avail to extinguish the conflagration.

At Rome everything was ready for the condemnation of the defender of the Church's liberties. That Church had long lived in profound security. For many

* *Que nostro saculo quiete tractantur, mex cadere in oblivionem.* (L. Epp. i. 479.)

† Ibid.

years the monks of Rome had accused Leo X., of caring for nothing but luxury and pleasure, and wasting time in hunting, plays, and music,* while the Church was nodding to its ruin. Now, at length aroused by the clamours of Eck—who had come from Leipsic to invoke the power of the Vatican—the pope, the cardinals, the monks, and all Rome, were awake to the sense of danger and intent on saving the Papacy.

In fact, Rome was brought into the necessity of having recourse to measures of stern severity. The gauntlet was thrown down; the combat must be to the death. It was not the abuses of the pontiff's authority itself—that Luther had attacked. At his bidding, the pope was required to descend meekly from his throne, and become again a simple pastor, or bishop, on the banks of the Tiber. All the dignitaries of the Roman hierarchy were required to renounce their riches and worldly glory, and again become the elders and deacons of the churches of Italy. All that splendour and power, which had for centuries dazzled the West, was to vanish away and give place to the humble simplicity of worship of the first Christians. Doubtless, God could have wrought these changes, and He will do so in his own time; but they could not be looked for from man. And even if a people had been found so disinterested and courageous as to be willing to overturn the ancient and costly edifice of the Roman Church, thousands of priests and bishops would have put forth their hands to save it from its fall. The pope had received his power under the express condition of defending the dominion confided to him. Rome believed herself to be set by God for the government of the church. We cannot, therefore, be surprised that she stood prepared to hurl the most terrible judgments. And yet for a while she hesitated. Many cardinals, and the pope himself, had no wish to resort to severe measures. The statesman-like Leo, was well aware that a sentence, the execution of which depended on the rather doubtful consent of the civil power, might seriously compromise the authority of the church. He saw, besides, that the violent measures already resorted to, had but increased the evil. Might not this Saxon monk be gained over? asked the politicians of Rome. Was it possible that the church's power, aided by Italian artifice, should fail to accomplish its object? Negotiation must yet be tried.

Eck, therefore, found many difficulties to contend with. He tried every expedient; labouring incessantly to prevent any concessions to what he deemed heresy. In his daily walks through Rome he loudly vaunted his anger, and called for vengeance. He was quickly joined by the fanatical party of the monks. Emboldened by these allies, he besieged the pope and the cardinals with fresh courage. According to him, any attempt at conciliation was useless. Such efforts, said he, are mere fancies and remote expectations. He knew the danger, for he had wrestled with the audacious monk. He saw the necessity for cutting off this gangrened member, lest the disorder should spread throughout the body. The vehement disputer of Leipsic met and removed objection after objection, and with difficulty persuaded the pope.† He was resolved to save Rome in spite of herself. He left no stone unturned. For hours together he continued in close deliberation with the pontiff.‡ He excited the court, and the convents, the people and the church. "Eck is moving against me," says Luther, "the lowest

depths of hell; he has set the forests of Lebanon in a blaze."* At length he carried his point. The politic counsellors were overborne by the fanatics who were admitted to the papal councils. Leo gave way. The condemnation of Luther was determined on, and Eck began to breathe freely. His pride was flattered by the thought that he had decided the ruin of his heretical rival, and thus saved the church. "It was well," said he, "that I came at this time to Rome, for the errors of Luther were but little known there. It will one day be known how much I have done in behalf of this cause."†

Thus did God send out a spirit of infatuation upon the doctors of Rome. It had become necessary that the separation between truth and error should be effected, and it was error that was destined to make the separation. Had matters been brought to an accommodation, it could only have been at the expense of truth; but to take away from truth the smallest portion of itself is paving the way for its utter loss and annihilation. In this respect Truth resembles the insect which is said to die if deprived of one of its antennæ. Truth requires to be entire and perfect in all its members, in order to the manifestation of that power by which it is able to gain wide and salutary victories, and extend its triumphs to future ages. Blending a little error with truth, is like casting a grain of poison into a full dish; that grain suffices to change the quality of the food, and death, slow but certain, is the result. The defenders of the doctrine of Christ, against the attacks of its adversaries, guard its advanced outworks as jealously as the citadel itself; for the enemy, once in possession of the least important of these posts, is not far removed from conquest. The Roman Pontiff, at the period we are treating of, determined upon rendering assunder the church, and the portion which he has continued to hold, though still magnificent, hides in vain, under outward pomp and ceremony, the principle that is undermining its existence. Where the word of God is, there only is life. Luther, courageous as he was, would probably have been silent, if Rome herself had kept silence, or shown any desire to make concessions. But God had not allowed the Reformation to be dependant on the weakness of man's heart; Luther was in the hands of One whose eye penetrated results. Divine providence made use of the pope to break every link between the past and the future, and to throw the Reformer into a course altogether unknown, and leading he knew not whither. The Papal Bull was Rome's bill of divorce, addressed to the pure Church of Jesus Christ, in the person of one who was then standing as her humble but faithful representative; and the church accepted it, that she might thenceforward hold only from her Head who is in heaven.

While at Rome, the condemnation of Luther was sought for with violent animosity. A humble priest, an inhabitant of one of the rude towns of Switzerland, who never had any intercourse with the Reformer, had been deeply affected at the thought of the blow which hung over him, and while even the intimates of the doctor of Wittemberg were silent and trembling, this Swiss mountaineer formed the resolution to do his utmost to arrest the dreaded bull! His name was Ulric Zwingle. William Des Faucons, secretary to the pope's Legate in Switzerland, and intrusted by the legate with his duties during his absence, was his friend. "As long as I live," said the Nuncio *ad interim* only a few days before, "you may rest assured of everything on my part that can be expected from a true friend." The Swiss priest, trusting to this assurance, repaired

* E sopra tutto musico eccellentissimo, e quando el canta con qualche uno, li far donar cento e piu ducati. (Zorst M. S. C.)

† Sarpi Hist. du Concile de Trente.

‡ Stetimus nuper, papa, duo cardinales—et ego per quinque horas in deliberatione. . . (Eckii Epistola, 3 Maii. L. Opp. lat. ii. 48.)

* Impetratur abyssos abyssorum—succensus saltum Libani. (L. Epp. i. 421, 429.)

† Bonum fuit me venisse hoc tempore Romam. (Epist. Eekii.)

to the office of the Roman Nuncio, (so at least we may conclude from one of his letters.) It was not for himself that he feared the dangers into which faith brings the believer; he knew that a disciple of Christ must be ever ready to lay down his life. "All that I ask of Christ for myself," said he to a friend to whom he at the time unbosomed his anxiety respecting Luther, "is, that I may support the afflictions which await me like a man. I am a vessel of clay in his hands; let him break me in shivers, or strengthen me, as seems good to him."* But the Swiss preacher dreaded the consequences to the church of so severe a blow struck at the Reformer. He laboured to persuade the representative of Rome to inform the pope on the matter, and to employ all the means in his power to deter him from excommunicating Luther.† "The dignity of the holy see itself is concerned in it," said he; "for if things come to such a pass, Germany, enthusiastically attached to the gospel and its teacher, will be sure to treat the Pope and his anathemas with contempt."‡ The effort was unavailing, and it appears that, even at the time it was made, the blow was already struck. Such was the first occasion on which the path of the Saxon doctor and that of the Swiss priest were so ordered as to meet together. We shall again find the latter in the course of this history, and shall behold him developing his character, and growing by degrees to lofty stature in the church of the Lord.

The condemnation of Luther once determined on, new difficulties arose in the bosom of the consistory. The divines proposed to proceed immediately to fulminate the sentence. The civilians, on the contrary, desired to commence by a citation. "Was not Adam," said they, appealing to their colleagues, cited before he was condemned? "Adam, where art thou?" said the Lord. In the instance of Cain, likewise: "Where is thy brother Abel?" asked the Eternal." To these singular arguments, drawn from holy Writ, the canonists added considerations derived from natural law. "Evidence of a crime," they said, "cannot take from any criminal the right of defending himself against the charge."§ It is pleasing to trace such principles of equity in a Romish synod. But these scruples did not suit the theologians of the assembly, who, carried away by passion, thought only of setting to work quickly. It was finally arranged that Luther's doctrine should be condemned immediately; and that as to himself and his adherents, a term of sixty days should be granted them; after which, if they did not recant their opinions, they should be all *ipso facto* excommunicated. De Vio, who had returned from Germany sick, had himself carried on his couch to the assembly, unwilling to miss this petty triumph, which afforded him some consolation. Though defeated at Augsburg, he claimed to take part at Rome in condemning the unconquerable monk, whom his learning, acuteness, and authority, had failed to humble. Luther was not there to answer; hence the boldness of de Vio. On the 15th of June, the sacred college agreed on the condemnation, and gave their approbation to the celebrated *bull*.

"Arise, O Lord!" said the Roman pontiff, speaking at this solemn moment as vicar of God, and head of the church, "arise, and remember the reproaches wherewith fools reproach thee all day long. Arise, O

Peter! remember thy holy Roman church, mother of all the churches, and mistress of the faith. Arise, O Paul! for a new Porphyry is here, attacking thy doctrines, and the holy popes, our predecessors. Finally, arise, O assembly of all the saints! holy church of God! and intercede for us with God Almighty."*

The pope proceeds to cite, as pernicious, scandalous, and corrupt, forty-one propositions of Luther, in which the latter explained the "sound doctrine" of the Gospel. The following are included in the propositions condemned:

"To deny that sin remains in the infant after baptism, is to trample under foot St. Paul and our Lord Jesus Christ."

"A new life is the best and highest penitence."

"To burn heretics is contrary to the will of the Holy Spirit," &c. &c.

"As soon as this bull shall be published," continues the pope, "the bishops are to search diligently for the writings of Martin Luther, in which these errors are contained, and to burn them publicly and solemnly, in the presence of the clergy and of the laity. As to Martin himself, what is there, in the name of Heaven, that we have not done? Imitating the goodness of God Almighty, we are ready, notwithstanding, to receive him again into the bosom of the church, and we allow him sixty days to forward to us his recantation, in writing, attested by two prelates; or, rather, (which would be more satisfactory,) to present himself before us in Rome, that none may any more doubt his obedience. In the meantime, he must from this moment cease preaching, teaching, and writing, and commit his works to the flames. And if he do not recant, within the space of sixty days, we, by these presents, sentence himself, and his adherents, as open and contumacious heretics."

The pope afterward pronounces a long train of excommunications, maledictions, and interdicts, against Luther and all his partisans, with orders to seize their persons, and send them to Rome.† It is easy to guess what would have become of these generous confessors of the Gospel, in the dungeons of the papacy.

The storm was thus gathering over the head of Luther. The bull was published; and, for centuries, Rome had not uttered the sentence of condemnation without following it with the stroke of death. This murderous message from the seven-hilled city was to reach the Saxon monk in his cloister. The moment was well chosen. The new emperor, who had so many reasons for cultivating friendly relations with the pope, would no doubt hasten to recommend himself by sacrificing to him an obscure monk. Leo X., the cardinals, and all the partisans of Rome, exulted, fancying they saw their enemy at their feet.

While the eternal city was thus agitated, events of more tranquil character were passing at Wittenberg. Melancthon was shedding there a soft, but brilliant light. Near two thousand auditors, from Germany, England, the Netherlands, France, Italy, Hungary, and Greece, were frequently assembled around him. He was twenty-four years of age, and had not taken orders. Every house in Wittenberg was open to this young professor—so learned, and at the same time so amiable. Foreign universities, Ingolstadt in particular, sought to attract him within their walls. His friends at Wittenberg resolved to retain him among them, by inducing him to marry. Although he desired a partner for his dear Philip, Luther declared he would not be his adviser in this affair. Others took

* Hoc unum Christum obtestans, ut masculo omnia pectore ferre donet, et me signulum suum rumpat aut firmet, ut illi placitum sit. (Zwinglii Epistolæ, curant. Schulero et Schulthessio, p. 144.)

† Ut pontificem admoneat, ne excommunicationem ferat. (Zwinglii Epistolæ, curant. Schulero et Schulthessio, p. 144.)

‡ Nam si feratur, auguror Germanos cum excommunicatione pontificem quoque contempnuros. (Ibid.)

§ Sarpi Hist. du Concile de Trente, i. 12.

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 305, et Opp. lat. i. 32.

† Sub prædictis penis, præfatum Lutherum, complices adherentes, receptatores et fautores, personaliter capiant et ad nos mittant. (Bulla Leonis, loc. cit.)

that part upon themselves. The young doctor was a frequent visitor at the house of the burgomaster, Krapp, who belonged to an ancient family. Krapp had a daughter named Catherine, of a mild and amiable character, and great sensibility. Melancthon's friends urged him to ask her in marriage. But the young scholar was buried in his books, and would not hear of anything else. His Greek authors and his Testament formed his delight. He met the arguments of his friends with other arguments. At length his consent was obtained. The necessary steps were taken for him by his friends, and Catherine was given to him for a wife. He received her very coldly,* and said, with a sigh, "God has then willed it so; I must forego my studies and my pleasures, in compliance with the wishes of my friends."† Yet he was not insensible to Catherine's merits. "Her character and education," said he, "are such as I might have desired of God. δεξιά ὁ Θεὸς τεκμαίρομαι.‡ And truly she is deserving of a better husband." The match was agreed on during the month of August; the espousals took place on the 25th of September; and, at the end of November, the marriage was celebrated. Old John Luther, with his wife and daughters, came to Wittemberg on this occasion,§ and many learned and distinguished persons attended at the celebration of the wedding.

The young bride was as remarkable for her warmth of affection, as the young professor for his coldness of manner. Ever full of anxiety for her husband, Catherine was alarmed by the least appearance of danger to the object of her affection. When Melancthon proposed to take any step that might compromise his safety, she overwhelmed him with entreaties to renounce his intention. "I was obliged," wrote Melancthon, on one of these occasions, "I was obliged to yield to her weakness—it is our lot." How many instances of unfaithfulness, in the church, may have a similar origin? Perhaps to the influence of Catherine we should attribute the timidity and fears for which her husband has been often blamed. Catherine was no less tender as a mother than as a wife. She gave liberally to the poor. "Forsake me not, O God! when I am old and gray-headed!" Such was the ordinary ejaculation of this pious and timid soul. The heart of Melancthon was soon won over by the affection of his wife. When he had once tasted the sweets of domestic life, he became fully sensible of their value. He was formed, indeed, to relish them, and nowhere was he more happy than with his Catherine and his children. A French traveller, having one day found the "master of Germany" rocking the cradle of his child with one hand, and holding a book in the other, started with surprise. But Melancthon, without being disconcerted, explained to him, with so much earnestness, the high value of children in the sight of God, that the stranger left the house wiser, to use his own words, than he had entered it.

The marriage of Melancthon added a domestic hearth to the Reformation. There was thenceforward in Wittemberg one family whose house was open to all those who were breathing the new life. The concourse of strangers was immense.|| People came to Melancthon concerning a thousand different matters; and the established rule was to refuse nothing to any

one.* The young professor was especially disinterested on occasions of doing good. When his money was spent, he would secretly part with his table service to some dealer, but little concerning himself for the loss of it, so that he might have wherewithal to relieve the distressed.

Accordingly, "it would have been impossible," says his friend Camerarius, "to have provided his own wants, and those of his family, if a divine hidden blessing had not furnished him from time to time with the means." His good-nature was extreme. He had some ancient gold and silver medals, remarkable for their legends and impressions. One day he was showing them to a stranger who was on a visit. "Take any one you would like," said Melancthon to him.—"I would like them all," answered the stranger.—"I own," says Philip, "I was at first offended at this unreasonable request: nevertheless, I gave them to him."†

There was in the writings of Melancthon a delightful odour of antiquity, which gave them an inexpressible charm, while it did not prevent the savour of Christ from being at the same time exhaled from every part of them. There is not one of his letters to his friends, in which one is not naturally reminded of the wisdom of Homer, of Plato, of Cicero, and of Pliny—CHRIST remaining always his Master and his God. Spalatin had desired of him an explanation of this saying of Jesus Christ: "Without me, ye can do nothing." (John xv. 5.) Melancthon referred him to Luther: "'Cur agam gestum spectante Roscio,' to use the words of Cicero,"‡ said he. He then continues: "The passage teaches that we must be absorbed by Christ, so that we ourselves should no longer act, but that Christ should live in us. As the divine nature has been made one body with man in Christ, so should man be incorporated by faith with Jesus Christ."

This celebrated scholar usually retired to rest shortly after supper. At two or three o'clock in the morning he was at work.§ It was during these early studies that his best works were composed. His manuscripts were usually laid on his table, exposed in view of all who went in and out, so that he was robbed of several of them. When he had invited any friends to his house, he requested one or other of them, before sitting down to table, to read some short composition, either in prose or verse. When he made a journey, he always took with him some young persons as companions. He conversed with them in a manner both instructive and entertaining. If conversation flagged, each was required to recite in turn some passages from the ancient poets. He frequently resorted to irony, tempering it, however, by much sweetness. "He does but prick the skin," said he, speaking of himself, "he never inflicts a wound."

Learning was his passion. The great object of his life was to diffuse a love of letters and general information. Let us not forget, that the literature highest in his estimation was the Holy Scripture, and only subordinately the literature of the heathen. "I devote myself," said he, "to one thing only: the defence of learning. We must by our example kindle the admiration of youth for knowledge, and lead them to love it for its own sake, not for the gain that is to be made of it. The ruin of letters brings with it the destruction of all that is good: religion, morals, the things of God, and the things of man. . . . || The better a man is,

* Uxor enim datur mihi non dico quam frigenti. (Corp. Ref. i. 211.)

† Ege meis studiis, mea me voluptate fraudo. (Ibid. i. 265.)

‡ May God bring the affair to a happy issue! (Ibid. i. 2.)

§ Parentes mei cum sororibus nuptias honorarunt Philippi. (L. Ep. i. 528.)

|| Videres in edibus illis perpetuo accedentes et introeuntes et discedentes atque exeuntes aliquos. (Camerar. Vita Melancthon. p. 40.)

* Ea domus disciplina erat, ut nihil cuiquam negaretur. (Ibid.)

† Sed dedisse nihilominus illos. (Camerar. Vita Melancthon. 43.)

‡ "Why should I speak in the presence of Roscius?" (Corp. Reform. Ep. Apr. 13, 1520.)

§ Surgebat mox aut non longo intervallo post mediam noctem. (Camerar. p. 56.)

|| Religionem, mores, humana divinaque omnia labefactat literarum incertitia. (Corp. Ref. i. 207, July 22, 1520.)

the greater is his desire to preserve knowledge: for he knows, that of all plagues, ignorance is the most pernicious."

Some time after his marriage, Melancthon went to Bretten, in the Palatinate, in company with Camerarius, and some other friends, on a visit to his affectionate mother. As soon as he caught a view of his native town, he alighted, and kneeling down, thanked God for having permitted him to see it once more. Margaret, embracing her son, almost swooned for joy. She pressed him to fix his abode at Bretten, and was urgent in entreaties that he would continue in the faith of his fathers. Melancthon excused himself, but with much moderation and reserve, from fear of wounding his mother's conscience. He grieved at parting from her; and whenever any traveller brought him news from his native town, he was as merry, he said, as if going back to childhood itself. Such, in the touching privacy of domestic life, was the man who was one of the chief instruments of the religious revolution of the sixteenth century.

The family peace and busy studies of Wittenberg were shortly after disturbed by a tumult. The students quarrelled, and came to blows with the citizens. The rector betrayed great want of energy. The grief of Melancthon, on witnessing the excesses of these disciples of learning, may be easily imagined. Luther was indignant. His was not the character that would conciliate by undue concessions. The disgrace these disorders brought upon the University deeply wounded him.* He ascended the pulpit, and preached with great force against these seditions; calling on both parties to submit themselves to the magistrates.† His discourse occasioned great irritation. "Satan," said he, "not being able to prevail against us from without, seeks to injure us from within. I do not fear him; but I fear lest the anger of God should fall upon us for not having fully received his word. In these last three years, I have been thrice exposed to great danger: in 1518 at Augsburg, in 1519 at Leipsic, and now, in 1520, at Wittenberg. It is neither by wisdom, nor by violence, that the renovation of the Church will be accomplished, but by humble prayer, and a bold faith, that shall range Jesus Christ on our side.‡ O my friend, join thy prayers to mine, that the evil spirit may not be permitted to use this little spark, to kindle a vast conflagration."

But more terrible conflicts awaited Luther.—Rome was brandishing the sword, with which she was about to strike the preacher of the Gospel. The rumour of the condemnation which was about to fall upon him, far from depressing the Reformer, increased his courage. He took no pains to parry the stroke of this haughty power. It is by striking yet more terrible blows himself, that he will baffle those of his adversaries. While the Transalpine congregations were fulminating their anathemas against him, he was planning to carry the sword of the word into the midst of the Italian states. Letters from Venice spoke of the favour with which the opinions were there received. He ardently desired to send the Gospel beyond the Alps. But evangelists were required to be the bearers of it. "I could wish," said he, "that we had living books, that is to say, preachers, and that we could multiply and protect them in all places, that they might convey to the people the knowledge of divine things. The Prince could not undertake a work more worthy of himself. If the people of Italy were to receive the truth,

our cause would then be unassailable." It does not appear that this project of Luther was realized. At a later period; it is true, some preachers of the Gospel, Calvin himself among others, resided for a while in Italy: but at this time no steps were taken to accomplish Luther's plan. He had looked for help to one of the princes of this world. Had he appealed to men in humble station, but full of zeal for the kingdom of God, the result might have been very different. At the period we are recording, the idea was general that everything must be done by governments; and the association of private individuals, an agency by which, in our days, such great things are accomplished in Christendom, was almost unknown.

If Luther was not successful in his plans for spreading the knowledge of the truth to distant countries, he was but the more zealous in preaching it at home. It was at this time that he delivered, at Wittenberg, his discourse on the office of the mass.* In this discourse he declaimed against the numerous sects of the Romish Church, and reproached her, with justice, for her want of unity. "The multiplicity of laws in matters of conscience," he exclaims, "has filled the world with sects and divisions. The hatred thence engendered between priests, monks, and laity, is even greater than that which exists between Christians and Turks. Nay, more than this; priests are mortal enemies to priests, and monks to monks. Each is devoted to his own sect, and despises all others. The unity and love of Christ is broken up and destroyed." He then attacks the opinion, that the mass is a sacrifice, and has any power in itself. "The better part of every sacrifice, and consequently of the Lord's Supper," he says, "is in the word and the promises of God. Without faith in this word, and in these promises, the sacrament is but dead; it is a body without a soul, a cup without wine, a purse without money, a type without fulfilment, a letter without meaning, a casket without jewels, a sheath without a sword."

The voice of Luther was not, however, confined within the limits of Wittenberg; and if he did not find missionaries to carry his instructions to distant parts, God had provided a missionary of a new kind. Printing was destined to supply the place of preachers of the Gospel. The press was to constitute a battery which should open a breach in the Roman fortress. The mine had been charged by Luther, and the explosion shook the edifice of Rome to its foundations. His famous tract on the *Babylonian Captivity of the Church* appeared on the 6th of October, 1520.† Never had any one evinced such courage in circumstances so critical.

In this work he begins by setting forth, with admirable irony, all the advantages for which he is indebted to his enemies:

"Whether I will or no," says he, "I learn more and more every day, urged on as I am by so many celebrated masters. Two years ago I attacked indulgences; but with such faltering indecision, that I am now ashamed of it. It, however, is not to be wondered at; for then I had to roll forward the rock by myself."

He then returns thanks to Prierias, to Eck, to Emser, and to his other adversaries. "I denied," he continued, "that the Papacy was from God, but admitted that it stood by human right. But now, after having read all the subtleties on which these worthies set up their idol, I know that Papacy is nothing but the reign of Babylon, and the violence of the mighty hunter Nimrod. I therefore request all my friends, and all booksellers, that they will burn the books I have before

* *Urit me ista confusio academice nostrae.* (L. Epp. i. 467.)
† *Commendans potestatem magistratum.* (Ibid.)

‡ *— Nec prudentia nec armis, sed humili oratione et forti fide, quibus obtineamus Christum pro nobis.* (Ibid. p. 469.)

§ *Si vivos libros, hoc est concionatores possemus multiplicare.* (L. Epp. i. 491.)

* L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 490.

† L. Opp. lat. ii. 63, et Leips, xvii. 511.

written on this subject, and in their stead substitute this single proposition: 'The Papacy is a general chase, led by the Bishop of Rome, and having for its object the snaring and ruining of souls.'**

Luther afterward attacks the errors that prevailed with respect to the sacraments, monastic vows, &c. He reduces the seven sacraments of the Church to three; Baptism, Penitence, and the Lord's Supper. He explains the true nature of the latter. He then passes on to baptism, and it is here especially that he establishes the excellence of *Faith*, and makes a powerful attack upon Rome. "God," he says, "has preserved to us this sacrament aloof pure from human traditions. God has said: 'He that believeth, and is baptized, shall be saved.' This promise of God ought to be preferred to the glory of all works, to all vows, satisfactions, indulgences, and everything which man has invented. Now on this promise, received by faith, depends our salvation. If we believe, our heart is strengthened by the divine promise; and though a believer should be bereft of all beside, this promise, which he believes, will never forsake him. With this he will be able to withstand the adversary who assaults his soul. It will be his support in the hour of death, and his plea at the judgment-seat of God. In all his trials it will be his consolation that he can say: God is faithful to his promise: I have received the pledge of it in baptism: if God is for me, who can be against me? Oh, how rich is the baptized Christian! nothing can ruin him, but his own refusal to believe.

"Perhaps the baptism of little children may be objected to what I say as to the necessity of faith. But as the word of God is mighty to change the heart of an ungodly person, who is not less deaf, nor less helpless than an infant—so the prayer of the Church, to which all things are possible, changes the little child, by the operation of the *faith* which God pours into his soul, and thus purifies and renews it."†

Having explained the doctrine of baptism, Luther makes use of it as a weapon against the Papacy. If the Christian really finds all his salvation in renewal by baptism, *through faith*, what need has he of the prescriptions of Rome?

"For this reason," says Luther, "I declare that neither pope, nor bishop, nor any other man living, has authority to impose the least thing upon a Christian without his own consent. Whatever is done otherwise, is done by an arbitrary assumption.‡ We are free from all men. The vow which we have made in baptism is of itself sufficient, and more than we can ever fulfil.§ All other vows, then, may be dispensed with. Let whoever enters into the priesthood, or joins a monastic order, be assured that the labours of a monk or of a priest, however arduous, differ in no respect, as to their value in the sight of God, from those of a peasant working in his field, or of a woman attending to the duties of her house.¶ God esteems all things according to the faith whence they proceed. And it often happens that the simple labour of a serving man or woman is more acceptable to God than

the fastings and works of a monk, because in these last faith is wanting. Christian people are the true people of God, carried captive to Babylon, and there stripped of what they had acquired by their baptism."

Such were the means by which the religious revolution, we are relating, was accomplished. The necessity of faith was first established, and then the Reformers applied it to demolish and bring to dust the prevailing superstitions. It was with that power, which is of God, and which can remove mountains, that they advanced against so many errors. These words of Luther, and many other similar appeals, circulating far and wide through cities, convents, and country places, became the leaven which leavened the whole mass.

Luther terminated this work on the Babylonian Captivity with these words:—

"I hear that new papal excommunications have been concocted against me. If this be so, this book may be regarded as a part of my future 'recantation.' The rest will follow shortly, in proof of my obedience; and the whole will, by Christ's help, form a collection such as Rome has never yet seen or heard of."

After this, all hope of reconciliation between the Pope and Luther must necessarily have vanished. The incompatibility of the faith of the Reformer with the Church's teaching could not but be evident to the least discerning. But at this very time fresh negotiations had just commenced. About the end of August, 1520, and five weeks before the publication of the "Babylonian Captivity," the chapter of the Augustines was assembled at Eisleben. The venerable Staupitz resigned on this occasion the office of Vicar-general of the order, and Wenceslaus Link, who had accompanied Luther to Augsburg, was invested with that dignity. The indefatigable Milnitz arrived suddenly during the sitting of the chapter.* He was eagerly bent on reconciling the Pope and Luther. His self-love, his avarice, but, above all, his jealousy and hatred, were interested therein. The vain-glorious boasting of Eck had thrown him into the shade; he knew that the doctor of Ingolstadt, had disparaged him at Rome, and he would have made any sacrifice to baffle the plots of his troublesome rival, by the prompt conclusion of peace. The religious bearing of the question gave him little or no concern. One day, as he himself relates, he was at table with the bishop of Meissen; and the guests had drank pretty freely, when a new work of Luther's was brought in. It was opened and read; the bishop went into a passion: the official swore; but Milnitz laughed heartily.† Milnitz dealt with the Reformation as a man of the world; Eck as a theologian.

Stimulated by the arrival of Dr. Eck, Milnitz addressed to the chapter of the Augustines a discourse delivered with a very marked Italian accent,‡ thinking by this means, to impose upon his good countrymen. "The whole order of the Augustines is compromised in this affair," said he: "Point out to me, I pray you, some means of restraining Luther."§ "We have nothing to do with the doctor," answered the fathers, "and we should not know what advice to give you." They rested their answer, doubtless, on the fact of Luther having been released by Staupitz at Augsburg from his obligations as concerned their order. Milnitz persisted. "Let a deputation of this venerable chapter wait on Luther, and request him to write a letter

* Papatus est robusta venatio Romani episcopi. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 64.)

† Sicut enim verbum Dei potens est dum sonat, etiam impii cor immutatur, quod non minus surdum et incapax quam ullus parvulus, ita per orationem Ecclesie offerentis et credentis, parvulus fide infusa mutatur, mandatur et renovatur. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 77.)

‡ Dico itaque, neque papa, neque episcopus, neque ullus hominum habet jus unius syllabæ constituendæ super Christianum hominem, nisi id fiat ejusdem consensu; quidquid aliter fit, tyrannico spiritu fit. (Ib. 77.)

§ Generali edicto tollere vota—abunde enim vivimus in baptismo, et plus quam possumus implere. (Ib. 73.)

¶ Opera quantum libet sacra at ardua religiosorum et sacerdotum, in oculis Dei prorsus nihil distat ab operibus rusticis in agro laborantibus aut mulieris in domo sua curantis. (Ib.)

* Nondum tot pressus difficultatibus animum desponderat Milnitz—dignus profecto non mediocri laude. (Pallavicini, i. 63.)

† Der Bischof entrüstet, der Official gefluchet, et aber gelauchet habe. (Seckend. p. 266.)

‡ Orationem habuit italica pronuntiatione restitam. (L. Epp. I. 483.)

§ Petens consilium super me compescendo. (Ibid.)

to the Pope, assuring him that he has never laid any plots against his person.* That will suffice to terminate the affair." The chapter yielded to the proposal of the Nuncio, and commissioned, doubtless at his desire, Staupitz the late Vicar-general, and Link his successor, to confer with Luther. The deputation set out immediately for Wittemberg, bearing a letter from Miltitz, addressed to the doctor, and full of expressions of high respect. "There was no time to lose," said he, "the thunder already suspended over the head of the Reformer, was about to burst; and then all would be over."

Neither Luther nor the deputies, who were favourable to his opinions,† entertained a hope that anything would be gained by writing to the Pope. But this in itself was a reason for not refusing compliance with the suggestion. The letter could but be a matter of form which would make still more apparent the justice of Luther's cause. "The Italian of Saxony (Miltitz,)" thought Luther, "has doubtless his own private interest in view in making this request. Well, be it so; I will write in strict conformity with truth, that I have never entertained any design against the Pope's person. I must be on my guard, and not be too stern in my hostility to the see of Rome. Yet it shall be sprinkled with salt."‡

But shortly after this, the doctor heard of the arrival of the bull in Germany; on the 2d of October, he declared to Spalatin that he would not write to the Pope, and on the 6th of the same month he published his book on the "Babylonian Captivity." Still Miltitz was not disheartened.—His wish to humble Eck, made him dream of impossibilities. On the 2d of October he had written in full confidence to the Elector: "All will go well; but, for God's sake, do not any longer delay paying me the pension which you and your brother have allowed me for some years past. I must have money to gain new friends at Rome. Write to the Pope, present the young cardinals, his relations, with gold and silver pieces of your Electoral Highness's coin, and add some for me; for I have been robbed of what you had given me."§

Even after Luther had heard of the bull, the intriguing Miltitz was not discouraged. He requested a conference with Luther at Lichtenberg. The Elector ordered the latter to repair thither.¶ But his friends, and above all, the affectionate Melancthon, opposed his going.¶ "What," thought they, "at the moment of the appearance of the bull which enjoins all to seize Luther, that he may be taken to Rome, shall he accept a conference, in a secluded place, with the Pope's Nuncio? Is it not clear that Dr. Eck, not being able to approach the Reformer, because he has made his hatred too public, the crafty chamberlain has undertaken to snare Luther in his toils?"

These fears could not restrain the doctor of Wittemberg. The Prince had commanded, and he resolved to obey. "I am setting out for Lichtenberg," he wrote on the 11th of October, to the chaplain: "Pray for me." His friends would not desert him. On the same day, toward evening, Luther entered Lichtenberg on horseback, surrounded by thirty horsemen, among whom was Melancthon. About the same time, the Pope's Nuncio arrived, attended only by four persons.** Might not this modest escort be a stratagem to inspire Luther and his friends with confidence?

Miltitz was urgent in his solicitations; he assured Luther that the blame would be thrown on Eck, and his foolish boastings,* and that all would be arranged to the satisfaction of both parties. "Well!" answered Luther, "I offer to keep silence for the future, if my adversaries will but do the same. I will do all I can to maintain it."†

Miltitz was overjoyed. He accompanied Luther as far as Wittemberg. The Reformer and the Papal Nuncio entered the city side by side, while Dr. Eck was drawing near it, holding, in menacing hands, the formidable bull, which it was hoped, would extinguish the Reformation. "We shall bring the affair to a happy issue," wrote Miltitz forthwith to the Elector: "thank the Pope for his rose, and send at the same time forty or fifty florins to the cardinal *Quatuor Sanctorum*."‡

Luther, in fulfilment of his promise, was to write to the Pope. Before bidding an eternal farewell to Rome, he resolved once more to address to her some weighty and salutary truths. His letter may perhaps be regarded by some as a mere caustic composition, a bitter and insulting satire; but this would be to mistake his feelings. It was his conviction that to Rome were to be attributed all the ills of Christendom: bearing that in view, his words are, not insults, but solemn warnings. The more he loves Leo, the more he loves the church of Christ; he resolves therefore to disclose the greatness of the evil. The energy of his affection may be inferred from the strength of his expressions. The moment is arrived for heavy blows. He reminds us of a prophet, for the last time, traversing the city, reproaching it with all its abominations, revealing to it the judgments of the Eternal, and crying aloud: "Yet a few days!"—The following is the letter:

"To the most Holy Father in God, Leo X., Pope of Rome, all happiness and prosperity in Christ Jesus our Lord. Amen.

"From the midst of this violent contest, which, for these three years past, I have waged with abandoned men, I cannot refrain from sometimes turning my eyes toward you, O Leo, Most Holy Father in God! And although the madness of your impious parasites has compelled me to appeal from your sentence to a future Council, my heart has never been turned away from your Holiness; and I have never ceased, by prayers and sighs, to pray to God for your prosperity, and for that of your pontificate.§

"I have attacked, it is true, some anti-christian doctrines, and I have inflicted some deep wounds on my adversaries on account of their impiety. I cannot regret this, for I have, in this, Christ for an example. Of what use is salt, if it hath lost its savour? or the sword-blade, if it doth not cut?|| Cursed is he who doth the Lord's work coldly: O most excellent Leo, far from having conceived any evil design against you, I wish you the most precious blessings for all eternity. One thing only have I done. I have defended the word of truth. I am ready to give way to every one, in everything; but as regards that Word, I will not—I cannot abandon it.¶ He who expects otherwise of me, mistakes me.

"It is true that I have attacked the court of Rome; but neither yourself, nor any man upon earth, can deny that the corruption of that court is greater than that of

* Nihil me in personam suam fuisse molitum. (Ibid 484.)

† Quibus omnibus casua mea non displicet. (Ibid 486.)

‡ Aspergetur tamen sale suo. (L. Epp. i. 486.)

§ Den Pabst's Mepton, zwei oder drei Chnrfürsliche Gold und Silbersücke, zu verehren. (Seckend. p. 267.)

¶ Sicut princeps orbinavit. (L. Epp. i. 455.)

|| In invito drapeptore (Melancthon) nescio quanta metuente. (Ibid.)

** Jener von mehr als dreissig, dieser aber kaum mit vier Pferden begleitet. (Seckend. p. 263.)

* Totum pondus in Eccliam versurus. (L. Epp. i. 486.)

† Ut nihil viderem omittere quod in me ad pacem quoquo modo facere possit. (L. Epp. i. 496.)

‡ Seckend. p. 269.

§ Ut non totis viribus, sedulis atque quantum in me fuit gemeubundis precibus apud Deum quesierim. (L. Epp. i. 493.)

|| Quid proderit sal, si non mordet? Quid os gladii, si non cadat? (Ibid. 499.)

¶ Verbum deserere et negare nec possum, nec volo. (L. Epp. i. 499.)

Sodom or Gomorrah, and that there is no hope left of curing its impiety. True, I have been filled with horror, beholding that, in your name, the poor of Christ's flock were deceived. I have opposed this, and will continue to oppose it; not that I dream of effecting anything in this Babylon of confusion, against the opposition of sycophants; but I am debtor to my brethren, that, if possible, some of them may escape these terrible scourges.

"You know that Rome, for many years past, has inundated the world with everything destructive to soul and body. The Church of Rome, formerly pre-eminent for sanctity, is become a den of thieves, a scene of open prostitution, a kingdom of death and hell,* so that Antichrist himself, if he were to appear, could not increase its iniquity. All this is as clear as the light of day.

"And you, O Leo, are all this while as a lamb in the midst of wolves; or as Daniel in the den of lions! Unaided, how can you resist these monsters! Perhaps there may be three or four cardinals uniting virtue with learning. But what are these among so many! You will be taken off by poison, even before you are able to apply a remedy. There is no hope for Rome; the anger of God has gone forth, and will consume her.† She hates reproof, and dreads reform; she refuses to restrain the madness of her impiety, and it may be said of her, as of her mother: 'We would have healed Babylon, but she is not healed: let us forsake her!‡ Men looked to you and your cardinals to apply the cure to all this; but the patient laughs at her physician, and the steed will not answer to the reins.

"Full of affection for you, most excellent Leo, I have ever regretted that, formed as you are for a better age, you have been raised to the pontificate at such a period as this. Rome is not worthy of you, or of any who resemble you; she deserves no other ruler than Satan himself. And truly it is he, rather than yourself, who reigns in that Babylon. Would to God, that, laying aside the glory which your enemies extol so highly, you could exchange it for a simple pastorate, or subsist on your paternal inheritance: for none but Judases are fit for such state. What end, then, dear Leo! is served by you in this court of Rome; unless it be that execrable men should, under cover of your name and power, ruin men's fortunes, destroy souls, multiply crimes, and lord it over the faith, truth, and the whole Church of God? O Leo! Leo! you are the most unfortunate of men, and you sit on the most perilous of all thrones! I tell you the truth, because I wish you well.

"Is it not true, that there is nothing under heaven more corrupt and hateful than the Roman court? It exceeds the very Turks in vice and profligacy. Once as the gate of heaven, it is become the jaws of hell itself! distending and kept open by the wrath of God,§ so that when I behold so many poor creatures throwing themselves into it, I must needs cry aloud in the midst of this tempest, that some may be saved from the frightful abyss.

"This, O Leo, my Father, is the reason why I have inveighed so strongly against a see which dispenses death to its adherents. Far from conspiring against your person, I have felt that I was labouring for your safety, in boldly attacking the prison, or rather the hell, in which you are confined. To do the utmost to destroy the court of Rome, is but to discharge your own

duty. To cover it with shame, is to honour Christ; in a word, to be a Christian, is to be not a Roman.

"However, seeing that I was losing my time in succouring the See of Rome, I sent to her my letter of divorce, saying; Farewell, Rome, 'he that is unjust, let him be unjust still; and he who is filthy, let him be filthy still!*' and then, in silence and retirement, applied myself to the study of the Holy Scriptures. Then it was that Satan stirred up his servant John Eck, a great enemy of Jesus Christ, to challenge me again to descend into the arena. He sought to establish his own primacy, not the primacy of Peter! and, with this purpose, to conquer Luther, and lead him in triumph to Rome: upon him must lay the blame of the defeat which has covered Rome with shame."

Luther here relates what had passed between himself and De Vio, Miltitz, and Eck; he then continues:

"Now then I come to you, most Holy Father, and, prostrate at your feet, entreat you to restrain, if possible, the enemies of peace. But I cannot retract my doctrines. I cannot consent that rules of interpretation should be imposed on Holy Scripture. The word of God, the source whence all liberty flows, must be left free.†

"O Leo! my Father! do not listen to the flatterers who tell you that you are not a mere man, but a demi-God, and that you may rightfully command whatever you please. You are the '*servant of servants*,' and the place where you are seated is, of all places, the most dangerous and the most miserable. Put no faith in those who exalt you, but rather in those who would humble you. I may be bold in presuming to teach so sublime a Majesty, which ought to instruct all men. But I see the dangers which surround you at Rome; I see you driven first one way, then another, on the billows of a raging sea; and charity obliges me to warn you of your danger, and urge you to provide for your safety.

"That I may not appear in your Holiness's presence empty-handed, I present you with a little book which has been dedicated to you, and which will apprise you with what subjects I may occupy myself, in case your flatterers shall permit me. It is but a trifle in appearance, yet its contents are important: for it comprises a summary of the Christian's life. I am poor, and have nothing more to offer you; and indeed is there anything you have need of, save *spiritual* gifts? I commend myself to the remembrance of your Holiness, praying that the Lord Jesus may ever preserve you! Amen!"

The little book which Luther presented, in token of respect, to the Pope, was his discourse of "the liberty of the Christian." The Reformer shows, incontrovertibly, in this treatise, that the Christian, without infringement of the liberty which faith gives him, may submit to every external ordinance, in a spirit of liberty and love. Two truths are the basis of his argument: "A Christian is free, and all things are his. A Christian is a servant, and subject in all things unto all. He is free, and has all things by faith; he is a subject and a servant in love."

He first shows the power of faith in rendering the Christian free: "Faith unites the soul with Christ, as a spouse with her husband," says Luther to the Pope. "Everything which Christ has, becomes the property of the believing soul: everything which the soul has, becomes the property of Christ. Christ possesses all blessings and eternal life; they are thenceforward the property of the soul. The soul has all its iniquities

* Facta est —spelunca latronum licentiosissima, lupanar omnium impudicissimum regnum, peccati, mortis et inferni. (Ibid. 500.)

† Actum est de Romana curia: pervenit in eam ira Dei usque in finem. (L. Epp. i. 500.)

‡ Jeremiah, li. 9.

§ Olim janua cœli, nunc patens quoddam os inferni et tale os quod, urgente ira Dei, obstrui non potest. (L. Epp. i. 501.)

* Revelation of St. John, xxii. 11.

† Leges interpretandi verbi Dei non patior, cum oporteat verbum Dei esse non alligatum, quod libertatem docet. (L. Epp. i. 504.)

and sins: they are thenceforward borne by Christ. A blessed exchange commences: Christ who is both God and man, Christ who has never sinned, and whose holiness is invincible, Christ the Almighty and Eternal, taking to himself by his nuptial ring of *Faith*, all the sins of the believer, those sins are lost and abolished in him; for no sins dwell before his infinite righteousness. Thus by faith the believer's soul is delivered from all sins, and clothed with the eternal righteousness of her bridegroom, Christ. O happy union! the rich, the noble, the holy bridegroom takes in marriage his poor, guilty, and despised spouse,* delivers her from every evil, and enriches her with the most precious blessings.—Christ, a king and a priest, shares this honour and glory with all Christians. The Christian is a king, and consequently possesses all things; he is a priest, and consequently possesses God. And it is *faith*, not works, which brings him all this honour. A Christian is free from all things—above all things—faith giving him richly of all things!"

In the second part of his discourse, Luther presents the other side of the truth. "Although the Christian is thus made free, he voluntarily becomes a servant, that he may act towards his brethren as God has acted towards himself by Jesus Christ." "I will serve," he says, "freely, joyfully, gratuitously, a Father who has thus shed upon me all the abundance of his blessings: I will become all things to my neighbour, as Christ has become all things for me."—"From *Faith*," continues Luther, "flows the *love* of God; from love flows a life of liberty, charity, and joy. O how noble and exalted is the Christian's life! but, alas! none know it, and none preach it. By faith the Christian ascends to God; by love he descends to man; and yet abides ever in God. Such is true liberty, a liberty which as much surpasses every other as the heavens are high above the earth."

This was the work with which Luther accompanied his letter to Leo X.

While the Reformer was thus addressing himself for the last time to the Roman Pontiff, the bull which excommunicated him was already in the hands of the dignitaries of the German Church, and at the doors of Luther's dwelling. The Pope had commissioned two high functionaries of his court, Carracioli and Aleander, to carry it to the Archbishop of Mentz, desiring him to see to its execution. But Eck himself appeared in Saxony as herald and agent in the great effort of the Pontiff. The doctor of Ingolstadt had had better opportunities than any other of knowing the force of Luther's blows; he had seen the danger, and had stretched forth his hand to support the tottering power of Rome. He imagined himself the Atlas destined to bear up on his robust shoulders the old Roman world, which was ready to crumble into ruin. Elated with the success of his journey to Rome, proud of the commission which he had received from the Sovereign Pontiff, and of the bull he bore in his hands, and which contained the condemnation of his unconquerable rival, his present mission was in his eyes a greater triumph than all the victories he had gained in Hungary, in Bavaria, in Lombardy, and Saxony, and from which he had previously derived so much credit. But all this pride was about to be humbled. By entrusting to Eck the publication of the bull, the Pope had committed an error which was destined to destroy its impression. So marked a distinction, granted to a man who did not hold any elevated rank in the Church, offended minds that were susceptible of offence. The Roman Bishops, accustomed to receive the bulls of the Pope direct,

took it amiss that the present bull should be published in their dioceses by this unexpected Nuncio. The nation, which had ridiculed the pretended victor in the conferences at Leipsic, when he fled to Italy, saw, with astonishment and indignation, the same person reappear on this side the Alps, armed with the insignia of a pontifical Nuncio, and with power to crush men whom it held in honour. Luther regarded this sentence, conveyed to him by his implacable adversary, as an act of personal vindictiveness. This condemnation appeared to him, says Pallavicini, as the concealed poniard of a mortal enemy, and not the lawful axe of a Roman licitor.* Accordingly, this writing was considered, not as the bull of the Sovereign Pontiff, but as the bull of Dr. Eck. Thus the force of the blow was broken by the very motives which had provoked it.

The chancellor of Ingolstadt had repaired in haste to Saxony. It was there that he had given battle, it was there that he wished to parade his victory. He succeeded in getting the bull posted up at Meissen, at Merseburg, and at Brandenburg, toward the end of September. But in the first of these towns it was placarded in a place where nobody could read it, and the bishops of these three dioceses were in no haste to publish it. His great protector, Duke George himself, forbade the council of Leipsic to make it public before they had received the order of the bishop of Merseburg, and this order did not arrive till the following year. "These difficulties are but for form's sake," thought Eck at first; for in other respects everything seemed to smile upon him. Duke George sent him a gilt cup and a few ducats; Miltitz himself, who had hastened to Leipsic on hearing that his rival was arrived, invited him to dinner. The two Legates were fond of the luxuries of the table, and Miltitz thought that he could not have a better opportunity of sounding Dr. Eck than over their wine. "When he had drunk pretty freely," says the Pope's chamberlain, "he began to boast above measure; he displayed his bull, and told how he had planned to bring that insolent fellow, Martin, to reason."† But it was not long before the doctor of Ingolstadt had occasion to observe that the wind was turning. A great change had been effected at Leipsic within a year.‡ On St. Michael's day, some students posted, in ten different places, placards wherein the new Nuncio was keenly attacked. Taking the alarm, he sought refuge in the convent of St. Paul, where Tetzel had already found an asylum, refused all visits, and obtained from the prior a promise that his juvenile opponents should be called to account. But poor Eck gained little by this. The students composed a ballad upon him, and sung it in the streets. Eck overheard it from his seclusion. At this all his courage vanished, and the formidable champion trembled in every limb. Threatening letters poured in upon him. A hundred and fifty students arrived from Wittenberg, loudly exclaiming against the Papal envoy. The poor Nuncio could hold out no longer.

"I do not wish him to be killed,"§ said Luther, "but I hope his designs will be frustrated." Eck quitted his retreat by night, retired clandestinely from Leipsic, and sought to conceal himself at Coburg. Miltitz, who relates the circumstance, seemed to triumph in it even more than the Reformer. But his triumph did not last long. The chamberlain's plans of

* Non tanquam a securi legitimi licitoris, sed telo infensissimi hostis. (Pallavicini, i. 74.)

† Nachdem (writes Miltitz) er nun tapfer getrunken hatte, fieng er gleich an trefflich von seiner Ordre zu prahlen, &c. (Seckend. p. 238.)

‡ Longe aliam faciem et mentem Lipsiæ eum invenire quam sperasset. (L. Epp. i. 492.)

§ Nollem eum occidi, quanquam optem ejus consilia irrita fieri. (L. Epp. i. 492.)

* Ist nun das nicht eine fröhliche Wirthschaft, da der reiche, edle, fromme Bräutigam Christus, das arme, verachtete, böse Huhrelein zur Ehe nimmt. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 385.)

conciliation all failed; and his end was deplorable, having, while in a state of intoxication, fallen into the Rhine, at Mentz.

By degrees Eck resumed courage. He repaired to Erfurth, where the theologians had shown more than one mark of their jealousy of the Wittenberg doctor. He required that this bull should be published in that city; but the students seized the copies, tore them in pieces, and threw them into the river, saying, "Since it is a bubble, let us see it float!"* "Now," said Luther, on hearing of this, "the paper of the pope is truly a bubble, (*bulle*.)" Eck did not dare to show himself at Wittenberg; he sent the bull to the prior, menacing him, if it were not complied with, with the ruin of the university. He wrote at the same time to Duke John, brother and colleague of Frederic. "Do not take my proceeding amiss," said he, "for I am contending for the faith, and my task costs me much care and labour, as well as money."† The prior declared that, not having received a letter from the pope, accompanying the bull, he must object to publish it, and referred the matter to the opinion of the lawyers. Such was the reception which the condemnation of the Reformer met with from the learned world.

While the bull was producing this violent agitation in the minds of the Germans, a solemn voice was raised in another country of Europe. One who discerned the extensive schism the pope's bull would cause in the church, stood forth to utter a word of warning, and to defend the Reformer. This was the same Swiss priest whom we have already mentioned, Ulric Zwingle, who, without any communication or previous friendship with Luther, put forth a tract, replete with discretion and dignity, and the earliest of his numerous writings.‡ A fraternal affection seemed to attract him toward the Doctor of Wittenberg. "The piety of the pontiff," he said, "requires of him that he should joyfully sacrifice his dearest interests to the glory of Christ, his king, and to the general peace of the church. Nothing is more derogatory to his true dignity, than the having recourse only to rewards and terrors for its defence. The writings of Luther had not even been read, before he was decried among the people as a heretic, a schismatic, and even as anti-Christ himself. None gave him warning, no one refuted him. He requested a discussion, and it was thought sufficient to condemn him. The bull that has been issued against him, is disapproved even by those who respect the pope's authority; for they discern, in every part of it, traces of the impotent hatred of a few monks, and not the mildness of a pontiff, who should be the vicar of a Saviour full of charity. It is universally acknowledged, that the current teaching of the Gospel of Christ has greatly degenerated, and that a visible and signal restoration of laws and public morals is requisite.§ Consult all men of learning and virtue, and it will be found, that the more perfect their sincerity and their attachment to the truths of the Gospel, the less are they stumbled by the books of Luther. There is no one who does not confess that these books have made him a better man,|| although, perhaps, there may be some parts not to be approved. Let men of pure

doctrine, and of acknowledged probity, be selected; let three princes, above all suspicion, the emperor Charles, the King of England, and the King of Hungary, appoint arbitrators; and let the arbitrators read the writings of Luther; let him be heard in person, and let whatever they shall determine be ratified. "Νικησαίτω ὁ τοῦ Χριστοῦ παδοῦκαὶ ἀλήθεια!"**

This suggestion, proceeding from Switzerland, was not attended to. It was necessary that the great divorce should take place; it was needful that Christendom should be rent; the remedy for the evils that oppressed it was to be discovered in its very wounds.

And, indeed, what importance could be attached to this resistance, on the part of a few students, priors, and priests? If the strong arm of Charles V. should unite with the power of the pope, will they not, together, suffice to crush all these scholars and grammarians? Will any be able to withstand the combined power of the Pontiff of Christendom and of the Emperor of the West? The blow is struck, Luther is excommunicated; the Gospel seems lost! At this awful crisis, the Reformer does not disguise from himself the greatness of the danger in which he is placed. He looks for support from above; and prepares to receive, as from the hand of the Lord himself, the blow which seems about to crush him. The thoughts of his soul were gathered before the throne of God. "What is about to happen," said he, "I know not, nor do I care to know, assured as I am that He who sits on the throne of heaven has, from all eternity, foreseen the beginning, the progress, and the end of this affair. Let the blow light where it may, I am without fear. Not so much as a leaf falls without the will of our Father. How much rather will he care for us? It is a light thing to die for the Word, since the Word which was made flesh hath himself died. If we die with him, we shall live with him; and, passing through that which he has passed through before us, we shall be where he is, and dwell with him for ever."† At times, however, Luther was unable to repress his contempt for the devices of his enemies, and we find in him a recurrence of that mixture of sublimity and irony which characterised his writings. "I know nothing of Eck's movements," said he, "except that he has arrived with a long beard, a long bull, and a long purse; but I laugh at his bull."‡

It was on the third of October that he was made acquainted with the papal rescript. "At last, then, this Roman bull has come to hand," said he, "I despise it, and resist it as impious, false, and in every way worthy of Eck. It is Christ himself who is therein condemned. No reasons are given in it. I am cited to appear, not that I may be heard, but that I may recant. I will treat it as a forgery, although I believe it to be genuine. Oh! that Charles the Fifth would act as a man! Oh! that for the love of Christ he would humble these demons.§ I glory in the prospect of suffering for the best of causes. Already I feel in my heart more liberty; for I now know that the pope is anti-Christ, and that his chair is that of Satan himself."

It was not merely in Saxony that the thunders of Rome had awakened apprehension. A private family in Suabia, which had been neutral in the contest, found its peace suddenly disturbed. Bilbald Pirckheimer, of Nuremberg, one of the most distinguished men of his age, who had lost his beloved wife, Crescentia, soon after their union, was joined in the closest bonds

* A studiosis discripta et in aquam projecta, dicentibus: Bulla est, in aquam natet! (Ibid. 520.)

† Mit viel Muhe, Arbeit, und Kosten. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 173.)

‡ Consilium ejusdem ex animo cupientis esse consultum et pontificis dignitati, et Christianæ religionis tranquillitati. (Zwinglii Opera, curant. Schuleri et Schulthessio, iii. 1—6.)

§ Multum degenerasse ab illa sincera Christi evangelica doctrina, adeo ut nemo non fateatur opas esse publici aliqua et insigni legum ac morum institutione. (Ibid. 3.)

|| Nemo non fatetur se ex illius libris factum esse meliorem. (Ibid. 4.)

* "May the doctrine and truth of Christ gain the victory!"

† Parum est nos provero mori, cum ipsum incarnatum pro nobis prius mortuum sit. (Ep. 1. 490.)

‡ Venisse eum barbatum, bullatum, nummatum—Ridebo et ego bullam sive ampullam. (Ibid. 488.)

§ Utinam Carolus vir esset, et pro Christo hos Satanas aggrederetur. (Ibid. 494.)

of affection with his two young sisters, Charitas, Abbess of St. Claire, and Clara, a nun in the same convent. These two young ladies served God in solitude, and divided their time between study, attendance on the poor, and meditation on eternity. Bilibald, engaged in the business of the state, sought relaxation from public duties, in the correspondence which he kept up with them. They were learned, read Latin, and studied the fathers of the church; but nothing was so dear to them as the holy Scriptures. They had never had any other instructor than their brother. The letters of Charitas are distinguished by delicacy and amiable feelings. Full of tender affection for Bilibald, she dreaded the least danger that approached him. Pirkheimer, to re-assure this timid spirit, composed a dialogue, between Charitas and Veritas, (Charity and Truth,) in which Veritas endeavours to strengthen Charitas.* Nothing can be more touching, or more fitted to console an affectionate and anxious heart.

What must have been the dismay of Charitas, when a rumour was spread that the name of Bilibald was posted up immediately under the Pope's bull in conjunction with the name of Luther. In fact, Eck, urged on by blind fury, had associated with Luther six of the most distinguished persons in Germany; namely, Carlstadt, Feldkirchen, and Egranus, who cared very little for his proceedings, and Adelman, Pirkheimer, and his friend Spengler, whose position as public functionaries rendered them peculiarly sensitive to reproach. The agitation was great in the convent of St. Claire. How could the disgrace of Bilibald be endured? Nothing is more painful to relatives than such trials. Pirkheimer and Spengler wrote to the Pope, affirming that they adhered to the doctrines of Luther only so far as they were in conformity with the Christian faith. Revenge and anger had been evil counsellors to Eck. The reputation of Bilibald and his friends brought the bull against them into discredit; and their character and their numerous connections increased the general irritation.

Luther at first pretended to doubt the authenticity of the bull. "I find," said he, in his first writing he put forth, "that Eck has brought from Rome another bull, which is so like himself, that it might be named *Doctor Eck*—so full is it of falsehood and error. He gives out that it is the Pope's doing; whereas it is a mere piece of deception." Having alleged reasons for his doubts, Luther ends by saying: "I require to see with my own eyes the seal, and strings, the very words and signature of the bull, in a word, every thing belonging to it; otherwise I will not care one straw for these outcries."†

But no one, not even Luther himself, doubted that the bull was the Pope's. Germany waited to see what the Reformer would do. Would he stand firm? All eyes were turned toward Wittenberg. Luther did not keep them long in suspense. He answered by a tremendous discharge of artillery, publishing, on the 4th of November, 1520, his work "Against the Bull of anti-Christ."

"What numberless errors and frauds," said he, "have crept in among the poor deluded people under cover of the Church, and the pretended infallibility of the Pope! how many souls have thus been lost! how much blood shed! how many murders committed! how many kingdoms laid waste!"

"I can discern all the difference," said he, ironically, "between skill and malice, and I care very little for malice so unskillful. To burn books is an act so easy that even children may perform it; how much more

then the Holy Father and his illustrious doctors.* One would have looked for some more cunning move. Besides, for ought I care, let them destroy my works! I desire nothing better; for all I wanted was to lead Christians to the Bible, that they might afterward throw away my writings.† Great God, if we had but a right understanding of the Holy Scriptures, what need would there be of my book! By God's grace, I am free, and bulls can neither soothe nor intimidate me. My strength and my consolation are in a place where neither men nor devils can ever reach them."

The tenth proposition of Luther, condemned by the Pope, was couched in these terms: "A man's sins are not pardoned, unless he believes that they are pardoned when the priest pronounces absolution." The Pope, by condemning this proposition, denied that faith was necessary in the sacrament. "They pretend," exclaims Luther, "that we are not to believe that our sins are pardoned, when we are absolved by the priest. What then are we to do? Hear now, O! Christians, this great news from Rome. Condemnation is pronounced against that article of which we profess when we say 'I believe in the Holy Ghost, the Christian Church, and the remission of sins.' If I knew that the Pope had really issued this bull at Rome," (which he did not doubt,) "and that it had not been forged by that arch-liar, Eck, I would proclaim to all Christians, that they ought to hold the Pope as the very anti-Christ the Scripture speaks of. And if he would not cease from thus publicly proscribing the faith of the Church, then . . . let the temporal sword itself be opposed to him, rather than to the Turk! . . . For the Turk leaves us free to believe, but the Pope forbids it!"

Whilst Luther was speaking with so much energy, new dangers were gathering. The plan of his enemies was to procure his expulsion from Wittenberg. If Luther could be removed from Wittenberg, Luther and Wittenberg would both be ruined. One measure would rid Rome of her heretic doctor, and of the heretical university. Duke George, the bishop of Merseburg, and the Leipsic theologians were clandestinely labouring for this result.‡ Luther, on hearing of it, remarked, "I leave the matter in God's hands."§ These intrigues were not altogether without effect. Adrian, professor of Hebrew at Wittenberg, suddenly turned against the doctor. It required considerable firmness of faith to bear up against the weight of the Pope's bull. There are some who will go only a certain length with truth. Such was Adrian. Awed by the Pope's sentence, he quitted Wittenberg, and repaired to Leipsic, to Dr. Eck.

The bull was beginning to take effect. The word of the Pontiff of Christendom still carried force. Fire and sword had long since taught submission. The stake was still fixed, and the faggots piled at his bidding. Everything announced that an awful catastrophe was about to put an end to the audacious rebellion of the Augustine monk. The Pope's nuncios had made urgent representations to the young emperor: Charles declared that he would protect the ancient religion;|| and in some of his hereditary states scaffolds were raised for the purpose of committing the writings of the heretic to the flames. Ecclesiastical dignitaries and counsellors of state attended at these autos-da-fé. Those flames will strike terror in all quarters, said the Roman courtiers. And they did, indeed, carry fear

* So ist Bucher verbrennen so leicht, dass es auch Kinder können, schweig denn der heilige Vater Papst . . . (Ibid. 324.)

† In Biblien zu führen, dass man derselben Verstand-erlangte, und denn meine Büchlein verschwinden liess. (Ibid.)

‡ Ut Wittenberga pellere. (L. Epp. i. 519.)

§ Id quod in manu Dei refero. (Ibid. 520.)

|| A ministris pontificis mature preoccupatus, declaravit se velle veterem fidem tutari. (Pallavicini, i. 80.)

* Pirkheimerei Opp. Francof.

† Oder nicht em Haarbreit geben. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 328.)

to many timid and superstitious minds; but even in the Emperor's hereditary states, the only part of his dominions where the clergy ventured to carry the bull into execution, the people, and sometimes the higher classes, often treated these pontifical demonstrations with ridicule or indignation. "Luther," said the doctors of Louvain, in an audience with Margaret, who at that time governed the Low Countries, "Luther is undermining the Christian faith." "Who is this Luther?" asked the princess. "An ignorant monk." "Well," replied she, "do you, who are learned, and so many, write against him. The world will surely believe a company of learned men rather than a single monk of no learning." The doctors of Louvain preferred an easier method. They raised at some expense a vast pile of wood. The multitude flocked to the place. Students and citizens were seen making their way through the crowd in great haste, carrying under their arms huge volumes which they threw into the flames. Their apparent zeal edified the monks and doctors; but the stratagem was soon after discovered: it was the *Sermones discipuli, Tartaret*, and other scholastic and popish books, which had been thrown into the fire, instead of the writings of Luther.*

The Count of Nassau, viceroy of Holland, in reply to the solicitations of the Dominicans, to be permitted to burn the obnoxious books, answered: "Go preach the Gospel as purely as Luther, and you will have no reason to complain of any one." Conversation turning on the Reformer at a banquet, at which the greatest princes of the empire were present, the lord of Ravenstein said aloud: "After the lapse of four whole centuries, a single Christian man has stood forth at last, and him the pope would put to death."†

Luther, conscious of the strength of his cause, preserved his composure amid all the tumult excited by the bull.‡ "Were it not for your exhortations," said he to Spalatin, "I should hold my peace; assured, as I am, that it is by the wisdom and the power of God that the work must be accomplished."§ Here was the man of a timid spirit urging openness of speech, while the man of native resolution was disposed to remain silent. The reason was, that Luther discerned the operation of a power whose agency was unnoticed by his friend. "Be of good cheer," continued the Reformer, "it was Christ that began all this—and he will bring it to its appointed issue—even though my lot be banishment and death. Jesus Christ is here present; and He that is in us, is mightier than he that is in the world."||

But duty now requires him to speak, that the truth may be made manifest. Rome has assailed him; it shall be seen whether he shrinks from her blows. The pope has placed him under the ban of the Church; he will place the pope under the ban of Christianity. The sentence of the pontiff has hitherto been absolute: he will now oppose sentence to sentence, and the world shall perceive which is the word of power. "For the peace of my own conscience," said he, "I am resolved that men shall no longer remain ignorant of the danger they are in;"¶ and forthwith he took steps to renew his appeal to a general Council. To appeal from the pope to a council was in itself a crime. It was, therefore, by a fresh violation of the pontifical authority, that Luther undertook to exonerate himself from the offences already laid to his charge.

On the 17th of November, a notary and five witnesses, of whom Cruciger was one, assembled at ten o'clock in the morning, in one of the halls of the Augustine convent, in which Luther resided. There—the public functionary, Sarcitor von Eisleben, being in readiness to take a minute of his protest—the Reformer, in a solemn tone of voice, spoke as follows, in the presence of the witnesses:

"Forasmuch as a general Council of the Christian Church is superior to the pope, especially in matters of faith;

"Forasmuch as the authority of the pope is not superior, but inferior, to Scripture, and he has no right to slay Christ's sheep, or cast them into the jaws of the wolf;

"I Martin Luther, an Augustine, and Doctor of the Holy Scriptures at Wittenberg, on my own behalf, and on behalf of such as stand, or shall stand, on my side, do, by this instrument, appeal from his Holiness, Pope Leo, to a general Christian Council, hereafter to be held.

"I appeal from the aforesaid Pope Leo: first, as an unjust, hasty, and oppressive judge, who condemns me without having given me a hearing, and without declaring the grounds of his judgment:—secondly, as a heretic and apostate, misguided, hardened, and condemned by Holy Writ, who requires me to deny the necessity of Christian faith in the use of the sacraments:—thirdly, as an enemy, an Anti-Christ, an adversary of the Scriptures, and an usurper of their authority,† who presumes to set up his own decrees against all the declarations of the word of God:—fourthly, as a contemner, a calumniator, a blasphemer, of the Holy Christian Church, and of every free Council, who asserts that a Council is nothing in itself.

"Wherefore, I most humbly beseech the most serene, illustrious, excellent, wise, and worthy lords, Charles, the Roman Emperor, the electors, princes, counts, barons, knights, gentlemen, cities, and municipalities of the whole German nation, to adhere to this my protest, and unite with me to resist the Anti-Christian proceedings of the pope—for God's glory, in defence of the Church and of the Christian faith, and to uphold the free Councils of Christendom; and Christ, our Saviour, will richly reward them by his everlasting grace. But if there be any who set my entreaties at naught, preferring obedience, to the pope, an impious man—rather than to obey God,‡ I do hereby disavow all responsibility on their account, having given a faithful warning to their consciences; and I leave them to the final judgment of God, together with the pope and all his adherents."

Such was Luther's instrument of divorce; such was his answer to the Pontiff's bull. It was a deeply momentous declaration. The charges which he brought against the pope were of the gravest character, nor were they lightly preferred. The protest was circulated throughout the whole of Germany, and found its way into most of the courts of Christendom.

Luther, however, though his recent act might have seemed the very extremity of daring, had another and a still bolder measure in contemplation. He was determined that in nothing would he be behind Rome. The monk of Wittenberg shall do all that the Sovereign Pontiff ventures to do. Sentence against sentence he has already pronounced; he will now kindle

* Seckend. p. 289.

† Es ist in vierhundert Jahren ein christlicher mann aufgestanden, den weil der Pabst todt haben. (Seckend. p. 288.)

‡ In bullosis illis tumultibus. (L. Epp. i. 519.)

§ Rem totam Deo committerem. (Ibid. 521.)

¶ Christus ist cepit, ista perficiet, etiam, sive extincto, sive fugato. (Ibid. 526.)

‡ Ut meam conscientiam redimam. L. Epp. i. 522.

* Ab erroneo, indurato, per Scripturas sanctas damnato, hæretico, et apostato. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 50.) See also, L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 332. The German copy has a few paragraphs which are not in the Latin.

† Oppressore totius Sacre Scripturæ. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 50.) See also, L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 332.

‡ Et pape, impio homini, plus quam Deo obediant. L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 332.

pile for pile. The descendant of the Medici, and the miner's son, have encountered each other in the lists breast to breast—and while that conflict continues, with which the world is destined to resound, not a blow shall be struck by the one combatant that shall not be returned by the other. On the 10th of December, a placard was affixed to the walls of the university of Wittemberg. It contained an invitation to the professors and students to repair, at the hour of nine in the morning, to the east gate, beside the Holy Cross. A great number of doctors and youths assembled, and Luther, putting himself at their head, led the procession to the appointed spot. How many piles had Rome kindled during the ages of her domination: Luther was now to make a better application of the great Romish principle. It was only of some musty writings that he sought to be rid, and fire, he thought, could never be employed to better purpose. A scaffold had already been erected. One of the oldest among the Masters of Arts soon set fire to it. As the flames arose, Luther drew nigh, and cast into the midst of them the Canon Law, the Decretals, the Clementines, the Extravagants of the Popes, and a portion of the works of Eck and of Emser. When these books had been reduced to ashes, Luther took the Pop's bull in his hand, held it up, and said aloud: "Since thou hast afflicted the Lord's Holy One, may fire unquenchable afflict and consume thee!" and thereupon he threw it into the flames. He then, with much composure, bent his step toward the city, and the crowd of doctors, professors, and students, with loud expressions of applause, returned to Wittemberg in his train. "The Decretals," said Luther, "are like a body whose face is as fair as a virgin's; but its limbs are forceful as those of the lion, and its tail is that of the wily serpent. In all the papal laws, there is not a single word to teach us what Jesus Christ truly is."—"My enemies," he said again, "by burning my books, may have disparaged the truth in the minds of the common people, and occasioned the loss of souls; for that reason, I have burned their books in my turn. This is a mighty struggle but just begun. Hitherto I have been only jesting with the pope. I entered upon this work in the name of God—He will bring it to a close without my aid, by his own power. If they dare to burn my books—of which, it is no vain boast to say, that they contain more of the Gospel than all the pope's books put together—I may, with far better reason, burn theirs, which are wholly worthless."

Had Luther commenced the Reformation by an act like this, the consequences might have been deplorable. Fanaticism might have been awakened by it, and the Church forced into a career of disorder and violence. But in the first stages of his task, the Reformer had been satisfied with calmly expounding the doctrines of Scripture. The foundations of the edifice had been cautiously and securely laid. In the present posture of affairs, a vigorous blow, such as he had just struck, might not merely be productive of no ill effect; it might probably hasten the moment when Christianity should rejoice over the downfall of the power, by which the Christian world had so long been held in thralldom.

Luther, by this act, distinctly announced his separation from the pope and the Papal Church. After his letter to Leo, such an announcement might, in his estimation, be necessary. He now accepted the excommunication which Rome had pronounced. He proclaimed in the face of Christendom that, between him and the pope, there was war even to the death. Like the Roman who burned the vessels that had conveyed him to the enemy's shore, he left himself no resource, but to advance and offer battle.

* L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1493—1495

We have seen how he re-entered Wittemberg. On the following morning, the hall of the academy was more than usually crowded. The minds of those that composed the assembly had been excited, a deep solemnity prevailed, the address which the doctor was to deliver was the subject of earnest expectation. He proceeded with a portion of his commentary upon the Psalms, which he had begun in the month of March, of the preceding year. Having finished his lecture, he paused for a few moments, and then he said with great vivacity: "Be on your guard against the laws and statutes of the pope. I have burned the Decretals, but that is mere child's play. It is time, and more than time, that the Pope himself were burned—I mean," he immediately subjoined—the papal chair, with all its false doctrines, and all its abominations." Assuming then a more solemn tone: "If you do not, with your whole hearts, resist the impious usurpation of the pope, you cannot be saved. Whosoever takes pleasure in the popish doctrine and worship will be lost to all eternity in the world to come."*

"True," added he, "if we reject that false creed, we must expect no less than to encounter every kind of danger—even to the loss of life. But far better it is, to expose ourselves to all the perils that this present world can assail us with, than to hold our peace! So long as my life shall last, I, for my part, will never cease to warn my brethren of the wound and plague of Babylon, lest any of those who now walk with us should slide back, like the rest, into the pit of hell."

It is difficult to conceive the effect which was produced upon the auditory by this discourse, with the energy of which we ourselves cannot fail to be struck. "Not a man among us," adds the candid student, to whom we are indebted for its preservation, "unless he be a senseless block (as all the Papists are," he remarks in a parenthesis)—"not a man among us doubts that this is the very truth. It is evident to all the faithful, that Doctor Luther is an angel of the living God,† commissioned to lead back the sheep of Christ's flock to the wholesome pastures from which we have wandered."

This discourse, and the act which preceded it, mark an important epoch in the Reformation. In his heart, Luther had been alienated from the pope by the controversy at Leipsic. But, at the moment when he burned the bull, he declared in the most explicit manner his separation from the Bishop of Rome, and the Roman Church, and his adherence to the Church universal, as founded by the apostles of Jesus Christ. At the east gate of Wittemberg, he kindled a flame which three hundred years have not yet extinguished.

"The pope," said he, "has three crowns; I will show you why: the first is against God, for he abrogates religion; the second against the emperor, for he abrogates the secular power; the third against society at large, for he abrogates marriage."‡ When he was accused of too much violence in his opposition to popery; "Oh!" he replied, "were it mine to choose, my testimony against it should be no other than the voice of thunder, and every word should fall like the fiery bolt."§

This undaunted spirit was rapidly communicated to Luther's friends and fellow-countrymen. The nation rallied round him. Melancthon, about this time, addressed to the states of the empire a discourse, which, for elegance of style and strength of reasoning, is worthy of its amiable author. It was an answer to a book

* Muss ewig in jenem Leben verloren seyn. L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 333.

† Lutherum esse Dei vivens angelum qui palabundas Christi oves pascit. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 123.)

‡ L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1313.

§ Und ein jeglich Wort eine Donneraxt ware. (Ibid. 1360.)

attributed to Emser, but published under the name of the Roman theologian, Rhadinus. Never had Luther himself spoken with greater energy; and yet, in Melancthon's composition, there is a grace superadded, which wins its way to the heart.

After proving, by texts quoted from Scripture, that the pope is not superior to other bishops, "What hinders us," he asks of the states, "from depriving the pope of the authority with which we have invested him?" It is a matter of small concern to Luther that our wealth, the treasure of Europe, is sent to Rome. What grieves him, and grieves us, also, is, that the papal laws and pontifical dominion, entail upon the souls of men, not jeoparding merely, but absolute ruin. Every man may judge for himself, whether or not it behoves him to dedicate his money to the maintenance of Romish luxury; but to form a judgment on matters of religion and the holy mysteries, is beyond the capacity of the multitude. On this ground does Luther appeal to your faith, and to your zeal; and every pious man, if not openly, at least, by secret groans and sighs, joins in the same invocation. Recollect that you are Christians, princes of a Christian nation, and hasten to rescue the piteous wreck of Christianity from the tyrannous hand of anti-Christ. They who would persuade you that you have no jurisdiction over these priests, are deceiving you grossly. Let the same spirit that animated Jehu against the priests of Baal, urge you by that memorable example, to crush the Romish superstition—a superstition more detestable, by far, than the idolatry of Baal itself.† Such was the language in which the mild Melancthon addressed the princes of Germany.

Here and there a cry of alarm was raised among the friends of the Reformation. Men of feeble character, ever inclined to concession and compromise, and Staupitz, the foremost of this class, gave utterance to sentiments of deep concern. "All that has been done hitherto," said Luther to him, "has been mere play. Remember what yourself said—if God were the author of all this, it never could have taken place. The tumult is continually growing more and more tumultuous; nor do I think that it will ever be appeased till the last day."‡ This was Luther's method of encouraging the timorous. Three centuries have passed away, and the tumult is not appeased yet.

"The papacy," continued he, "has ceased to be what it was yesterday, and the day before. Excommunicate me, and burn my writings, it may—ay, and put me to death!—but that which is now going forward it can never stop. We stand on the very threshold of some wonderful dispensation.§ When I burned the bull, it was with inward fear and trembling; but I look back upon that act with more pleasure than upon any passage of my life."||

Here we cannot but pause, delighted to trace the image of the future, so vividly impressed on the mighty mind of the Reformer. "Oh, my father," says he to Staupitz, in the conclusion of his letter, "pray for the Word of God, and for me! I am hurried along by these billows, and well-nigh overwhelmed."¶

On every side, then, the battle is now begun. The combatants have flung away their scabbards. The Word of God, has reclaimed its rightful authority, and

* Quid obstat quominus papæ quad dedimus jus adimanus? (Corp. Reform. i. 337.)

† Ut extinguiat illam multo tetriorem Baalis idololatriâ Romanam superstitionem. (Corp. Ref. i. 337.)

‡ Tumultus egregie tumultuatur, ut nisi extremo die sedari mihi posse non videatur. (L. Epp. i. 541.)

§ Omnino aliquid portentæ præfioribus est. (L. Epp. i. 543.) What a presentiment of the future!

|| . . . primum trepidus et orans, sed nunc lætior quam ullo totius vite meo factus. (Ibid.)

¶ Ego fluctibus his rapior et volvor. (Ibid.)

the sentence of deposition has gone forth against him who has usurped the place of God. The agitation pervades every class of the community. In no age has there been a lack of selfish men, who would gladly allow mankind to slumber on, in error and corruption; but those whose hearts are enlarged, however timid by natural constitution, think far differently. "We are well aware," says the mild and moderate Melancthon, "that statesmen are averse from all innovation; and it must be confessed that, in this scene of mournful confusion, which we call human life, controversies, however just the grounds from which they spring, are always chargeable with some measure of evil. Nevertheless, it is necessary that God's word and his commandments should have preference in the church, over every earthly interest.* The everlasting anger of God is denounced against such as endeavour to suppress the truth. It was Luther's duty, therefore—a Christian duty, from which he could in no way escape—more especially as he held the office of a teacher in the church—to reprove those pernicious errors, which unprincipled men were so shamefully engaged in diffusing. If these disputes engender many evils, as, to my great grief," he adds, "I perceive that they do, the fault rests with those who first propagated error, and with those who now, with diabolical malignity, attempt to uphold it."

But this was not the opinion entertained by all. Luther was overwhelmed with reproaches; the storm burst upon him from every quarter. "He stands alone!" said some; "He teaches new doctrines!" said others.

"Who knows," replied Luther, deeply conscious of the vocation he had received from on high, "who knows whether God has not called and chosen me for this very purpose; † and whether they who despise me, have not reason to fear lest they be found despisers of God himself? Moses was alone, when the Israelites were led out of Egypt; Elijah was alone, in the time of King Ahab; Ezekiel was alone, in Babylon. God has never chosen, for his prophet, either the High-priest or any other person of exalted rank: He has generally chosen men of a mean and low condition—in the instance of Amos, even a simple shepherd. The saints in every age have been called upon to rebuke the great of this world—kings and princes—priests and scholars—and to fulfil their office at the peril of their lives. Has it not been thus under the New Testament dispensation? Ambrose, in his time, stood alone; after him, Jerome was alone; later still, Augustine was alone. I say not that I am a prophet; ‡ but I say that they have the more reason to fear, because I am alone, and they are many. Of this I am sure, that the Word of God is with me, and that it is not with them."

"It is asserted, also," continues he, "that I am bringing forward novelties, and that it is impossible to believe that all other teachers, for so long a time, have been in error.

"No—these are not novelties that I preach! but I affirm that the doctrines of Christianity have been lost sight of by those whose special duty it was to preserve them—by the learned—by the bishops. I doubt not, indeed, that the truth has still found an abode in some few hearts, were it only with infants in the cradle.§ Poor husbandmen, and simple children, in these days, understand more of Jesus Christ, than the pope, the bishops, and the doctors.

* Sed tamen in Ecclesiâ necesse est anteferi mandatum Dei omnibus rebus humanis. (Melanct. vit. Lutheri.)

† Wer weiss ob mich Gott dazu berufen und erwählt hat. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 338.)

‡ Ich sage nicht das ich ein Prophet sey. (Ibid.)

§ Und sollten's eitel Kinder in der Wiege seyn. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 339.)

I am accused of rejecting the holy doctors of the church. I reject them not; but since those doctors all labour to prove what they write by the holy Scriptures, it follows that the Scriptures must be clearer and more conclusive than their writings. Who would ever think of proving what is in itself obscure, by the help of something obscurer still? Necessity, therefore, obliges us to have recourse to the Bible, as all the doctors have done; and to test their writings by it—for the Bible is our only rule and standard.

“But, it is further objected, that men high in station pursue me with their censures. What then!—do not the Scriptures clearly show, that they who persecute are generally in the wrong, and they who suffer persecution in the right—that the majority has always been on the side of falsehood, and the minority only on the side of truth? It is the fate of truth to occasion an outcry.”*

Luther then passes under review the various propositions which had been condemned by the bull, as heretical; and demonstrates their truth by arguments drawn from holy Scripture. With how much force, in particular, does he maintain the doctrine of grace!

“What!” says he, “shall we say, that nature antecedently to, and unassisted by, grace, can hate sin—flee from sin, and repent of it; while yet, after grace vouchsafed, that same nature loves sin, seeks it, yearns after it, and never ceases to strive against grace, and oppose it—this being the burthen under which the saints are continually groaning. It is as though you were to tell me that some sturdy tree, which my utmost efforts could never bend, would bend of its own accord, were it left alone; or that some torrent, which dykes and dams were ineffectual to restrain, would check its own course if all these impediments were removed. NO! never shall we attain to repentance by considering sin or its consequences, but only by fixing our contemplation on the wounded Saviour, and on the love of which his wounds are the token.† The knowledge of sin must proceed from repentance—not repentance from the knowledge of sin. That knowledge is the fruit—repentance the tree. In our country, the fruit grows on the tree, but in the domain of his Holiness, it would seem, that the tree grows on the fruit!”

The intrepid teacher, though protesting, yet retracts some of his propositions. Notwithstanding all his protestations, Luther *retracts*. But our surprise will cease, when we learn the manner of his doing this. After citing the four propositions, regarding indulgences, which had been condemned by the bull,‡ he simply adds:

“In deference to the holy and learned bull, I retract all that I ever advanced on the subject of indulgences. If my books deserved to be burned, it was because they contained certain concessions to the pope, in respect to that doctrine of indulgences; on which account I myself now condemn them to the flames.”

Then follows another retraction, in respect to John Huss:

“I now say, not that *some* of the articles, but that *all* the articles propounded by John Huss, are altogether orthodox. The pope, in condemning Huss, has condemned the Gospel. I have gone five times as far as he, and yet, I greatly fear, I have not gone far enough. Huss only says, that a wicked pope is not a member of the Christian church; I, on the other hand, were I now to see St. Peter himself seated in the Roman chair, would deny that he was pope by God’s appointment.”

* Wahrheit hat allezeit rumört. (Ibid. 340.)

† Man soll zuvor Christum in seine Wunden sehen, und aus denselben seine Liebe gegen uns. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 351.)

‡ The 19th to the 22d. (Ibid.)

The powerful language of the Reformer sunk deep into men’s minds, and prepared them for enfranchisement. Every word was a living spark helping to spread the flame through the whole nation. But an important question was yet to be decided. Would the prince, whose territory Luther inhabited, concur in the execution of the bull, or would he oppose it? This question was not easily answered. The elector, as well as the other princes of the empire, was then at Aix-la-Chapelle. It was there that the crown of Charlemagne was placed on the head of the youngest, and yet the most powerful monarch of Christendom. The pomp and magnificence displayed on that occasion, surpassed all previous example. After the ceremony, Charles the Fifth, attended by Frederic and the other princes, by the ministers and ambassadors, immediately repaired to Cologne. Aix-la-Chapelle, which had been visited by the plague, seemed to discharge its entire population into that ancient city of the Rhine.

Among the crowd of strangers, who were then received within its walls, were the pope’s two nuncios, Marino Carracioli, and Hieronymus Aleander. Carracioli, who had been employed on a previous embassy, to Maximilian, was authorized to congratulate the new emperor, and to treat with him on affairs of state. But Rome had perceived that, in order to bring her measures for the extinction of the Reformation to a successful issue, she must send to Germany a nuncio specially charged with that service, and fitted, by a peculiar cast of mind, and by a union of dexterity with activity, for its accomplishment. With this view Aleander had been selected.* This individual, who at a later period was invested with the Cardinal’s purple, was descended, it would appear, from a family of considerable antiquity, and not, as some have reported, from a Jewish stock. The licentious Borgia sent for him to Rome, to make him secretary to that son, Cæsar, at whose very name all Rome trembled.† “The master and the servant were well matched,” says a contemporary writer, intimating this similarity of character between Aleander and Alexander the Sixth. The verdict seems too severe. After the death of Borgia, Aleander gave himself up to study with renewed ardour. His proficiency in Greek, Hebrew, Chaldee, and Arabic, gained him the credit of being the most learned man of his age. Whatsoever pursuit he engaged in, he devoted himself to it with his whole heart. The zeal with which he applied himself to the acquisition of languages, was no less intense than that which he afterward displayed in persecuting the Reformation. His services were next engaged by Leo the Tenth. Protestant historians speak of his Epicurean morals: Romish historians celebrate his blameless life.‡ It appears that he was addicted to luxury, to dramatic entertainments, and public shows. “Aleander lives at Venice the life of a grovelling Epicurean in high estate,” said his old friend, Erasmus. All reports agree that he was a man of imperious character, prompt in his actions, ardent, indefatigable, imperious, and devoted to the pope. Eck was the fiery and intrepid champion of the schools; Aleander the haughty envoy of the domineering Vatican. He seemed born to be a nuncio.

Rome had everything in readiness for the destruction of the monk of Wittenberg. The part which Aleander

* Studium flagrantissimum religionis, ardor idolis . . incredible quanta solertia. (Pallavicini, i. 84.)

† It was of this son, Cæsar, that Capello, the Venetian ambassador at Rome, in the year 1500, said: Tutta Roma tremava di esso ducha non li faza amazzar. . . Extract, by Ranke, from a manuscript letter in the archives of Vienna.

‡ Er wird übel als ein gebohrrer Jude und schändlicher Epicurer beschrieben. (Sekend, 283.) Integratas vitæ quæ prænoscebatur. (Pallavicini, i. 94.)

der had to perform, as the pope's representative in the coronation of the emperor, he regarded as only a subordinate commission—adapted, however, to promote his main design, by the personal consideration which it necessarily secured for him. But his real office was to persuade Charles to crush the Reformation in its birth.* “The pope,” said the nuncio, as he gave the bull into the emperor's hands, “the pope, who has measured his strength with so many mighty princes, will find little difficulty in dealing with these grammarians.” Under that contemptuous designation, he included Luther, Melancthon, and Erasmus. Erasmus himself was present at the audience.

Immediately after his arrival at Cologne, Aleander, acting in concert with Carracioli, made it the object of his most strenuous efforts, that the heretical writings of Luther should be publicly burned in every part of the empire, but more particularly under the eyes of the German princes assembled in that city. Charles the Fifth had already given his consent, so far as concerned his hereditary dominions. The agitation of men's minds, in this juncture, was extreme. The ministers of Charles, and the nuncios themselves, were solemnly warned that measures like these, instead of healing the wound, would inflame it. “Do you imagine,” they were asked, “that the doctrine taught by Luther exists only in those books, which you are now condemning to the flames? It is deeply engraven where you cannot obliterate it—in the hearts of the German nation.† If you mean to employ force, you must give the word for myriads of swords to be unsheathed, and a countless multitude of victims to be slaughtered. Piling a few faggots together, to burn a few sheets of paper, will be of no avail. Nor does it besem the dignity of the emperor, or that of the sovereign pontiff, to employ such weapons.”‡ The nuncio clung to his faggots, notwithstanding. “These flames that we shall kindle,” said he, “are a sentence of condemnation, written in giant characters, conspicuous far and wide—to the learned and the unlearned—legible even to such as can read no others.”

But, after all, the nuncio cared little about books or papers; Luther himself was the mark he aimed at. “These fires,” he remarked again, “are not sufficient to purify the pestilential atmosphere of Germany.§ Though they may strike terror into the simple-minded, they leave the authors of the mischief unpunished. We must have an imperial edict, sentencing Luther to death.”||

Aleander found the emperor less compliant, when the Reformer's life was demanded, than he had shown himself before, when his books alone were attacked.

“Raised, as I have been, so recently to the throne, I cannot,” said Charles, “without the advice of my counsellors, and the consent of the princes of the empire, strike such a blow as this, against a faction so numerous and so powerfully protected. Let us first ascertain what our father, the Elector of Saxony, thinks of the matter; we shall then be prepared to give our answer to the pope.”¶ On the elector, therefore, must the nuncios now exercise their artifices, and the power of their rhetoric.

On the first Sunday of November, after Frederic had attended mass, in the convent of the Cordeliers, Car-

racioli and Aleander demanded an audience of him. He received them in the presence of the Bishop of Trent, and of several of his counsellors. Carracioli opened the interview by presenting to the elector the pope's brief. Of a milder character than Aleander, he thought it expedient to gain the prince over, if possible, by fair speeches; and, accordingly, began by complimenting him and his ancestors. “In your Highness,” said he, “are reposed all our hopes for the salvation of the church and the holy Roman empire.”

But the impetuous Aleander, resolved to come at once to the point, stepped abruptly forward, and interrupted his colleague, who modestly gave way to him.* “It is to myself, and to Eck,” said he, “that the affair of Friar Martin has been intrusted. Consider the infinite peril into which this man is plunging the Christian commonwealth. Unless a remedy be speedily applied, the fate of the empire is sealed. Why has the empire of the Greeks been destroyed, but because they fell away from the pope? You cannot join yourself to Luther without being dis severed from Christ.† In the name of his Holiness, I require of you two things: first, that you cause Luther's writings to be burned; secondly, that you inflict upon the heretic himself, the punishment he deserves, or else, that you deliver him up a prisoner to the pope. The emperor and all the princes of the empire, have signified their willingness to accede to our demands; you alone demur.”

Frederic replied by the mouth of the Bishops of Trent: “This is a matter of too much importance to be decided instantly. Our determination in regard to it shall be duly communicated to you.”‡

The position in which the Elector was placed was a difficult one. To which side shall he incline? On the one side are arrayed the Emperor, the Princes of the Empire, and the Sovereign Pontiff, whose authority Frederic, at this time, has no thought of shaking off; on the other stands a monk, a poor monk, for against Luther alone is this assault levelled. The reign of Charles has but just begun. Shall Frederic, the oldest, the wisest of the sovereign princes of Germany, be the first to kindle discord in the Empire? And, besides, how shall he forfeit the praise of that devotion which led him in earlier days on his long pilgrimage to the sepulchre of Christ?

But there were voices raised to plead on the opposite part also. A youthful Prince, who afterwards wore the electoral diadem, and whose reign was signalized by great calamities—John Frederic, the son of Duke John, and nephew of the Elector, having been educated by Spalatin, and having now attained the age of seventeen, had had his heart deeply imbued with a love of the truth, and was ardently attached to Luther.§ When he saw him pursued by the anathemas of Rome, he embraced his cause with the fervour of a young Christian, and the spirit of a young Prince. He wrote to the Reformer, and also to his uncle, and with dignified earnestness besought the latter to protect Luther against his enemies. On the other hand, Spalatin—often, it must be confessed, in too timid a strain—as well as Pontanus, and the other counsellors who were with the Elector at Cologne, represented to the Prince that he could not abandon the Reformer.||

Amidst this general agitation one man remained un-

* Cui tota sollicitudo insisteret nascentis hæresis evellendæ. (Ibid. i. 83.)

† Altiusque insculptam in mentibus universæ fere Germaniæ. (Pallavicini, i. 83.)

‡ In vi innumerasibilium gladium qui infinitum populum trucidarent. (Ibid.)

§ Non satis ad expurgandum aerem Germaniæ jam tabificum. (Pallavicini, i. 89.)

|| Cesaris edictum in caput . . . Lutheri. (Ibid.)

¶ Audiamus antea hac in re patrem nostrum Fredericum. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 117.)

* Qui ita loquente de improvviso sese addit Aleander. . . . (Ibid.)

† Non posse cum Luthero conjungi quinsejungeretur a Christo. (Pallavicini, i. 86.)

‡ Ut de eo supplicium sumeret, vel captum pontifici transmitteret. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 117.)

§ Sonderliche Gunst und Gnade zu mir unwürdiglich und den grossen Willen und Lust zu der heiligen göttlichen Wahrheit. . . . (L. Opp. 648, to John Frederic, 30th October, 1520.)

|| Assiduo fabello ministrorum illi jugiter suadentium ne Lutherum desereret. (Pallavicini, i. 86.)

moved: it was Luther himself. While his friends were invoking the assistance of the great to save him from destruction, the monk, in his cloister at Wittenberg, had come to the conclusion, that it was his part, rather, to rescue the great of this world from their imminent peril. "If the Gospel," he wrote to Spalatin, "were of such a nature that it must be propagated or supported by earthly potentates, God would not have committed it to the hands of a few fishermen.* It is not to princes or to Pontiffs that the task is assigned of defending God's word. Enough for them, if they can themselves escape the judgments of the Lord and his Anointed. I speak thus boldly, that they may be led to acquaint themselves with the divine Word, and may find salvation there."

What Luther desired was about to be accomplished. The same faith, that worked unseen in the convent of Wittenberg, was to display its power in the princely halls of Cologne. Frederic's courage, which for a while, perhaps, had faltered, soon rose again to its wonted pitch. He shuddered at the thought of delivering an honest man into the hands of his implacable enemies. "Justice must have precedence even of the Pope:" by this principle would he regulate his conduct.

On the 4th of November, his counsellors intimated in his name, to the papal Nuncios, who had again met in the presence of the Bishop of Trent in the Elector's palace, that his highness had seen, with great concern, the advantage which Doctor Eck had taken of his absence, to involve many persons in the sentence of condemnation, who were not particularized in the bull: that since his departure from Saxony, multitudes, very probably, of every class, the learned as well as the unlearned, the clergy as well as the laity, had joined themselves to Luther, and become parties to his appeal; † that neither his Imperial Majesty, nor any one else, had yet made it appear to him that Luther's writings had been refuted, or demonstrated to be fit only for the flames; that he demanded, therefore, that Doctor Luther should be furnished with a safe-conduct, and permitted to answer for himself before a tribunal, composed of learned, pious, and impartial judges."

After this announcement, Aleander, Carracioli, and their followers, withdrew for a while, to hold a consultation. ‡ This was the first occasion on which the Elector had publicly declared his intentions in regard to the Reformer. The Nuncios had expected him to adopt a very different course. The affair having been brought to that stage in which his continued neutrality would expose him to dangers, the full extent of which no foresight could measure—they thought that he would no longer hesitate to give up the obnoxious monk. So Rome had reasoned. But her machinations were now to be baffled by a power which her calculations had left wholly out of view;—the love of justice and truth.

On the re-admission of the Nuncios into the audience chamber, "I should like to know," said the arrogant Aleander, "what would the Elector think, if one of his subjects were to appeal from his judgment to that of the king of France, or some other foreign sovereign." But perceiving at last, that the Saxon counsellors were not to be wrought upon: "We will execute the bull," said he, "we will pursue and burn the writings of Luther. As for his person," he added, affecting a tone of disdainful indifference, "the Pope

has little inclination to imbrue his hands in the blood of the unhappy wretch."

When the tidings reached Wittenberg, of the reply given by the Elector of the Nuncios, Luther's friends were transported with joy. Melancthon and Amsdorff, in particular, conceived the most sanguine hopes of the future. "The German nobles," said Melancthon, "will follow the guidance of the Prince, whom they revere as their Nestor. If Homer styled his aged hero the *bulwark of the Greeks*, why may not our Frederic be surnamed the *bulwark of Germany*?"

Erasmus, the oracle of courts, the arbiter of schools, the luminary of the age, was then at Cologne. He had been summoned thither by several princes, desirous to profit by his counsels. Erasmus, at the epoch of the Reformation, was the leader of that party which held the *just mean* between the other two; such at least was his own persuasion—a mistaken one, however—for when truth and error stand in hostile opposition, justice halts not on the middle ground. He was the chief of that philosophical and academic party, which, for centuries, had been attempting to correct the abuses of the Romish Church, but still without success. He was the representative of human wisdom—a wisdom far too weak to chastise the pride of Popery. The task could be achieved only by the wisdom of God, which men often deem foolishness, but at the voice of which the mountains crumble into dust. Erasmus would neither throw himself into the arms of Luther, nor yet would he crouch at the footstool of the Pope. He wavered, and sometimes lost his balance between the two opposing influences; ever and anon attracted towards the Reformer, and then again suddenly drawn back into the sphere of Romish delusion. In a letter addressed to Albert, the Archbishop of Mentz, he had declared himself in Luther's favour. "It seems," said he, "as though the last spark of Christian piety were about to be extinguished; and this it is that has stirred up the heart of Luther;—his aim is not distinction, nor is he seeking wealth." † But this letter, which Ulrich Von Hütten imprudently published, was the cause of so much annoyance to Erasmus, that he determined to observe more caution for the future. Moreover, though he lay under the charge of connivance with Luther, the unmeasured language employed by the latter gave him serious umbrage: "Almost all good people lean towards Luther," ‡ he observed, "but I perceive that the affair will end in rebellion. . . . I do not wish my name to be coupled with his. § It injures me, and does him no service." || "Be it so," replied Luther, "if that displeases you, I promise you that I will never make mention of you, or any of your friends." Such was the man to whom the favourers and the enemies of the Reformer alike addressed themselves.

The Elector, knowing that the opinion of a man so highly respected as Erasmus would carry great weight with it, requested a visit from the illustrious Hollander. Erasmus obeyed the invitation on the 5th of December. The friends of Luther regarded the interview with some measure of secret alarm. The Elector was standing before the fire, with Spalatin by his side, when Erasmus was ushered into the chamber. "What think you of Luther?" asked Frederic immediately. The prudent Erasmus, surprised by the ques-

* *Homericæ appellatione murum Germaniæ.* (Corp. Ref. i. 272.)

† *Et futurum erat . . . ut tandem prorsus extingueretur illa scintilla Christianæ pietatis; hæc moverunt animum Lutheri . . . qui nec homines audit nec pecuniam cupit.* (Erasm. Epp. Lond. 1942, p. 586.)

‡ *Favento vero ferme boni omnes.* (Corp. Ref. i. 205.)

§ *Er will von mir ungeneant seyn.* (L. Epp. i. 255.)

|| *Nam ea res me gravat et Lutherum non sublevat.* (Corp. Ref. i. 206.)

* *Evangelium si tale esset quod potentatibus mundi aut propagaretur aut servaretur, non illud piscatoribus Deus demandasset.* (L. Epp. i. 521.)

† *Ut ingens vis populi doctorem et rudium, sacrorum et profanorum, sese conjunxerint . . .* (L. Opp. lat. ii. 116.)

‡ *Quo auditio Marinus et Aleander seorsim cum suis locuti sunt.* (Ib. 117.)

tion so suddenly put to him, endeavoured at first to evade a reply. He screwed up his mouth, bit his lips, and remained silent. Hereupon the Elector raised his eye-brows,* (as was his custom, Spalatin tells us, when he meant to force an explicit answer from the person with whom he was conversing,) and looked Erasmus steadfastly in the face. The latter, at a loss how to extricate himself from the difficulty, replied at last, in a half-jocular tone; "Luther has committed two grievous sins; he has attacked the Pope's crown and the monks' bellies."† The Elector smiled, but intimated to his visitor that he was in earnest. Erasmus then, casting off his reserve, replied as follows: "The origin of all these dissensions is the hatred the monks bear to learning, and the fear that besets them of seeing their tyranny brought to an end. What are the weapons of their warfare against Luther! clamour, cabal, malice, and slander. The more virtuous a man is, and the more strongly attached to the doctrines of the Gospel, the less does he find to censure in Luther's proceedings.‡ The severity of the bull has roused the indignation of all good men; for they find in it none of the gentleness that befits the Vicar of Christ.§ Two universities only, out of the whole number, have condemned Luther; and even they have condemned without having convicted him. Let them not deceive themselves; the danger is greater than some persons imagine. There are difficulties in their way which will not easily be surmounted.|| To begin the reign of Charles by so unpopular an act as Luther's imprisonment, would be an evil omen for the future. The world is thirsting for gospel truth:¶ let us beware how we resist so holy a desire. Let the whole question be examined by dispassionate and competent judges; it is the only course that can be followed, consistently with the dignity of the Pope himself."

Such was the language of Erasmus to the Elector. Its frankness may perhaps astonish us; but Erasmus well knew to whom he was speaking. Spalatin listened to it with delight. When Erasmus took his leave, he accompanied him the whole way to the house of Count von Nuenar, the provost of Cologne, where the illustrious scholar resided. The latter, obeying the impulse of the moment, when he found himself at home, sat down, committed to writing the substance of what he had said to the Elector, and gave the paper into Spalatin's hands. The fear of Aleander, however, soon took possession of his mind; the courage he had felt in the presence of the Elector and his chaplain forsook him, and he entreated Spalatin to let him have that unguarded paper back again, lest it should fall into the hands of the terrible Nuncio. But it was already too late.

The Elector, feeling himself strengthened by the opinion of Erasmus, assumed a more decided tone in his communications with the Emperor. Erasmus himself, in several conferences, which (like those granted to Nicodemus of old,) were held at night,** laboured hard to persuade the Imperial counsellors that the whole affair might be referred to the judgment of an impartial tribunal. He probably hoped that he himself might be chosen to decide the controversy which

threatened to divide the Christian world. His vanity would have found ample gratification in such an office. But, at the same time, that he might not lose his credit at Rome, he wrote to Leo X. in the most submissive terms, and Leo answered his letters graciously; a circumstance which was the source of deep mortification to Aleander.* In his devotion to the Pope's cause, the Nuncio would willingly have administered a severe reproof to the Pope himself; for Erasmus gave publicity to the Pontiff's letters, and made them subservient to the confirmation of his own credit. Aleander forwarded a remonstrance on this head to the Vatican. The reply he received was to this effect: "Do not appear to perceive the evil intentions of the man. Prudence forbids it. We must not close the door of repentance against him."†

Charles himself adopted a system of equipoise, which consisted in flattering both the Pope and the Elector, and manifesting a disposition to lean alternately to the one side or the other, according to the shifting exigency of the moment. His ministers obscurely intimated to Aleander the plan which their master was inclined to follow. "The Emperor," said they, "will be regulated in his conduct toward the Pope, by the tenor of the Pope's conduct toward himself: he does not choose to increase the power of his rivals, particularly that of the king of France."‡ At these words, the arrogant Nuncio gave vent to his indignation: "What," he replied, "even though the Pope should relinquish his alliance with the Emperor, must the Emperor on that account relinquish his *creed*? If that be the way in which he means to avenge himself, bid him tremble—his faithlessness will be visited on his own head"§ But the Imperial diplomatists were not to be intimidated by the Nuncio's threats.

Yet, though the Roman legates had failed to bend the great ones of this world to their will, the inferior agents of the Papacy succeeded in making some impression on the lower ranks of men. The myrmidons of Rome had heard the command given by their chief. Many fanatical priests gladly took advantage of the bull to alarm the consciences of their hearers, and many well-meaning but ill-instructed ecclesiastics deemed it a sacred duty to obey the injunctions of the Pope. It was in the confessional that the struggle against Rome had begun by Luther; § it was in the confessional that Rome now put forth her strength against the adherents of the Reformer. Denied all public recognition of its validity, the bull, nevertheless, became powerfully operative in these solitary tribunals. "Have you read the writings of Luther?" was the question put by the confessor: "have you them in your possession? do you regard them as true or heretical?" And if the penitent hesitated to pronounce the prescribed anathema, the priest refused him absolution. The consciences of many were disturbed. Great agitation prevailed among the people. This dexterous expedient promised fair to bring multitudes once more under the papal yoke, who had but now been won over to the gospel. Well might Rome rejoice that six centuries before|| she had created a tribunal so admirably adapted to secure to the priesthood a despotic sway over the conscience of every Christian. So long as that tribunal stands, her empire shall not be overthrown.

Luther was speedily informed of what was going on. With none to aid him in baffling this device, how shall he act? The Word, the testimony of holy Writ,

* Quæ malè torquebant Aleandrum. (Ibid.)

† Prudentis erat consilii hominis pravitatem dissimulare. (Pallavicini, p. 88.)

‡ Cæsarem ita se gesturum erga Pontificem uti se Pontifex erga Cæsarem gereret. . . (Ibid. 91.) § See Vol. I. 288.

|| In 1215, by the fourth Lateran Council, under Innocent the Third.

* Da sperret accep wahrlich mein gnadigt Herr seine Augen nur wohl auf. . . (Spalatin Hist. MS. in Seckendorf, p. 291.)

† Lutherus peccavit in duobus, nempe quod tetigit coronam pontificis et ventres monachorum. (See the first volume.)

‡ Cum optimis quique et evangelicæ doctrinæ proximis dicat minime offensum Lutherum. (Axiomata Erasmi in L. Oper. lat. ii. 115.)

§ Bullæ sevitia probos omnes offendit ut indigna mittissimo Christi vicario. (Ibid.) ¶ Urgent ardua negotia.

** Mundus sinit veritatem evangelicam. (Ibid.)

¶ Sollicitatis per nocturnos congressus. . . (Pallavicini, p. 87.)

loudly and fearlessly proclaimed—this shall be his weapon of defence. The Word shall find access to those troubled consciences, those dismayed hearts—and they shall be strengthened. A powerful impulse was needed, and powerfully was the voice of Luther lifted up. He addressed the penitents in a tone of intrepid dignity, and high minded contempt, for all secondary considerations. "When you are asked," said he, "whether or not you approve of my books, let your answer be—You are a confessor, not an inquisitor, nor a gaoler. It is my duty to confess whatsoever my conscience prompts me to disclose, it is yours to abstain from prying into the secrets of my heart. Give me absolution first, and then dispute with Luther—with the pope—with whomsoever you please; but beware of turning the sacrament of penance into an instrument of strife and debate." And if the confessor should refuse to yield," said Luther, "I would dispense with his absolution. Be not disquieted; if man absolves you not, God will absolve you. Rejoice, therefore, that you are absolved of God himself, and come forward fearlessly to the sacrament of the altar. The priest will have to answer at the last day for the absolution he has withheld. They may deny us the sacrament, but they cannot deprive us of the strength and grace which God has attached to it. It is not their will, nor any power of theirs, but our own faith, that the Lord has made essential to our salvation. The sacrament—the altar—the priest—the church—we may pass them all by; that word of God which the bull condemned is more than all these things! The soul may dispense with the sacrament, but it cannot live without the Word. Christ, the true Bishop, will himself supply your spiritual feast."*

Such was the strain of Luther's exhortation. That animating voice pierced the recesses of every dwelling—of every troubled bosom—and courage and faith were everywhere awakened by its echoes. But it was not enough for him to stand on the defensive—he felt that he must become the assailant, and return blow for blow. A book had been written against him by a Roman theologian, named Ambrosius Catharinus. "I will rouse the choler of that Italian beast," said Luther. He kept his word. In his answer, he proved by the revelations of Daniel and St. John, by the epistles of St. Paul, St. Peter, and St. Jude, that the kingdom of Anti-Christ, predicted and described in the Bible, was no other than the Papacy. "I know for certain," said he, in conclusion, "that our Lord Jesus Christ liveth and reigneth. In the strength of that assurance, I could face ten thousand popes, and never shrink. May God visit us at length according to his infinite power, and hasten the day of the glorious coming of his Son, in which he shall destroy that man of sin. And let all the people say, Amen."†

And all the people *did* say, Amen! A sacred dread took possession of every mind. The image of Anti-Christ, seated on the Pontifical throne, was present to every imagination. This new idea, so startlingly displayed by Luther to his contemporaries in the glowing colours of prophetic delineation, gave a fearful shock to the power of Rome. Faith in the divine Word succeeded to that unqualified submission which had hitherto been rendered to the Church; and the pope's authority, so long regarded with the deepest reverence, was now the object of general detestation and terror.

Germany replied to the papal bull by saluting Luther with redoubled acclamations. The plague had made its appearance in Wittenberg, yet new students

were continually flocking to the university, and from five to six hundred disciples were stately assembled to listen to the lectures of Luther and Melancthon. The convent chapel, and the city church, were both too small for the eager crowd that hung on the lips of the reformer. The prior of the Augustines was in constant alarm, lest the buildings should give way under the weight of the throngs that filled them.* Nor was this excitement confined within the walls of Wittenberg—all Germany partook of it. From princes, nobles, and scholars, in every quarter—Luther received letters that spoke the language of encouragement and of faith. More than thirty such letters were shown by him to Spalatin.†

On one occasion the Margrave of Brandenburg, accompanied by several other princes, came to Wittenberg, to pay Luther a visit. "They wanted to see the man,"‡ as he expresses it. And of a truth, all wanted to see the man whose voice stirred the nations, and caused the pontiff of the west to totter on his throne.

The enthusiasm of Luther's friends grew stronger every day. "Oh, the unheard of folly of Emser!" cried Melancthon, "that he should presume to measure his strength with our Hercules, overlooking the finger of God in what has been done by Luther,§ even as the king of Egypt overlooked it in the acts of Moses." The mild Melancthon employed the most energetic language to urge forward such as appeared to him to be falling back, or pausing in their course. "Luther has arisen to defend the truth," said he, addressing John Hesse, "and dost thou keep silence? He breathes still—aye, and prospers—in spite of all the wrath and fury of Pope Leo. Remember that it is impossible for Romish impiety to give a sanction to the gospel.|| In this unhappy age how can we hope that a Judas, or a Caiaphas—a Pilate, or a Herod, will ever be wanting to uphold the evil cause? Stand forth, then, to resist such adversaries, in the might of God's holy word."

Besides this, caustic satires against the most conspicuous of the Italian agents of the pope were circulated through all the provinces of the empire. Ulrich Von Hütten, was indefatigable in his exertions. He addressed letters to Luther, to the Legates, to all the most considerable personages of Germany. "I tell thee—once and again I tell thee, O Marinus!" said he, in an epistle to the legate, Caracciola, "that those deceitful mists, with which you blinded our eyes, are scattered for ever; the gospel is preached, the truth is made known, the absurdities of Rome are given up to contempt—your decrees are unheeded, and null—our deliverance is at hand."¶

Not content with the use of prose, Hütten had recourse also to verse. He published his "*Outcry on the Fire raised by Luther*."** Appealing in his poem

* Es möchte noch gar die Kirche und Capelle um der menge willen einfallen. (Spalatin in Seckend. p. 295.)

† Mehr als dreissig Briefe von Fürsten. (Ibid.)

‡ Videre enim hominem voluerunt. (L. Epp. i. 544. 16 Jan. 1521.)

§ . . . Dei digitum esse quæ à Martino fiant. (Corp. Ref. i. 282.)

|| Non posse Evangelium Romanæ impictati probari. (Corp. Ref. i. 280.)

¶ Ablata illa est a vobis inducta olim nostris oculis caligè . . . prædicatur Evangelium . . . spes est libertatis. (Ulrich ab Hütten Eques. Mar. Carrac. M. Opp. lat. ii. 176.)

** . . . Quo tu oculos, pie Christe, tuos, frontisque severe Tende supercilium, teque esse ostendunt neganti. Qui te contemnunt igitur ostenduntque tonanti Ostendunt dignitum, tandem iis te ostendit potentem Te videat ferus ille Leo, te tota malorum Sentiat illuvies, scelerataque Roma tremiscat Ultorem scelerum discant te vivere saltem Qui regnare negant.

(In Incendium Lutheranum Exclamatio Ulrichi Hütten Equitis Ibid.)

* Und wird dich derrechte Bischoff Christus selber speisen. (L. Opp. lxxvii., 563.)

† Italica bestia bilem movebo. (L. Epp. ii. 570.)

‡ Ostendat illum diem adventus gloriæ Filii sui quo destruetur iniquus ist. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 162.)

to Christ himself, he besought him to rebuke in his fiery displeasure all who dared to deny his authority. Hütten was not inclined to stop at words—he was eager to draw his sword in the struggle. Luther reproved his rash designs. "I would not have the gospel supported by violence and carnage," said he: "I have written to Hütten to tell him so."^{*}

The celebrated painter, Lucas Cranach, published a set of prints under the title of *Christ's Passion and Anti-Christ*: representing on one side the glory and magnificence of the pope; on the other, the humiliation and sufferings of the Redeemer. Luther composed the inscriptions for these prints. They produced an unexampled effect. The people renounced their attachment to a church which appeared in every particular so directly opposed to the example of its founder. "It is an excellent work," said Luther, "for the laity."[†]

In some instances those who attacked the papacy employed weapons ill suited to the sanctity of the Christian character. Emser had answered Luther's work, addressed "To the Goat of Leipsic;" by another, inscribed "To the Bull of Wittemberg;" the appellation was not ill chosen. But at Magdeburgh, Emser's book was hung to the gallows, with this inscription, "The Book is worthy of its place," and a rod was hung under it to denote the punishment due to the author.‡ At Doeblin there was written under the pope's bull, in derision of its impotent fury, "The nest is here, but the birds are flown."[§]

The Students of Wittemberg, taking advantage of the carnival, dressed up one of their own number in garments resembling those worn by the pope, and carried him in pompous procession, though in a manner somewhat too ludicrous, as Luther remarks,|| through the streets of the city. When they reached the great square beside the river, some of them, feigning a mutiny, made a sudden attempt to throw the pope into the water. His holiness, unwilling to submit to the immersion, took to his heels; his cardinals, his bishops, and familiars of every degree, did the same; the students chased them from street to street, and every corner of Wittemberg enjoyed the spectacle of some Romish dignitary pursued by the jeers and shouts of the excited populace.¶ "The enemy of Christ," says Luther, "who mocks at kings, and at Christ himself, meets but a just requital, when he also is turned into mockery." Here, in our judgment, he errs; the spotless dignity of truth ought not to be so profaned. In the conflicts she is called upon to wage, she needs not such auxiliaries as songs, or the caricatures, or mummeries of a carnival. It may be, indeed, that, without these popular demonstrations, her success would be less apparent: but it would be purer, and, consequently, more durable.

It was not all exultation, and defiance, however, with the reformer. Behind his triumphal chariot, drawn joyously along by enthusiastic and devoted adherents, there stood the slave, to remind him of impending evil. Some of his friends, at this time, seemed disposed to retrace their steps. Staupitz, whom he called his father, appeared to be wavering. The pope had accused him, and Staupitz had declared himself ready to submit to the judgment of his holiness. "I fear," said Luther, "that, by accepting the pope as your

judge, you will seem to renounce me and the doctrines which I have maintained. If Christ loves you, he will constrain you to retract your letter. Christ is rejected, stripped, blasphemed: this is not the time to shrink back, but to sound the onset.* You exhort me to be humble; I, on the other hand, exhort you to be firm: for you have too much humility, as I have too much pride. I shall be called a proud man—I know—a covetous man, an adulterer, a homicide, an anti-pope, a wretch guilty of every crime. It matters little, so that no one can charge me with having impiously kept silence, while the Lord was complaining: "I looked on my right hand, and beheld; but there was no man that would know me." The word of Christ is a word, not of peace, but of the sword. If you will not follow Christ, let me advance alone. I will press forward, and the prize of the high calling shall be mine."[†]

Luther thus, like a consummate general, kept a watchful eye on the face of the battle; and, while fresh combatants were continually rushing forward at his bidding, into the thickest of the fight, he failed not to mark where any of his followers were beginning to give ground; nor was he slow to rally them again, beneath their adopted standard. His warning voice resounded far and wide. Letter followed letter in rapid succession. Three printing presses were incessantly employed in multiplying the copies of his various writings.‡ His discourses passed from hand to hand through the whole nation—supporting the agitated penitent in the confessional—giving courage to the faltering convert in the cloister, and asserting the claims of evangelic truth, even in the abodes of princes.

"Amid the storms that assailed me," he wrote to the elector, "I always hoped that I should be permitted to enjoy repose at last. But I now see that this was one of the thoughts of man. Day after day the waves are rolling higher, and on every side the ocean heaves me in. Fiercely, indeed, is the tempest raging,§ ye I still grasp the sword with one hand, while with the other I build up the walls of Zion."|| His former ties are now broken; the arm that levelled the thunders of excommunication against him, has severed them for ever. "Being excommunicated by the bull," said he, "I am released from the authority of the pope, and the monastic laws. I embrace my deliverance with joy. Yet I relinquish not the habit of my order; nor do I leave the convent."¶ And still, in the midst of all this commotion, he recalls to mind the dangers to which his own soul is exposed in the struggle. He feels the necessity of watching over himself. "Thou dost well to pray for me," he wrote to Pellican, who was residing at Basle; "I cannot give myself up as I ought to holy exercises; life is a cross to me. Thou dost well in exhorting me to moderation; I feel the need of it; but I am not master of myself: an impulse of, I know not what nature, hurries me away. I bear enmity to no man;** but I am so beset with enemies, myself, that I cannot be sufficiently on my guard against the seductions of Satan. Pray for me, then."^{††}

Thus it was, that both the reformer and the reform-

* Non enim hic tempus timendi sed clamandi. (Ibid. 587.)

† Quod si tu non vis sequi, sine me ire et rapi. (L. Epp. i. 558.)

‡ Cum tria prælia solus ego occipere cogar. (Ibid.)

§ Videns rem tumultuosissimo tumultu tumultuantem. (Ibid. 546.)

|| Unâ manû gladium apprehendens et alterâ murum edificaturus. (Ib. 565.)

¶ Ab ordinis et Papæ legibus solutus. . . quod gaudeo et amplector. (L. Epp. i. 568.)

** . . . Compos mei non sum, rapior nescio quo spiriâ, cum nemini me male veile concius sim. (Ibid. 555.)

* Nolle vi et cæde pro Evangelio certari; ita scripsi ad hominum. (L. Epp. i. 243.)

† Bonus et pro laicis liber. (Ibid. 571.)

‡ In publico infamie loco affixus. (Ibid. 560.)

§ Das Nest is hic. die Vogel sind ausgeflogen. (Ibid. 570.)

|| Nimis ludere Papam personatum circumvenerunt sublimem et pompaticum. . . . (Ibid. 561.)

¶ . . . Fugitivum cum Cardinalibus, Episcopis, famulisque suis in diversas partes oppidi disperserunt et insecuti sunt. (L. Epp. i. 561. 17 Feb. 1521.)

ation were led forward on the way which God had marked out for them. The agitation was still spreading more widely. Persons, who might have been expected to prove the staunchest adherents of the hierarchy, began now to share in the general movement. "Those, even," says Eck, with considerable candour, "on whom the pope has conferred the best benefices, and the richest prebends, are as mute as so many senseless stocks. There are many of them, even, who extol Luther, as a man filled with the spirit of God, and call the defenders of the pope sophists and flatterers."⁷ The church, apparently in full vigour, supported by the treasures, the power, the armed array of the world—but, in reality, exhausted, enfeebled, destitute of the love of God, of Christian vitality, of devotion to the truth—found herself, in this condition, opposed to a company of simple-minded, but courageous men, who had learned that God is with them who contend for his word, and, therefore, never doubted of their victory. In all ages it has been seen how great is the power of any predominant idea to work upon the inert mass of

mankind, to rouse the spirit of a nation, and to urge its votaries by thousands, if need be, into the field of battle, and the very jaws of death. But if an idea, whose origin is earthly, has a potency so great—what limit shall we set to the power of one communicated from above, when God, himself, has opened men's hearts to receive it? Not often, indeed, in the world's history, has such a power been exerted; it was displayed, however, in the infancy of Christianity—at the period of the reformation it was exhibited again—and it shall be witnessed once more in the latter days. Men who despised the riches and the grandeur of the world, and were content to lead a life of poverty and privation, began now to bestir themselves for the sake of that most precious of all treasures, the doctrine of truth and grace. All the elements of religious feelings were fermenting in the agitated bosom of society, and a glowing enthusiasm was kindled in men's souls, which forced them by an irresistible impulse, into that glorious career opened by the providence of God for the moral renovation of their race.

BOOK VII.

THE DIET OF WORMS—1521—JANUARY TO MAY.

THE Reformation engendered by the solitary struggles of a broken and contrite spirit, in a cell of the convent at Erfurth, had been gaining strength from the moment of its birth. A man of humble station, holding in his hand the word of life, had stood erect in the presence of earthly dignities, and they had quailed before him. Armed with that word alone, he had encountered first Tetzels and his numerous host, and, after brief resistance, those greedy traffickers had been driven from the field—then the Roman legate at Augsburg, and the legate, in confusion, had suffered his prey to escape—then, again, the learned divines in the halls of Leipsic, and the astonished theologians, had seen the weapons of their scholastic logic shivered in their hands—lastly, when the pope, himself, had started from his slumbers, to launch his fiercest lightnings at the head of the offending monk—that same word had again been the safeguard of him who trusted in it, and the arm of the spiritual despot had been stricken with palsy. One struggle more was yet to be endured; for the word was destined to triumph over the emperor of the west, over the kings and princes of many lands, and at length, having humbled all earthly opposition, to be exalted in the church, and there to reign supreme as the very word of the living God.

A solemn diet was about to be convened—the first assembly of the German states since the accession of Charles. Nuremberg, the city in which, by virtue of the golden bull, it ought to have been held, was at this time afflicted by the plague; it was therefore summoned to meet at Worms, on the 6th of January, 1521.† Never, before, had so many princes been present at the Diet; on this occasion all were desirous of taking a part in the first act of the young emperor's government; all were ambitious of displaying their own grandeur. Among the rest the young Land-

grave, Philip, of Hesse, who was afterward to play so important a part in the Reformation, arrived at Worms about the middle of January, with a train of six hundred cavaliers, many of them highly distinguished for their military prowess.

A more powerful motive, however, had actuated the electors, the dukes, the archbishops, the landgraves, the margraves, the bishops, the counts, the barons, and lords of the empire, as well as the deputies of the free cities and the ambassadors of the various foreign sovereigns, whose gorgeous retinues were now pouring from every quarter into the city of Worms. Intimation had been given, that the Diet would be occupied with the nomination of a Council of Regency, to administer the government in the emperor's absence, with the question regarding the jurisdiction of the Imperial Chamber, and with other weighty matters; but the public attention was chiefly fixed upon a subject distinct from all these, but which the emperor had also mentioned in his letters of convocation—namely, the Reformation. The great political interests of state faded into insignificance when contrasted with the cause of the monk of Wittenberg. This was the main topic of discourse among the dignified personages who were assembled in Worms.

Everything indicated that the Diet would be a difficult and boisterous one. Charles, at this early period, had not yet adopted a decided line of policy; his tutor and first minister died while the assembly was sitting—many ambitious designs were on foot—many conflicting passions at work—the Spaniards and the Flemings were striving hard, to exclude each other from the confidence of their youthful Sovereign—the Nuncios were busily pursuing their artful schemes—the German princes had assumed a tone of independence. It was easy to foresee that a struggle was at hand, in which, all the subtleties of party intrigue would find ample exercise.*

* Reynald, Epist. J. Eckii ad Cardinal Contarenum.

† Sleiden, vol. i. 80.

* Es gieng aber auf diesem Reichstag gar schlüpferig zu. (Seckend., p. 326.)

How was Charles to act, between the papal nuncio on the one hand, and the elector, to whom he was indebted for his crown, on the other? How avoid giving offence, either to Aleander or to Frederic? The former was continually urging the emperor to execute the pope's bull; the latter as perseveringly entreated him to take no steps against the monk, until he should have allowed him a hearing. Desirous of satisfying both these contending parties, the young prince, during a temporary residence at Oppenheim, had written to the elector to bring Luther to the Diet, on the assurance that no injustice should be practised against him, that he should be protected from all violence, and that a free conference should be allowed him, with men qualified to discuss the disputed point.

This letter from Charles, which was accompanied by others from his minister, Chievres, and the Count of Nassau, threw the elector into great perplexity. He well knew that, at any moment, an alliance with the pope might become necessary to the young and ambitious emperor, and that Luther, in that case, would be lost. If he carried the Reformer to Worms, he might probably be conducting him to the scaffold. And yet the emperor's orders were peremptory. The elector desired Spalatin to inform Luther of the directions he had received. "Our enemies," observed the chaplain, "are straining every nerve to accomplish their design."*

The friends of Luther trembled, but he himself par-took not of their fears. His health, at that time, was very weak; but this he heeded not. "If I cannot perform the journey to Worms as a man in good health," said he, in his answer to the elector, "I will be carried thither in a litter. For since the emperor has summoned me, I can regard it only as the call of God. If they intend to use violence against me, as they probably do, for assuredly it is with no view of gaining information, that they require me to appear before them; I commit the matter into the hands of God. He still lives and reigns, who preserved the three Israelites in the fiery furnace. If it be not His will to save me, my life is little worth. Let us only take care that the Gospel be not exposed to the insults of the ungodly, and let us shed our blood in its defence, rather than allow them to triumph. Who shall say, whether my life or my death would contribute most to the salvation of my brethren? It is not for us to decide. Let us only pray God, that our young Emperor may not begin his reign by imbruing his hands in my blood. I would rather perish by the sword of Rome. You remember the judgments with which the Emperor Sigismund was visited, after the murder of John Huss. Expect anything from me but flight or recantation.† Fly I cannot, still less can I recant."

Before Luther's letter reached him, the elector had formed his resolution. This prince, whose acquaintance with the Gospel was daily increasing, began now to adopt a more decided course. He was sensible that the conference at Worms could lead to no advantageous result. "It seems to me," he wrote to the emperor, "that to bring Luther with me to Worms, would be an undertaking of much difficulty. I beg to be relieved from it. Moreover, it has never been my desire to favour his doctrines, but only to prevent him from being condemned unheard." The Legates, without waiting for your sanction, took measures which were injurious both to Luther's honour, and to mine; and I have reason to fear, that he has been provoked to an act of imprudent retaliation, which, in the event of his appearance at Worms, might place him in extreme

jeopardy." The elector alluded to the burning of the pope's bull.

But the report of Luther's intended appearance had already been circulated at Worms. The seekers after novelty heard it with joy—the Imperial courtiers with alarm—but by none was it received with so indignant a feeling as by the Papal Legate. Aleander, on his way to the Diet, had had opportunities of seeing to what extent the Gospel, proclaimed by Luther, had found acceptance in every class of society. Academicians, lawyers, nobles, the inferior clergy, many even of the monks, and vast numbers of the common people, had embraced the Reformation.* The adherents of the new doctrines showed a fearless front, their language was frank and firm—and, on the contrary, an unconquerable terror paralysed the partisans of Rome. The Papacy was standing yet, but those who were regarded as its pillars began to stagger, for their ears had already caught the presages of approaching ruin—presages resembling that faint and dubious sound, which alone gives brief warning when a mountain totters to its fall.† Aleander, in the course of his journey to Worms, was often subjected to the severest mortification. When he had occasion to halt in any spot for refreshment or repose, neither collegians, nor nobles, nor priests, even among those believed to be favourable to the pope's cause, would venture to receive him, and the haughty Nuncio was obliged to seek shelter in the meanest inns.‡ Alarmed by these symptoms, Aleander concluded that his life was in danger. He arrived at Worms with that idea uppermost in his mind, and his Roman fanaticism assumed additional bitterness from the sense of personal injury. He had immediate recourse to every means within his reach to prevent the audacious appearance of the formidable Luther.—"Would it not be a scandal," said he, "to see laymen instituting a fresh enquiry into a cause, in which the pope has already pronounced a sentence of condemnation?" To a Roman courtier, nothing could be so unwelcome as an enquiry—and, moreover, this was to have taken place in Germany, not at Rome, a circumstance in itself deeply affronting, even on the supposition of Luther being eventually condemned without a dissentient voice; but such result of the trial was uncertain. Might it not be feared that the man, whose powerful eloquence had already done such deadly mischief, might draw aside many of the princes and lords into the path of perdition? Aleander's remonstrances with Charles were of the most urgent character; he entreated, he threatened, he spoke in the lofty tone of one who represented the Head of the Church.§ Charles gave way, and wrote to the elector, that, inasmuch as the time allowed to Luther had expired, he was now in the condition of a man actually excommunicated by the pope, and consequently, if he would not retract what he had written, Frederic must leave him at Wittenberg. But that prince had already commenced his journey without him. "I beseech the Lord," said Melancthon, when the elector took his departure, "to deal graciously with our sovereign. On him rest all our hopes for the revival of Christianity. His enemies will stop at nothing, καὶ πάντα λυθὼν κινησόμενοι,|| but God will bring to nought the devices of Achitophel. As for us, let us perform our part in the conflict

* Multitudo . . . turba pauperum nobilium . . . grammatici . . . causidici . . . inferiores ecclesiastici . . . factio multorum regularium . . . (Pallavicini. i. 93.)

† He omnes conditiones petulariter grassantium . . . metum cuiuslibet incutiebant. (Ibid.)

‡ Neminem nactus qui auderet ipsum excipere ad vilia sordidaque hospitia ægre divertit. (Ibid.)

§ Legati Romani nolunt ut audiat homo hæreticus.

narrant multa. (Zw. Epp. p. 156.)

|| They will not leave a stone unturned. (Corp. Ref. i. 279. 24 Jan.)

* Adversarios omnia moliri ad maturandum id negotii. (L. Epp. i. 534.)

† Omnia de me præsumas præter fugam et palinodiam. (L. Epp. i. 536.)

by our teachings and our prayers." Luther was much grieved that he was forbidden to appear at Worms.*

It was not enough for Aleander, however, that Luther was prevented from making his appearance at the Diet—he was bent on obtaining his condemnation. He returned incessantly to the charge with the princes, prelates, and other members of the assembly; he charged the Augustine, not only with disobedience and heresy, but also with sedition, rebellion, impiety, and blasphemy. But the very tones of his voice betrayed the passions by which he was actuated. "Hatred and the thirst of vengeance," an observer remarked, "are his motives, rather than any true zeal for religion;"† and, in spite of the frequency and the vehemence of his harangues, he persuaded no one.‡ Some reminded him, that the pope's bull had only condemned Luther conditionally; others allowed indications to escape them, of the joy they felt at seeing the pride of Rome brought down. The emperor's ministers on the one hand, and the ecclesiastical electors on the other, affected extreme coldness—the former, in order that the pope might perceive the necessity of contracting an alliance with their master; the latter, that he might be compelled to purchase their co-operation at a higher price. A conviction of Luther's innocence was the prevailing sentiments in the assembly, and Aleander could not restrain his indignation.

But the coldness of the Diet he could better have brooked than the coldness which was now manifested by Rome. Rome, when at length, with much difficulty, she had been induced to treat the attack of the "drunken German" as a serious matter, never imagined that a bull, emanating from the Sovereign Pontiff could fail to reduce him at once to complete and abject submission.—She had relapsed into her former security, and neither bull nor coin did she now forward to Germany. Now, without money, how was it possible to manage an affair like this?||—Rome must be roused, and Aleander accordingly sounds the alarm. "Germany," he wrote to the Cardinal de Medicis, is falling away from Rome—the princes, I say, are falling away from the pope. A little more delay—a little more compromise—and the case becomes hopeless!—Money! Money! or Germany is lost!"¶

At this cry, Rome awakes; the retainers of the Papacy assembled in the Vatican, cast aside their torpor, and hasten to forge fresh thunders of direful potency. The pope issues a new bull,** and that excommunication, with which hitherto the heretical doctor had only been threatened, is now decidedly pronounced against him, and against all his adherents. Rome, by thus wilfully snapping asunder the last thread that yet held him to her church, gave Luther more liberty, and consequently more power. Assailed by the papal thunders, he cast himself, with a more ardent love, into the arms of Christ. Driven from the outward temple, he felt more deeply that he was a temple himself, inhabited by the Holy Spirit.

"It is a glorious thing to think of," said he, "that we sinners, believing in Christ, and feeding on his flesh, should have him dwelling in us—in all his power, his wisdom, and his righteousness—for it is written, *Who-*

* Cum dolore legi novissimas Caroli litteras. (L. Epp. i. 542.)

† Magis invidia et vindicta libidine quam zelo pietatis. Hist. Joh. Cochlei de actis et scriptis Martini Lutheri. Par. 1556. p. 27. verso.—Cochleus was one of Luther's greatest enemies. We shall shortly have to speak of him.

‡ Vehementibus suis orationibus parum promovit. Cochleus.

§ Negligens quædam securitas Romam pervaserat. (Pallavicini, i. 94.)

|| Nec pecunia ad varios pro eadem sumptus. (Ibid.)

¶ Periculum denique amittendæ Germaniæ ex parsimonia monetæ cujusdam. (Ibid.)

** Decet Romanum pontificem, &c. (Roman. Bullarium.)

soever believeth in me, in him I abide. O wonderful abode! marvellous tabernacle; how far excelling that which was set up by Moses! within, how magnificently adorned with costly hangings, and purple veils and implements of gold! and yet without, even like that other tabernacle which God commanded to be erected in the wilderness of Sinai, there is nothing to be seen but the coarse covering of ram's skins and goat's hair.* Often does the Christian stumble, and in his outward aspect all is weakness and reproach. But what matters it?—beneath that infirmity and foolishness of his, a power lies hid which the world cannot know, and which yet must overcome the world; for Christ abideth in him. I have sometimes seen Christians halting in their walk, and ready to fall, but when the hour came that they must wrestle with the enemy, or plead their Master's cause before the world, Christ on a sudden stirred within them, and so strong and valiant did they then become, that Satan was dismayed and fled from their presence."†

Such an hour as he spoke of was soon to come upon himself; and Christ, who "abode" with him was then to be his present help. Rome in the meantime cast him off in scorn. The Reformer and all who took part with him, of whatsoever rank or degree, were anathematized, and were declared to have forfeited for themselves and their descendants, all their honours and their worldly goods. Every faithful Christian was enjoined, as he valued his own soul, to shun all intercourse with that accursed crew; in every place where the heresy had gained a footing, it was the duty of the priests on Sundays and holidays, at the hour of high mass, solemnly to publish the sentence of excommunication. The sacred vessels and ornaments were to be removed from the altar—the cross to be laid on the ground—twelve priests, holding torches in their hands, were to light them first, and immediately to dash them down, and extinguish them by trampling them under foot; the bishop was then to proclaim the condemnation of those ungodly men; the bells were to be tolled; the bishop and the priests in concert were to chant anathemas and maledictions; and the service was to be concluded by a discourse of unsparing severity against Luther and his adherents.

Twenty-two days had elapsed since the publication of the sentence at Rome, though it probably had not yet transpired in Germany, when Luther having heard that it was again in contemplation to summon him to Worms, addressed a letter to the Elector, couched in such terms as to give that Prince the option of communicating it to the Diet. Luther was anxious to correct the erroneous notions entertained by the Princes who composed that august assembly—and candidly to explain to them the true merits of a cause so little understood. "I rejoice with all my heart, most serene Prince," said he, "that his Imperial Majesty is disposed to have this affair brought before him. I call Christ to witness that it is the cause of the German nation, of the Catholic church, of the Christian world—of God himself—not the cause of a solitary, humble individual.‡ I am ready to repair to Worms, provided only that a safe-conduct, and learned, pious, and impartial judges be allowed me. I am ready to answer for myself—for it is not in the spirit of recklessness, nor for the sake of worldly profit, that I have taught the doctrine which is laid to my charge—I have taught it in obedience to my conscience, and to my oath, as a doctor of the

* Exodus xxvi. 7, 14.

† So regelte sich der Christus, dass sie so fest wurden dass der Tüfel fliehen musste. (L. Opp. ix. 613, on John vi. 56.)

‡ Causam quæ, Christo teste, Dei, christiani orbis, ecclesiæ catholicæ et totius Germanicæ nationis, et non unius et privati est hominis. (L. Epp. i. 511.)

Holy Scriptures—for God's glory have I taught it for the salvation of the Christian Church—for the good of the German people—for the rooting-out of gross superstition and grievous abuses—the cure of innumerable evils—the wiping away of foul disgrace—the overthrow of tyranny, blasphemy, and impiety, in countless forms."

This declaration, made at so critical a moment of Luther's life, deserves to be regarded with deep attention. Here we see the motives by which he was actuated, here are the secret springs which gave the first impulse of revival to the Christian community. We find no traces here of monkish emulation, or a desire to break loose from the restraint of monastic vows.

But all this was of little moment to mere politicians. An alliance with the Pope was every day becoming more necessary to the success of Charles' designs. Situated as he was, between the Pope and the Elector, he could have wished either to separate Frederic from Luther, or to satisfy the Pope without offending Frederic. But how was this to be accomplished? Many of his courtiers treated the whole affair of the Augustine monk with that contemptuous indifference which politicians generally affect, when the interests of religion are discussed. "Let us avoid all extreme measures," said they. "Let us entangle Luther in negotiations, and silence him by the help of some partial concessions. To stifle the flame, not fan it—is the course of true policy. If the monk fall into the trap, we have gained our object. By accepting a compromise, he will fix a gag on his own mouth, and ruin his cause. To save appearances, a few external reforms must be granted, the Elector will be satisfied, the Pope will be conciliated, and things will go on once more in the ordinary track."

Such was the plan devised by the confidants of the Emperor.

The doctors of Wittenberg appear to have discovered this new artifice. "They are trying to gain men over secretly," said Melancthon, "and mining in the dark."* John Glapio, the Emperor's confessor, a man in high repute, an adroit courtier, and a wily monk, was charged with the execution of the scheme. Glapio possessed the full confidence of Charles, who, adopting in this particular the Spanish custom, abandoned to him almost entirely the care of all matters relating to religion. Charles had no sooner been elevated to the imperial throne, than Leo hastened to gain the good will of Glapio by marks of favour which the confessor warmly acknowledged.† He could not better discharge his debt of gratitude to the Pontiff than by silencing the new-born heresy, and accordingly applied himself to the work.‡

Among the counsellors of the Elector of Saxony, one who held a conspicuous place, was Gregory Bruck, or Pontanus, a man distinguished for intelligence, decision, and courage, whose skill in divinity might have shamed all the doctors; while his wisdom was adequate to baffle the united craft of all the monks in the court of Charles the Fifth. Glapio, knowing the influence which the chancellor possessed, requested an interview with him, and introducing himself, as though he had been a friend of the Reformer: "I was filled with joy," said he, in a kindly tone, "when I read the first writings of Luther; I looked upon him as a vigorous tree that had shot forth goodly branches, and gave promise to the Church of the most precious fruit.

Many others, it is true, had entertained the same views as he: but none had so nobly and undauntedly proclaimed the truth. But when I read his book on the Babylonian Captivity, I felt like a man stunned and overwhelmed by a shower of blows from head to foot. I cannot believe," added the monk, "that brother Martin will avow himself the author of it; it is marked neither by his peculiar style, nor by the learning he elsewhere evinces." After some discussion, the Confessor continued: "Conduct me to the Elector, and in your presence I will show him where Luther has erred."

The chancellor replied, that the business of the Diet left his Highness no leisure; and, moreover, that he took no part in that affair. The monk, to his great vexation, found his request eluded. "Nevertheless," said the chancellor, "since you say there is no evil without a remedy, be pleased to explain yourself."

Assuming a confidential air, the confessor answered: "The emperor earnestly desires to see a man like Luther reconciled to the church; for his books (before the publication of the treatise on the Babylonian Captivity) were by no means disagreeable to his Majesty.* That last work of Luther's was, doubtless, written under the irritation of being excited by the bull. Let him but declare that he had no intention to disturb the peace of the church, and the learned of every nation will join hands with him. Procure me an audience of his Highness."

The chancellor waited on the elector again. Frederic well knew that any retraction was impossible. "Tell the confessor," said he, "that I cannot comply with his wish, but continue your conference with him."

Glapio received this message with many demonstrations of respect; and, shifting his ground, he said: "Let the elector name some persons in whom he places confidence to deliberate on this affair."

THE CHANCELLOR. "The elector does not profess to be Luther's advocate."†

THE CONFESSOR. "Well, then, you and I, at least, can take the matter up. Christ is my witness that I urge this from love to the church, and to Luther himself, who has opened so many hearts to the truth."

The chancellor, having refused to undertake a task which properly belonged to the Reformer himself, was about to withdraw.

"Stay!" said the monk.

THE CHANCELLOR. "What is your wish?"

THE CONFESSOR. "Let Luther deny that he is the author of the *Babylonian Captivity*."

THE CHANCELLOR. "But the pope's bull condemns all his other works."

THE CONFESSOR. "That was because of his obstinacy. If he disclaims that book, the pope, in virtue of his plenary authority, can easily reverse the sentence of excommunication. What may we not hope for, now that we have so excellent an emperor?"

Perceiving that these words had made some impression on the chancellor, the monk followed them up by observing: "Luther always wants to argue from the Bible. The Bible—it is like wax, you may stretch and mould it any way that you please. I would undertake to find authority in the Bible for doctrines more extravagant, even, than Luther's. He runs into error by interpreting every word of Christ into a command." Wish ing next to act upon the other's fears, he added: "What would the issue be if, to-morrow, or the next day, the emperor were to have recourse to arms? . . . Think of that."

* Es haben dessen Bucher Ihro Majestät . . . um et was gefallen. (Archives of Weimar.—Sackend. p. 315.)

† Der andern das Hertz zu vielem Guten eröffnet . . . (Ibid.)

* *Blanculum tentent et experiantur . . .* (Corp. Reform. i. 281, 3. Feb.)

† *Benignis officiis recens a Pontifice delinitus . . .* (Pallavicini, i. 90)

‡ *Et sane in eo toto negotio singulare probitatis ardorisque specimen debet.* (Ibid.)

The confessor's artifices were not yet exhausted. "A man might have lived ten years in his company," says Erasmus, "without having fathomed him at last."

"What an excellent book," said he to the Chancellor, on his next visit, a few days afterward; "is that work of Luther's on Christian Liberty? What wisdom, what learning, what wit does it display; it is the production of a scholar indeed! . . . Let men of irreproachable character be chosen on both sides, and let the pope and Luther agree to abide by their judgment. In many articles, it is past a doubt, that a decision would be in Luther's favour.* . . . I will speak to the emperor about it myself. Believe me, I am not without grounds for what I say to you. I have told the emperor that the chastisements of God would fall upon him, and the princes also, unless the church, the spouse of Christ, were cleansed from all those stains which now defile her. I told him, too, that God had raised up Luther, and given him a commission to reprove men for their sins, using him as a rod to punish the offences of the world."†

These words we may receive as the echo of the popular voice at that period, and as testifying the opinion which was then entertained of Luther, even by his enemies. The chancellor, roused by what the monk had just said, could not help expressing his surprise, that his master should be treated with so little deference. "The emperor holds daily consultations on this affair," said he, "and the elector is invited to none of them. He thinks it strange that the emperor, to whom he has rendered some service, should exclude him from his councils."

THE CONFESSOR. "I was never present at any of those deliberations but once, and on that occasion I heard the emperor resist the importunities of the legates. Five years hence it will be seen what Charles has done for the Reformation of the church."

"The elector," replied Pontanus, "knows nothing of Luther's intentions. Let him be summoned hither to speak for himself."

The confessor replied, with a deep sigh:‡ "I call God to witness, how ardently I desire to see the Reformation of Christendom accomplished."

To slacken the course of the affair—to keep Luther's mouth closed, in the meantime—this was the sum of what Glapio aimed at. At all events, to prevent Luther from coming to Worms. To the nuncios, the monks, and the rest of the papal phalanx, a dead man, returning from the other world, and appearing in the midst of the Diet, would not have been so fearful a spectacle as the bodily presence of the Doctor of Wittenberg.

"How many days does it take to travel from Wittenberg to Worms?" inquired the confessor, in a tone of affected indifference, and immediately departed, having first entreated Pontanus to present his very respectful salutations to the elector.

Such were the stratagems practised by the courtiers. The firmness of Pontanus disconcerted them all. That upright man was unmoved as a rock throughout the whole course of these proceedings. And, in the end, the monks themselves fell into the snare which they had laid for their enemies. "The Christian," says Luther, in his figurative language, "is like a bird tethered beside a trap. Wolves and foxes prowl around it, and at length spring upon their prey. But they fall into the pit, and perish there, while that timorous bird remains unharmed. Thus it is that we are

* Es sey nicht zu zweifeln dass Lutherus in vielen Artikeln werde den Sieg davon tragen . . . (Seckend. p. 319.)

† Dass Gott diesen Mann gesandt, . . . dass er eine Geissel seye um der Surden willen. (Weimar Archiv.—Seck. p. 330.)

‡ Glapio that hierauf einen tiefen Seufzer, un ruffte Gott zum Zeugen. (Ibid. 221.)

preserved by the holy angels, and those devouring wolves, the hypocrites and persecutors, are restrained from doing us any hurt.*" Not only were the artifices of the confessor unavailing, but the admissions he had made, confirmed Frederic in his opinion that Luther was in the right, and that it was his duty to protect him.

The hearts of men were still inclining more strongly toward the Gospel. A Dominican prior proposed that the emperor, the kings of France, Spain, England, Portugal, Hungary, and Poland, the pope and the electors, should name representatives, to whom the determination of the controversy should be committed. "A case like this," it was urged, "has never been decided by the pope alone."† Such was the spirit now everywhere prevalent, that it seemed impossible to condemn Luther without having heard and convicted him.‡

Aleander, in the height of his alarm, displayed unwonted energy. It was no longer against the elector, and Luther alone, that he had to contend. The secret negotiations of the confessor, the plan of accommodation proposed by the Dominican, the acquiescence of Charles's ministers, the coldness of Romish piety, even among the most devoted friends of the pontiff—a coldness which Pallavicini likens to that produced by the gush of some icy stream—all these circumstances Aleander viewed with a foreboding eye. He had, at length, received from Rome the money he had applied for; he had in his possession briefs couched in the strongest language, and addressed to the highest authorities in the Empire.¶ Fearful lest his victim should escape him, he conceived that now was the time to strike the decisive blow. He forwarded the briefs to the several parties to whom they were directed; he scattered silver and gold with an unsparring hand; he lavished the most alluring promises; "and, aided by his three-fold machinery," says the cardinal, whose narrative we follow, "made a fresh effort to draw the wavering assembly to the pope's side."¶¶ For the emperor he planted his snares with special diligence. He took advantage of the dissensions between the Flemish and Spanish ministers. He laid incessant siege to the sovereign's ear. The friends of Rome, waking at his call from their torpor, pressed the youthful Charles with their united solicitations. "Not a day passes," wrote the elector, to his brother John, "but measures hostile to Luther are brought forward; his enemies now demand that he should be placed under the ban of the pope and the emperor jointly; to injure him, by every possible method, is their single aim. The men who parade their red hats before us—the Romans and their followers—pursue this work with an unwearied zeal."***

Aleander did, in reality, urge the condemnation of the Reformer, with an impetuosity which Luther himself designates as "incredible fury."†† The *Apostate* nuncio,‡‡ as Luther calls him, was, on one occasion, transported by his anger so far beyond the bounds of caution, that he cried aloud: "If ye seek to shake off your allegiance to Rome, ye Germans, we will bring things to such a pass that ye shall unsheath the sword

* L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 1655.

† Und niemals dem Papst allein geglaubt. (Seck. p. 323.)

‡ Spalatius scribit tantum favoris Evangelio esse istie ut me inauditum et inconvictum damnari non speret. (L. Epp. i. 556. 9. Feb.)

§ Hinc aqua manabat, quæ succensæ pietatis æstum restinguabat. (Pallavicini, l. 96.)

¶ Mandata, pecuniæ et diplomata. (Ibid. 95.)

¶¶ Triplici hac industria nunc Aleander . . . (Ibid. 364.)

*** Das thun die in rothen Hutten prangen. (Seck. 364.)

†† Miro furore Papiæ molunter mihi mala. (L. Epp. i. 556.)

‡‡ Nuntius apostaticus (playing on the word "apostolical,") agit sum mis viribus. (Ibid. 569.)

of extermination against each other, and perish in your own blood!"* "It is in this way that the pope feeds Christ's sheep," observes the Reformer.

But much unlike this was the language he used himself. For his own sake he asked nothing. "Luther," said Melancthon, "is ready to purchase the glory and advancement of the Gospel at the cost of his own life."† But he trembled when he thought of the calamities of which his death might be the signal. He saw a misguided people avenging his martyrdom; probably by shedding the blood of his adversaries, and especially that of the priests. He deprecated so terrible a responsibility. "God," said he, "is restraining the fury of his enemies, but if it break loose . . . then shall we see a storm bursting on the heads of the priests, like that which formerly swept over Bohemia and laid it waste. I shall not have to answer for this, for I have made it my earnest prayer that the German princes would oppose the Romans by the wisdom of their counsel, *not by the sword*.‡ To war against priests, a timid and helpless tribe, is to war against women and children."

Charles the Fifth did not long hold out against the solicitations of the nuncio. The bigotry he inherited from his Flemish and Spanish ancestors, had been successfully fostered by his preceptor, Adrian, who, at a later period, ascended the pontifical throne. But it was necessary to obtain the concurrence of the state. "Convince the Diet," said the youthful monarch. This was exactly what Aleander desired; it was agreed that he should be introduced to the assembly on the 13th of February.

The nuncio duly prepared himself for that solemn audience. It was a weighty task that had been imposed upon him; but Aleander was worthy to sustain it. He was not merely the legate, and representative of the sovereign pontiff, invested with all the outward dignity befitting his exalted functions, he was also one of the most eloquent men of his age. The friends of the Reformation waited the result in some anxiety. The elector, under the pretext of indisposition, absented himself from the sitting; but he instructed some of his counsellors to attend, and to take notes of the nuncio's discourse.

On the appointed day, Aleander proceeded to the imperial assembly. The feelings of the people were strongly excited; many called to mind how Annas and Caiaphas had gone to the judgment-hall of Pilate, to demand the death of him "*who perverted the nation*."§ At the moment when the nuncio had his foot upon the threshold, the usher of the Diet, says Pallavicini, rudely stepping up to him, set his clenched fist against his breast, and thrust him back.|| "He was a Lutheran in his heart," adds the Romish historian. If this anecdote is true, it certainly shows an unseemly excess of passion in the individual, but it also enables us to judge how powerful an effect had been produced by Luther's teaching, even among those who kept the doors of the Germanic council. The high-spirited Aleander, repressing the officer's insolence by his dignified demeanor, walked forward and entered the hall. Never had Rome been summoned to plead her cause before so august an assembly. The nuncio placed before him such documents as he thought necessary to certify the sentence of condemnation, together with the writings of Luther and the papal bulls; and then,

silence having been proclaimed in the Diet, he spoke as follows:

"Most august Emperor! most potent Princes! most excellent Deputies! I appear before you to advocate the cause which engages the warmest affections of my heart. My office is to guard the ever-hallowed tiara that rests on the brows of my master; to uphold that pontifical throne, in whose defence I would gladly deliver my body to the flames, were I only assured that the newly-spawned heresy, which I stand forth to denounce, would perish along with me.*

"I deny the assertion, that the controversy between Luther and Rome is one in which the pope alone is interested. I have Luther's writings here before me, and any man, who has his eyesight, may see that they attack the holy doctrines of the church. He teaches that those alone are worthy communicants, whose consciences are filled with sorrow and confusion on account of their sins, and that baptism justifies no one unless he hath faith in that word of promise of which baptism is the pledge.† He denies the necessity of good works to qualify us for everlasting glory. He denies that we have liberty and power to obey the law of nature and the law of God. He affirms that we sin of necessity in all our actions. Have weapons better fitted than these to sever all the ties of morality ever been drawn from the arsenal of hell?

"He contends for the abrogation of religious vows. What miserable disorder would the world behold, if those who were designed to be the leaven of their race, were to cast aside their sacred vestments, forsake the temples that once resounded with their holy songs, and plunge at once into adultery, incest, and licentiousness.

"Why should I enumerate all the crimes of this audacious monk? He sins against the dead, for he denies the existence of purgatory; he sins against heaven, for he says that he would not believe an angel sent from heaven; he sins against the church, for he maintains that *all* Christians are priests; he sins against the saints, for he treats their venerable writings with contempt; he sins against councils, for he calls the Council of Constance an assembly of devils; he sins against the secular power, for he forbids the punishment of death to be inflicted on any one who has not committed a mortal sin.‡ There are people who tell us he is a man of piety. I will not impugn his private character; I will only remind this assembly, that it is a common thing for the devil to deceive men under the appearance of sanctity."

Aleander next adverted to the decree of the Council of Florence, condemning the doctrine of purgatory, and laid the pope's bull, regarding that council, at the emperor's feet. The Archbishop of Mentz took up the bull, and gave it into the hands of the Archbishops of Cologne and Treves, who received it reverently, and handed it to the other princes. The nuncio having thus preferred his charge against Luther, proceeded in his second object, the justification of Rome.

* *Dummodo mecum una monstrum nascentis hæresis ardeat.* (Pallavicini, i. 97.) Seckendorf, and, after him, other Protestant historians, have asserted that Pallavicini himself is the author of the speech which he puts into the mouth of Aleander. It is true that the cardinal admits having moulded it into the shape in which he presents it to his readers; but he specifies the materials he has used, and among these, Aleander's letters, deposited in the archives of the Vatican. (Acta Wormatiæ, fol. 66 and 99.) I think, therefore, to reject it altogether would be injudicious. I have collected some additional passages of the speech from other sources, Protestant and Romish.

† *Baptismus neminem justificare, sed fidem in verbum promissionis cui additur Baptismus.* (Cochlæus, Act. Luth. 28*.)

‡ *Weil er verbietet jemand mit Todes Strafe zu belâgen der nicht ein Todsünde begangen.* (Seckend. p. 333.)

* *Ut mutuis cædibus assumpti vestro cruore pereatis.* (Ibid. 556.)

† *Libenter etiam morte sua Evangelii gloriam et profectum emerit.* (Corp. Ref. i. 285.)

‡ *Non ferro, sed consiliis et edictis.* (L. Epp. i. 66.)

§ Luke xxiii. 2.

|| *Pugnis ejus pectori admotis repulerit.* (Pallavicini, i. 112.)

"Luther tells us, that at Rome the lips profess what the life belies. If this be true, must not the inference we draw from it be exactly the opposite of his? If the ministers of any religion live in accordance with its precepts, that very token proves the religion to be false. Such was the religion of the ancient Romans. Such is that of Mahomet, and that of Luther himself. But such is not the religion taught us by the Roman pontiffs. No! the doctrine they profess condemns them all, as having failed in their duty; many of them as highly blame-worthy; some, I frankly confess it, as deeply criminal.* . . . By that doctrine their actions are delivered over to the censure of men's tongues, while they live—to the execration of history after their death.† Now, what pleasure, or what profit, I ask, can the pontiffs have proposed to themselves, in inventing a religion like this?

"The church, we shall be told, in the early ages, was not governed by the Roman pontiffs . . . and what is the inference here? If an argument like this is to have any weight, we may next exhort men to feed upon acorns, or princesses of the royal blood to go forth and wash their garments by the river-side!"

But the nuncio's main attack was directed personally against his antagonist, the Reformer. Adverting indignantly to the opinion expressed by some, that Luther ought to be heard: "Luther," cried he, "will allow himself to be set right by no one. Long ago the pope summoned him to Rome, but he obeyed not the call. The pope then required him to appear before his legate, at Augsburg, and he did appear there, when he had obtained a safe conduct from the emperor—that is to say, when the legate's hands were tied, and the use of his tongue alone allowed him.‡ . . . Oh," said Aleander, turning toward Charles, "I beseech your Imperial Majesty not to do that which could only reflect dishonour upon your name. Meddle not with an affair in which the laity have no right to interpose. Discharge the duty that properly devolves upon you. Let Luther's doctrines be proscribed, by your authority, throughout the empire. Let his writings be everywhere committed to the flames. Shrink not from the path of justice. There is enough, in the writings of Luther, to warrant the burning of a hundred thousand heretics.§ And whom have we to fear? The multitude? Their insolence makes them formidable, while the battle is delayed, but when it comes their cowardice will render them contemptible. Foreign princes? Nay! the King of France has issued an edict, to prevent Luther's doctrines from gaining an entrance into his dominions. The King of England is preparing to combat him with his own royal pen. The opinion of Hungary, Italy, and Spain, it is for yourselves to declare, and there is not one of your neighbours, how great soever their hatred against you, who would wish you so much mischief, as this heresy must entail upon you. For if our enemy dwells close beside us, we may, perhaps, desire that the ague should enter his house, but not the plague. What are all these Lutherans? A motley rabble of insolent grammarians, licentious priests, disorderly monks, ignorant advocates, degraded nobles, misled and perverted plebeians. How greatly superior is the Catholic party, in numbers, in intelligence, in power? An unanimous decree of this illustrious assembly, will open the eyes of the simple, show the unwary their danger, determine the wavering, and

strengthen the weak-hearted. But if the axe be not laid to the root of this venomous plant—if the death-blow be not dealt against it—then I behold it covering Christ's heritage with its branches, changing the vineyard of the Lord into a howling wilderness, converting God's kingdom into a haunt of wild beasts, plunging Germany into the same wretched condition of barbarism and desolation to which Asia has been reduced by the superstition of Mahomet."

The nuncio concluded his address. He had spoken for three hours. His impetuous eloquence had produced a strong sensation in the assembly. The princes looked at each other, Cochläus tells us, with countenances that betrayed excitement and alarm, and murmurs were soon heard to arise, from various quarters, against Luther, and those who supported him.* If the energetic Luther had been present to reply to this address—if, taking advantage of those admissions which the remembrance of the infamous Borgia, his former master, had wrung from the Roman orator, he had shown, that the very arguments by which the nuncio attempted to defend Rome, were sufficient to condemn her. If he had demonstrated that the doctrine which bore witness to her iniquity was not that invented by her, as the orator had said, but was that pure religion which Christ had given to the world, and which it was the aim of the Reformation to re-establish in its primitive lustre; if he had drawn a faithful and vivid picture of the errors and abuses of the papacy, and pointed out how it converted the religion of Jesus Christ into an engine of self-aggrandisement and spoliation, the effect of the nuncio's harangue would have been utterly and at once destroyed—but no one rose to speak. The assembly continued under the influence of the address, and, in the first moments of agitation and excitement, it manifested a strong desire to root out the Lutheran heresy from the soil of the empire.†

Nevertheless, this victory was won in appearance only. It was the will of God that Rome should have an opportunity of displaying the utmost strength of her cause with her utmost skill. The greatest of her orators had spoken in this assembly of princes; he had said all that Rome had to say in her own behalf; but to many of those who heard him, this last effort of the papacy was destined to serve as a sign of its abasement. If the open confession of truth be required to secure its triumph, so also the unreserved exhibition of error, is the necessary prelude of its overthrow. Neither of them can accomplish its course in secret. The light brings all things to the test.

A few days were sufficient to efface the impression produced by the speech—as is always the case, when an orator has recourse to high-sounding words, to cover the hollowness of his reasoning. The majority of the princes were ready to sacrifice Luther, but none were disposed to abandon the rights of the empire, or to suppress the grievances of the Germanic nation. They were willing enough to give up the insolent monk, who had dared to speak out so plainly; but their compliance in this particular, entitled them, as they thought, to represent to the pope, more urgently, the justice of a reform, demanded by the concurrent voice of the chiefs of the nation. And, accordingly, it was the most determined of Luther's personal enemies, Duke George, of Saxony, who spoke with the greatest earnestness against the encroachments of Rome. This prince, the grandson of Podiebrad, King of Bohemia, though offended by the doctrine of grace, taught by the Reformer, still looked forward with hope to a Re-

* . . . Multos ut quadrantenus reos, nonnullos (dicam ingenue) ut scelestos. (Pallavicini, i. 101.)

† Linguarum vitupe rationi dum vivunt, historiarum infamia post mortem. (Ibid.)

‡ Quod idem erat ac revinctis legati brachiis et lingua somnolus. (Ibid. 109.)

§ Das 100,000 Ketzer ihrenthalben verbrannt werden. (Seck, p. 392.)

* Vehementer exterriti atque commoti alter alterum intuebantur atque in Lutherum ejusque fautores murmurare pergunt. (Cochläus, p. 28.)

† Lutheram hæresin esse funditis erellendam. (Pallavicini; also Roscoe's Life of Leo X. vol. iv.)

formation, moral and ecclesiastical. The chief cause of his irritation against the Monk of Wittenberg was, that, by those obnoxious doctrines of his, he was spoiling the whole affair. But now, when he found the nuncio studiously involving Luther and the Reformation of the church in one and the same sentence of condemnation, Duke George suddenly stood up to speak in the assembly of the princes, to the great astonishment of those who knew his hostility to the Reformer. "The Diet," said he, must not lose sight of the grievances of which it has to claim redress from the court of Rome. How numerous are the abuses that have crept into our dominions! The annats, which the emperor granted of his free-will, for the good of religion, are now exacted as a due; the Roman courtiers, daily inventing new regulations to favour the monopoly, the sale, the leasing out of ecclesiastical benefices; a multitude of offences connived at; a scandalous toleration granted to rich offenders, while those who have not wherewithal to purchase impunity, are severely punished; the popes continually bestowing reversions and rent-charges on the officers of their palace, to the prejudice of those to whom the benefices rightfully belong; the abbays and convents of Rome, given in *commendam* to cardinals, bishops, and prelates, who apply their revenues to their own use—so that in many convents, where there ought to be twenty or thirty monks, not one is to be found; stations multiplied to excess; shops for indulgences opened in every street and square of our cities; shops of Saint Anthony, of the Holy Ghost, of Saint Hubert, of Saint Vincent, and I know not how many more; societies, contracting at Rome for the privilege of setting up this trade, then purchasing from their bishop the right of exposing their merchandise to sale; and, finally, to meet all this outlay of money, squeezing and draining the last coin out of the poor man's purse; indulgences, which ought to be granted only with a view to the salvation of souls, and procured only by prayer, and fasting, and works of charity—sold for a price; the officials of the bishop, oppressing men of low degree, with penances for blasphemy, or adultery, or drunkenness, or profanation of this or that festival—but never addressing so much as a rebuke to ecclesiastics who are guilty of the same crimes; penances, so devised as to betray the penitent into a repetition of his offence, in order that more money may be exacted from him;* these are but a few of the abuses which cry out on Rome for redress. All shame is laid aside, and one object alone incessantly pursued—money! evermore, money!—so that the very men, whose duty it is to disseminate the truth, are engaged in nothing but the propagation of falsehood; and yet, they are not merely tolerated, but rewarded—because the more they lie, the larger are their gains. This is the foul source from which so many corrupted streams flow out on every side. Profligacy and avarice go hand in hand. The officials summon women to their houses, on various pretences, and endeavour, either by threats or by presents, to seduce them—and, if the attempt fails, they ruin their reputation.† Oh! it is the scandal occasioned by the clergy, that plunges so many poor souls into everlasting perdition. A thorough reform must be effected. To accomplish that reform a general council must be assembled. Wherefore, most excellent princes and lords, I respectfully beseech you to give this matter your immediate attention." Duke George then presented a written catalogue of the grievances he had

enumerated. This happened a few days after Alean-der's address. The important document has been preserved in the archives of Weimar.

Luther himself had not spoken with greater energy against the abuses of Rome, but he had *done* something more. The Duke pointed out the evil—Luther alone, with the evil, had pointed out also its cause and its cure. He had shown that the sinner receives the true *indulgence*—that remission of sins which comes from God—solely by faith in the grace and merits of Christ; and by this simple yet powerful truth he had overthrown all the traffic which had been established by the priests. "How shall a man become holy?" said he one day. "A cordelier will reply: Put on a grey hood, and tie a cord round your middle. A Roman will answer: Hear mass, and fast. But a Christian will say: *Failh in Christ*—and that alone—justifies and saves. We must have eternal life before good works. But when we are born anew and made children of God by the word of grace—then we perform good works."*

The Duke's language was that of a secular prince; Luther's that of a true Reformer. The great sin of the Church was, that she had thrown down the barriers that separated her from the world—that she had converted all her operations and all her benefits into external and material things. In the last stage of her contamination, she had embraced the scheme of indulgences, and the most spiritual blessing that belongs to Christianity—pardon was now to be bought at a stall like food or drink! Luther's great achievement consisted in this—that he took advantage of that extremity of degradation into which Christianity had sunk, to lead back individuals and the Church to the original fountain of life—and to re-establish the supremacy of the Holy Spirit in the sanctuary of the believer's heart. The remedy in this case, as in many others, arose out of the evil itself, and the two extremes touched each other. Henceforward the Church, which for so many ages had been content with an external manifestation by ceremonies, and observances, and practices of human authority, began once more to seek her development within, in faith, hope, and charity.

The Duke's speech produced the greater effect, on account of his well-known opposition to Luther. Other members of the Diet brought forward other grievances. Even the ecclesiastical princes supported these complaints.† "We have a Pontiff," said they, "who is occupied only with pleasure and the chase; the church preferment of Germany is bestowed at Rome on gunners, falconers, valets, ass-drivers, grooms, guardsmen, and other people of the same stamp, ignorant, inexperienced, and strangers to our nation."‡

The Diet nominated a Committee to draw up a list of grievances; the enumeration extended to a hundred and one. A deputation composed of secular and ecclesiastical princes presented this report to the Emperor, with an earnest request that he would do them right in the matter—conformably to the engagement he had contracted on his elevation to the throne. "What a loss of Christian souls," said they to Charles, "what injustice, what extortion are the daily fruits of those scandalous practices to which the spiritual head of Christendom affords his countenance. The ruin and dishonour of our nation must be averted. We, therefore, very humbly, but very urgently, beseech you to sanction a general Reformation, to undertake the work, and to carry it through."§ The Christian community

* L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 748, 752.

* Sondern dass er es bald wieder begehe und mehr Geld erlegen müsse. (Archives of Weimar.—Seckend. p. 328.)

† Das sie Weisbesbilder unter mancherley Schein beschließen selbige sodann mit Drogen un Gheschenken zu fällen suchen, oder in einen bösen Verdacht bringen. (Weimar. Archiv.—Seck. p. 330.)

† Beckend. Vorrede von Frick.

‡ Suchenmeistern, Falknern, Pfistern, Eseltreibern, Stallknechten, Trabanten . . . Kapps Nachlese nützl. (Ref. Urkunden, iii. 262.)

§ Dass eine Besserung und gemeine Reformation geschehe. (ib. 275.)

at this period was operated upon by an unknown power, which descended alike on princes and people—a wisdom from above, which exerted its influence even on the adversaries of reform, and prepared the way for that great deliverance whose appointed hour was now at hand.

Charles could not be insensible to the remonstrances of the Imperial Diet. Neither the Nuncio nor the Emperor had anticipated them. The letter immediately withdrew the edict which commanded Luther's writings to be committed to the flames in every part of the Empire, and issued in its stead a provisional order, that all copies of those writings should be delivered into the hands of the magistrate.

This did not satisfy the assembly; it demanded Luther's appearance. It is unjust, said his friends, to condemn Luther without having heard him, and without having ascertained from his own lips that he is the author of those books which it is proposed to burn. His doctrine, said his adversaries, has taken so fast a hold on men's minds, that it is impossible to check its progress, unless we allow him a hearing. There shall be no disputing with him; and in the event of his acknowledging his writings, and refusing to retract them, we will, with one accord, Electors, Princes, and States of the holy Empire, in firm adherence to the faith of our ancestors, give your Majesty our unsparing aid to carry your decrees into full effect.*

Aleander, disturbed by this proposal, and dreading everything from Luther's intrepidity, and the ignorance of the Princes before whom he would have to plead, made strenuous efforts to prevent his being summoned. After conferring with Charles' ministers, he went to those Princes who were best disposed towards the Pope, and from them to the Emperor himself.† "It is not permitted," said he, "to question what the Sovereign Pontiff has decreed. There shall be no disputing with Luther, you say; but how can we be sure," he continued, "that the genius of this audacious man, the fire that flashes from his eyes, the eloquence of his speech, the mysterious spirit that animates him, will not suffice to excite a tumult.‡ Already there are many who revere him as a saint, and his image is everywhere to be seen encircled with rays of glory, like those which surround the heads of the blessed. If he must needs be cited to appear, beware, at all events, of pledging the public faith for his safety."§ These last words were calculated to intimidate Luther, or to pave the way for his destruction.

The Nuncio found it easy to influence the grandees of Spain. In the intensity of their fanatic zeal, they panted for the annihilation of the new heresy. Frederic, Duke of Alva, in particular, was thrown into a fit of rage, as often as the Reformation was mentioned.¶ It would have delighted him to wade knee-deep in the blood of its proselytes. The summons for Luther's appearance was yet suspended, but his name had become a watchword of startling interest in the ears of all the magnates of Christendom then assembled at Worms.

The man by whom the powers of the earth were thus shaken seemed alone to enjoy peace. The tidings from Worms were alarming; even Luther's friends were dismayed. "Nothing is left to us but your good will and your prayers," wrote Melancthon to Spalatin.

"Oh that God would vouchsafe to make our blood the price of the Christian world's deliverance!"* But Luther, a stranger to all fear, shutting himself up in his quiet cell, fixed his meditations, with an immediate reference to his own case, on these ecstatic words of Mary, the mother of Jesus: "*My soul doth magnify the Lord, and my spirit hath rejoiced in God my Saviour. . . For he that is mighty hath done to me great things; and holy is his name. . . He hath showed strength with his arm. . . He hath put down the mighty from their seats, and exalted them of low degree.*"† Let us review some of the thoughts which passed through Luther's heart. "*He that is mighty. . . saith Mary. Oh what boldness of speech in this young virgin!* By a single word she brands all the strong with weakness—all the mighty with faintness—all the wise with folly—and all those whose name is glorious on the earth with disgrace;—and casts all strength, all might, all wisdom, all glory, at the feet of God alone.‡ . . His arm, she says again—signifying the power by which he acts of himself, without the aid of any of his creatures—that mysterious power which operates in secret and in silence, until it has accomplished all his will. . . Destruction comes when none has marked its approach—deliverance comes when none has dared to look for it. He leaves his children in oppression and misery, so that every one says, within himself, They are past all hope! But even then is He strongest; for when man's strength ends, God's strength begins. Only let faith wait upon him. . . And at another time he suffers his enemies to exalt themselves in their pomp and vain glory. He withdraws from them the succour of his strength, and leaves them to be puffed up with their own glory. He empties them of his eternal wisdom, and permits them to be inflated with their own wisdom, which is but for a day; and then, when the eyes of their fellow men are dazzled with their greatness, God's arm is lifted up, and lo! the fabric they have been rearing disappears in a moment, like a bubble bursting in the air!"

It was on the 10th of March, while the imperial city was trembling at his name, that Luther concluded his commentary on the *Magnificat*.

He was not long to be left undisturbed in his retreat. Spalatin, in obedience to the orders of the elector, sent him a note of the articles which he would be called on to retract. A retraction after his refusal at Augsburg! "Never fear," he wrote to Spalatin, "that I will retract a single syllable, since the only argument they have to urge against me is, that my writings are at variance with the observances of what they call the Church. If our Emperor, Charles, sends for me, only to retract, my answer shall be, that I will remain here, and it will be all the same as though I had been at Worms, and returned again. But if the emperor chooses then to send for me, to put me to death as an enemy to the Empire, I shall be ready to obey his summons: for, by Christ's help, I will never abandon his word in the hour of battle. I know that these blood-thirsty men will never rest till they have taken my life. God grant, that my death may be laid to the charge of the Papists alone!"

The emperor, at length, had formed his resolution. Luther's appearance before the Diet seemed the only probable method of settling the affair which engrossed the attention of the Empire. Charles accordingly resolved to cite him to Worms, but without giving him

* L. Opp. (L.) xxii. 567.

† Quam ob rem sedulè contestatus est apud Cæsaris administratos (Pallav. i. 113.)

‡ Lingua promptus, adore vultus et oris spiritu ad concitandum seditionem. (Ibid.)

§ Haud certe fidem publicam illi præbendam. (Pallavicini, i. 113.)

¶ Alibi dux videbatur aliquando furentibus modis agitari. (Ibid.)

* Utinam Deus redimat nostro sanguine salutem Christiani populi (Corp. Ref. i. 362.)

† Luke i. 48—55

‡ Magnificat. L. Opp. Wittemb. Deutsch. Ausg. iii. 11, &c.

§ Er zieht seine Kraft heraus und lässt sie von eigener Kraft sic auf blasen. (Ibid.)

¶ Si ad me occidendum deinceps vocare velit . . offeram me venturum. (L. Epp. i. 574.)

a safe-conduct. It now became necessary for Frederic once more to assume the part of his protector. The danger which threatened the Reformer was obvious to every one. The friends of Luther, Cochläus remarks, were afraid that he would be delivered up to the pope, or that the emperor would himself cause him to be put to death as an obstinate heretic, who had forfeited every claim to be treated with good faith.* There was a long and earnest debate on this point in the Diet.† Overawed, at last, by the agitation that prevailed in almost every part of Germany, and fearing lest some sudden tumult, or some dangerous insurrection‡ (in favour of the Reformer, doubtless,) should break out in the course of Luther's journey, the princes decided that it was expedient to quiet men's minds in regard to his personal safety, and not only the Emperor, but also the Elector of Saxony, Duke George, and the Landgrave of Hesse, through whose territories he had to pass, gave him severally a safe-conduct.

On the 6th of March, 1521, Charles the Fifth affixed his signature to the following summons, addressed to Luther:—

"Charles, by the grace of God, Emperor elect of the Romans, always August, &c. &c.

"Worshipful, well-beloved, and godly! Whereas we, and the States of the holy Empire here assembled, have resolved to institute an enquiry touching the doctrine and writings which thou hast lately put forth, we have, on our own behalf, and on behalf of the Empire, issued our safe-conduct, hereunto annexed, for thy journey hither, and return to a place of security. Our hearty desire is, that thou shouldst prepare thyself to set out immediately, so that, within the space of twenty-one days, fixed by our safe-conduct, thou mayest without fail present thyself before us. Fear no injustice or violence. We will steadily abide by our safe-conduct aforesaid, and we expect that thou wilt pay obedience to our summons. Such is our earnest injunction.

"Given in our imperial city of Worms, this 6th day of the month of March, in the year of our Lord, 1521, and the second of our reign,

"CHARLES

"By order of my Lord, the Emperor, under his sign manual, ALBERT, Cardinal of Mentz, Arch-Chancellor.

"Nicolas Zwyll."

The safe-conduct enclosed in this writ was directed "To the worshipful, our well-beloved and godly Doctor Martin Luther, of the order of the Augustines."

It began thus:

"We, Charles, the fifth of that name, by the grace of God, Emperor elect of the Romans, always August, King of Spain, of the Two Sicilies, of Jerusalem, of Hungary, of Dalmatia, of Croatia, &c. Archduke of Austria, Duke of Burgundy, Count of Hapsburg, of Flanders, of the Tyrol," &c. &c.

And then this sovereign of so many states, intimating that he has cited a certain Augustine monk, named Luther, to appear in his presence, requires all princes, lords, magistrates, and others, to respect the safe-conduct which he granted to him, under pain of being dealt with as offenders against the Emperor and the Empire.§

Thus did the emperor bestow the appellations of

* Tanquam perfido heretico nulla sit servanda fides. (Cochläus, p. 28.)

† Longa consultatio difficilisque disceptatio. (Ibid.)

‡ Cum autem grandis ubique per Germaniam fore totam excitata esset . . . animorum commotio. (Ibid.)

§ Lucas Cranachs Stambuchs, &c. herausgegeben v. Chr. v. Mecheln. p. 12.

"well-beloved, worshipful, and godly," on a man whom the head of the Church had visited with excommunication. The phraseology of the instrument was designed to remove all mistrust from the mind of Luther and his friends. Gaspar Sturm was appointed to deliver thismissive to the Reformer, and to escort him to Worms. The elector, fearing some outbreak of the popular feeling, wrote, on the 12th of March, to the magistrates of Wittenberg, desiring them to adopt measures for the safety of the emperor's officer, and, if necessary, to furnish him with a guard. The herald took his departure.

Thus was the purpose of God fulfilled. It was his will that this light, which he had kindled in the world, should be set upon a hill; and emperor, kings, and princes, were all busily employed—though they knew it not—in executing what He had appointed. It is an easy thing with Him to raise the meanest to dignity. An act of His power, operating through successive years, suffices to lead the offspring of a Saxon peasant from the lowly cottage of his childhood, to that imperial hall, in which assembled sovereigns awaited his coming. In His presence, none are either small or great, and when He wills it, Charles and Luther meet on the same level.

But will Luther obey the summons? His best friends were in uncertainty on this point. "Dr. Martin," wrote the elector to his brother, on the 21st of March, "is cited to appear here; but I know not whether he will come. I augur nothing but mischief." Three weeks later, on the 16th of April, this excellent prince, perceiving the danger was increasing, wrote again to Duke John as follows:—"A proclamation has been issued against Luther. The cardinals and the bishops are very hard upon him.* God grant that this may end well! Would to God, that I could ensure him a favourable hearing!"

While these things were passing at Worms and Wittenberg, the papacy was renewing its assaults. On the 28th of March, which was the Thursday before Easter, all Rome resounded with a solemn sentence of excommunication. It is the custom at this season to publish the terrible bull *in cæna Domini*, which is nothing but a long string of imprecations. On the day of which we speak, the approaches to the church, in which the Sovereign Pontiff was to officiate in person, were filled at an early hour by the Papal guard, and by a vast multitude that had flocked together from all parts of Italy, to receive the benediction of the Holy Father. The square before the Basilica was decorated with laurel and myrtle, wax candles were burning on the balcony of the church, and beside them was elevated the sacred receptacle of the host. On a sudden the deep sound of bells reverberates through the air;—the Pope, arrayed in his pontifical robes, and borne in an arm-chair, makes his appearance on the balcony; the people fall on their knees; all heads are uncovered; the flags that were waving in the winds are lowered; the troops ground their arms; and a solemn silence ensues. After a pause of some moments, the Pope slowly stretches out his hands, lifts them up towards heaven, and than, making the sign of the cross, lets them gradually fall towards the earth. He repeats these gestures three times. And now again the pealing bells are heard, giving notice, far and wide, of the Pontiff's benediction; and next a train of priests is seen advancing, each with a lighted torch in his hand: as they rush hurriedly along, they swing their torches downwards, they brandish them aloft, they toss them wildly to and fro, like so many fires of hell; the mul-

* Die Cardinäle und Bischöfe sind ihm hart zuwider, (Seckend. p. 365.)

titude are thrilled with awe and terror; and the words of malediction roll heavily above their heads.*

When Luther was apprised of this excommunication, he published the form of it, with some remarks in that caustic style which he knew so well how to assume. Although this publication did not appear till some time afterwards, we shall present some extracts from it here. Let us listen to the high-priest of Christendom, as he speaks from the balcony of his Basilica—and to the monk of Wittenberg, who answers him out of the heart of Germany.†

There is something characteristic in the contrast of the two voices.

THE POPE. "Leo, bishop."

LUTHER. "Bishop! as much as a wolf is a shepherd; for a bishop's duty is to give godly exhortations, not to vomit forth imprecations and curses."

THE POPE. "Servant of all the servants of God. . ."

LUTHER. "In the evening when we are drunk; but next morning we call ourselves Leo, lord of all lords."

THE POPE. "The bishops of Rome, our predecessors, have been wont on this festival to employ the arms of justice. . . ."

LUTHER. "Which, according to your account, are excommunication and anathema: but, according to St. Paul, long-suffering, kindness, love unfeigned."—(2 Cor. vi. 6, 7.)

THE POPE. "According to the duty of the Apostolic charge, and to maintain the purity of the Christian faith. . . ."

LUTHER. "That is to say, the temporal possessions of the Pope."

THE POPE. "And the unity thereof, which consists in the union of the members with Christ their head, . . . and with his Vicar. . . ."

LUTHER. "For Christ is not sufficient, we must have another besides."

THE POPE. "To preserve the holy communion of the faithful, we follow the ancient rule, and accordingly do excommunicate and curse, in the name of God Almighty, the Father. . . ."

LUTHER. "Of whom it is said: '*God sent not his Son into the world to condemn the world.*'"—(John iii. 17.)

THE POPE. "The Son and the Holy Ghost—and by the authority of the Apostles, Peter and Paul, . . . and by our own. . . ."

LUTHER. "OUR OWN, says the ravenous wolf, as though God's might were too weak without him."

THE POPE. "We curse all heretics—the Garasi,† the Patarini, 'the poor men' of Lyons, the Arnoldists, the Speronists, the Passageni, the Wickliffites, the Hussites, the Fraticelli. . . ."

LUTHER. "Because they have sought to possess themselves of the Holy Scriptures, and admonished the Pope to be modest, and preach the Word of God."

THE POPE. "And Martin Luther, recently condemned by us for a like heresy, together with all his adherents, and all persons, whosoever they may be, who aid or abet him."

LUTHER. "I thank thee, most gracious Pontiff, that thou hast proclaimed me in company with all these Christians. It is an honour for me to have my name proclaimed at Rome at the time of the festival, in so glorious a manner, and to have it circulated through-

out the world with the names of all those humble confessors of Christ."

THE POPE. "In like manner, we excommunicate and curse all pirates and corsairs. . . ."

LUTHER. "And who is the greatest of all pirates and corsairs, if it be not he who takes souls captive, and binds them in chains, and delivers them to death?"

THE POPE. ". . . especially such as infest our seas. . . ."

LUTHER. "Our seas? St. Peter, our predecessor, said: '*Silver and gold have I none.*' (Acts iii. 6.) Jesus Christ said, '*The kings of the Gentiles exercise lordship over them; but ye shall not be so.*' (Luke xxii. 25.) But if a wagon laden with hay must give way to a drunken man, how much more fitting is it that St. Peter, and Christ himself, should give way to the Pope!"

THE POPE. "In like manner we excommunicate and curse all those who falsify our bulls and letters apostolical. . . ."

LUTHER. "But God's letters—God's Holy Scriptures—any one may condemn and burn them."

THE POPE. "In like manner we excommunicate and curse all those who intercept any provisions on their passage to our city of Rome. . . ."

LUTHER. "He snarls and bites like a dog that is battling for his bone."*

THE POPE. "In like manner we condemn, and we curse all those who withhold any privileges, dues, tithes, or revenues belonging to the clergy."

LUTHER. "Forasmuch as Christ hath said, '*If any man will sue thee at the law, and take away thy coat, let him have thy cloak also.*' (Matt. v. 40,) and ye have now heard our commentary thereon. . . ."

THE POPE. "Whatever be their station, dignity, order, authority, or rank, be they even bishops or kings."

LUTHER. "'*For there shall be false teachers among you, who shall despise dominion, and speak evil of dignities,*' saith the Scripture." (Jude 8.)

THE POPE. "In like manner we condemn and curse all who in any manner whatsoever shall molest the city of Rome, the kingdom of Sicily, the islands of Sardinia and Corsica, the patrimony of St. Peter in Tuscany, the duchy of Spoleto, the marquise of Ancona, the Campagna, the cities of Ferrara and Benevento, or any other city or territory belonging to the Church of Rome."

LUTHER. "O, Peter, thou poor fisherman! how hast thou become master of Rome, and so many kingdoms besides? I bid thee all hail! Peter, king of Sicily! . . . and fisherman of Bethsaida."

THE POPE. "We excommunicate and curse all chancellors, counsellors, parliaments, procurators, governors, officials, bishops, and others, who shall resist any of our letters admonitory, permissive, prohibitory, mediatory, or executive."

LUTHER. "For the Holy See seeks only to live in idleness, pomp and debauchery—to rule and intimidate—to lie and deceive, to dishonour and seduce, and commit all kinds of evil in peace and security. . . ."

"O Lord, arise! it is not so with us as the papists pretend; thou hast not forsaken us, neither are thine eyes turned away from us."

Such was the dialogue between Leo the Tenth, at Rome, and Martin Luther, at Wittenberg.

The pontiff having concluded his anathemas, the parchment on which they were written was torn up, and its fragments scattered among the people. The crowd was instantly thrown into violent commotion, every one rushed forward, eager to seize a scrap of the terrible

* This ceremony is described in several works, and amongst others in the "Tagebuch einer Reise durch Deutschland und Italien." (Berlin, 1817, iv. 94.) Its principal features are of a higher antiquity than the times of which we treat.

† See, for the Pope's bull and Luther's commentary, "Die Bulla vom Abendessen" (L. Opp. (L.) xviii. 1.)

‡ This is a corrupt orthography: read Gazari or Cathari,

* Gleichwie ein Hund ums Beines willen. (L. Opp. (L.) xviii. 12.)

bull. These were the holy relics that the papacy offered to its followers, on the eve of the great day of grace and expiation. The multitude soon dispersed, and the neighborhood of the Basilica resumed its accustomed stillness. Let us return to Wittenberg.

It was now on the 24th of March, Gaspar Sturm, the imperial herald, had passed through the gates of the city in which Luther resided. He presented himself before the doctor, and delivered into his hands the emperor's writ of summons. It was an anxious and solemn moment for the Reformer. His friends were all panic-struck. Hitherto, not one of the princes, not even Frederic the Wise, had openly espoused his cause. The knights, it is true, had begun to use threatening language; but Charles, in the plenitude of his power, paid small regard to it. Luther, however, preserved his composure. "The papists," said he, observing the distress of his friends, "have little desire to see me at Worms, but they long for my condemnation and death.* No matter! Pray not for me, but for the Word of God. My blood will scarcely be cold before thousands, and tens of thousands, in every land, will be made to answer for the shedding of it. The 'Most Holy' adversary of Christ, the father, and master, and chief of man-slayers, is resolved that it shall be spilt. Amen! The will of God be done! Christ will give me his Spirit, to overcome these ministers of Satan. I despise them while I live; I will triumph over them in death.† They are striving hard, at Worms, to force me to recant. My recantation shall be this: I said formerly that the pope was Christ's vicar, now I say, that he is the adversary of the Lord, and the apostle of the devil." And when he was told that all the pulpits of the Franciscans and Dominicans were ringing with imprecations and maledictions against him:‡ "Oh, how it delights me to hear it!" exclaimed he. He knew that he had obeyed the will of God, and that God was with him. Why then should he fear to set out? Purity of intention, and a conscience void of offence, impart to the servant of God a hidden yet incalculable strength, which never fails him; a strength in which he goes forth against his enemies with that assurance of victory, which no adamant breastplate, no phalanx of trusty spears, can ever afford.

Luther was at this time unexpectedly called on to welcome a man who, like Melancthon, was destined to be his friend through life, as well as to give him present comfort, in the hour of his departure.§ This was a priest, named Bugenhagen, in the thirty-sixth year of his age, who had fled from the rigorous persecution exercised by the Bishop of Camin, and Prince Bogislas, of Pomerania, against all, whether ecclesiastics, citizens, or scholars, who embraced the Gospel.|| Born at Wollen, in Pomerania, (whence he is commonly called Pomeranus,) of a family holding senatorial rank, Bugenhagen, from the age of twenty, had been teaching at Treptow. The young listened eagerly to his instructions; the noble and the learned vied with each other in courting his society. He was a diligent student in the sacred literature, and one who prayed to God to enlighten and direct him.¶ One evening, (it was toward the end of December, 1520,) as he sat at supper, with some friends, a copy of Luther's book, on the *Babylonian Captivity*, was put into his hands. "Since Christ's death," said he, after having glanced it over,

* Damnatum et perditum. (L. Epp. i. 556.)

† . . . ut hos Satanae ministros et contemnam vivens et vicam moriens. (L. Epp. i. 579.)

‡ . . . Quod mirum quae gaudeam. (Ibid. 567.)

§ Venit Wittenbergam paulo ante iter Lutheri ad comitia Wormaticae indicta. (Melch. Adam. vita Bugenagii, p. 314.)

|| Sacerdotes cives et scholasticos in vincula conjecit. (Ibid. p. 313.)

¶ Procesque adjunxit quibus divinitus se re hac doceri petivit. (Melch. Adam. vita Bugenagii, p. 312.)

"there have been many heretics to vex the church; but never yet has there risen up such a pest as the author of this book." Having taken the book home with him, however, and read it once and again, his thoughts underwent a total change. Truths of which he had never dreamed, became palpable to his mind; and returning, a few days afterward, to his companions, he said: "The whole world has been lying in thick darkness. This man—and none but he—has discerned the truth."** Several priests, a deacon, and even the abbot himself, received the pure doctrine of salvation, and, in a short time, by their powerful preaching, they turned their hearers, says an historian, from human superstitions, to put their sole trust in the availing righteousness of Jesus Christ.† Then burst forth the persecution. Many were already groaning in dungeons. Bugenhagen escaped from his enemies, and arrived, as we have seen, at Wittenberg. "He is suffering for the Gospel's sake," said Melancthon, writing, on this occasion, to the elector's chaplain, "where could he seek refuge, but in this asylum of ours, under the protection of our prince?"‡

But by none was Bugenhagen received so joyfully as by Luther. It was agreed between them, that immediately after the Reformer's departure, Bugenhagen should begin to expound the Psalms. Thus did Providence raise up that gifted man, to supply, in part at least, the loss of him whom Wittenberg was about to lose. A year later, Bugenhagen was placed at the head of the church of that city, and he continued to preside over it for six and thirty years. Luther bestowed upon him the emphatic appellation of the *Pastor*.

Luther was now ready to set out. His dejected friends believed that, unless God should interpose by a miracle, he was going to meet his death. Melancthon, far removed from his native soil, had attached himself to Luther with the strong affection of an ardent mind. "Luther," said he, "makes up to me for the loss of all my friends. He is, in my estimation, greater and more wonderful than I know how to express. You remember how Socrates was revered by Alcibiades;§ but my admiration of Luther is of a higher kind, for it is a Christian feeling. And he adds the beautiful, though simple phrase: "As often as I contemplate him, he seems to me, every time, to have grown greater than himself."|| Melancthon wished to bear Luther company in his perils. But their common friends, and doubtless the Reformer himself, opposed his desire. Was not Philip to fill his friend's place? And if the latter should never return, who would then carry on the work of reformation? "Would to God," said Melancthon, as he reluctantly submitted, "I were allowed to set out with him."¶

The vehement Amsdorff at once declared his intention to accompany the doctor. His bold heart delighted in danger—and his lofty spirit did not shrink from appearing before an assembly of kings. The elector had invited to Wittenberg a professor of law, the celebrated John Schurff, son of a physician at St. Gall; a man of remarkably mild disposition, who lived in intimacy with Luther. "He could never find the heart to pass sentence of death upon any criminal,"*** said Luther, speaking of Schurff. Yet this timid

* In Cimieris tenebris versator: hic vir unus et solus verum videt. (Ibid. 313.)

† A superstitionibus ad unicum Christi meritum traducere. (Ibid.)

‡ Corp. Ref. i. 361.

§ Alcibiades was persuaded that the society of Socrates was granted him by the special favour of the gods, for his guidance and protection. (Plutarch, in his Life of Alcibiades.)

|| Quem quoties contempler, se ipso subinde majorem judicio. (Corp. Ref. i. 264.)

¶ Utinam licuisset mihi una proficisci. (Ibid. 365.)

** L. Opp. (W.) xxii. 2067. 1819.

man desired to be present with the doctor, as his adviser, in the course of his hazardous journey. Peter Suaven, a young Danish student, who lodged in Melancthon's house, and was afterward famous for his preaching of the Gospel in Pomerania and Denmark, also announced that he would accompany his 'father.' It was fit that the youth of these schools should have some one to represent it, at the side of the champion of truth.

All Germany was moved at the thought of the dangers which threatened one who was the people's representative. She found a voice that was worthy of her to express her alarms. Ulrich Hutten, trembling at the thought of the blow the country was on the eve of sustaining, wrote, on the 1st of April, to Charles V. himself: "Most excellent Emperor, you are about to involve yourself and us in one common ruin. What is the object of this procedure against Luther, unless it be the destruction of our liberty and the downfall of your power. Throughout the empire there is no man but takes a lively interest in this matter.* The priests alone are opposed to Luther, because he has stood forth against their overgrown power, shameful luxury, and depraved conduct, and pleaded for the Christian doctrine, the national liberties, and purity of morals.

"O Emperor, no longer countenance those Romish advocates, those bishops and cardinals who would hinder all reformation. Have you not noticed the sadness of the people when they beheld your arrival, approaching the Rhine, surrounded with those red hats—a troop of priests, instead of a cohort of valiant warriors?

"Give not up your sovereign majesty to those who would trample it under their feet. Take pity on us, and do not involve the whole nation in your own ruin. Lead us into the midst of dangers—against sword and cannon—let all nations conspire, and their armies come against us, so that we may prove our courage in the face of day, and not be conquered and enslaved, darkly and secretly, as if we were women unarmed and unresisting. . . . Alas, we hoped that you would deliver us from the Roman yoke, and dethrone the Pontiff's tyranny. God grant that the future may be happier than these beginnings.

"All Germany is at your feet,† imploring your help, your compassion, your fidelity; appealing to those German heroes, who stood erect before the proud city, when the whole world beside were its subjects, and conjuring you to save her—to restore her to what she once was—to deliver her from slavery, and avenge her on her tyrants.

Thus spoke the German nation to Charles the Fifth, by the mouth of Ulrich Hütten. The emperor paid no attention to this appeal, and, it is probable, threw the letter contemptuously to one of his secretaries. He was a Fleming, not a German. His personal power, and not the liberty or glory of the empire, was the object of his desire.

It was the 2d of April. Luther was to take leave of his friends. After having apprized Lange, by letter, that he would spend the Thursday or Friday following at Erfurth,‡ he bade adieu to his colleagues. Turning to Melancthon, he said, with deep emotion:—"If I never return, and my enemies should take my life, cease not, dear brother, to teach and stand fast in the truth. Labour in my stead, since I can no longer work. If thy life be spared, my death will matter little." Then committing his soul to him who is faithful, Luther step-

ped into the wagon, and quitted Wittemberg. The town-council had furnished him with a plain carriage, covered with an awning, which the travellers might throw back or draw over them at pleasure. The Imperial herald, in full costume, and wearing the imperial eagle, went before, on horseback, and was followed by his servant. Then came Luther, Schurff, Amsdorff, and Suaven, in their open wagon. The burghers of Wittemberg, to whom the Gospel was precious, sorrowing and in tears, invoked the blessing of God upon his journey. Luther set forth.

He soon had occasion to observe, that gloomy sentiments filled the hearts of those he met. At Leipsic no honours were paid him, beyond the customary offering of wine. At Naumburg he met a priest, probably J. Langer, a man of stern zeal, who kept hung up in his study a portrait of the celebrated Jerome Savonarola, of Ferrara, who perished in the flames at Florence, in the year 1498, by order of Pope Alexander the Sixth—a martyr to liberty and morals, rather than a confessor of the Gospel. Taking down the portrait of the Italian martyr, the priest held it forth in silence, as he approached Luther. The latter well understood the import of this silent action, but his intrepid spirit was unmoved. "It is Satan," he remarked, "who seeks, by these terrors, to hinder the confession of the truth in the assembly of the princes, for he foresees the effect it will have upon his kingdom." "Stand fast in the truth thou hast professed," replied the priest, gravely, "and thy God will never forsake thee!"†

Having passed one night at Naumburg, where the burgo-master had received him hospitably, Luther arrived on the following evening at Weimar. He had scarcely alighted, when he heard the voices of the criers on all sides. They were proclaiming his sentence. "Look there," said the herald. He turned his eyes, and beheld with astonishment the emperor's messengers passing from street to street, everywhere placarding the imperial edict, enjoining all men to bring in his writings to the magistrates. Luther saw clearly that these vigorous proceedings were designed to stay his further progress—by working upon his apprehensions—and, after that, to condemn him as having refused to appear. "Well, doctor, will you go any further?" asked the herald, in alarm. "Yes," replied Luther, "though I should be put under interdict in every town, I will go on. I rely on the emperor's safe-conduct."

At Weimar, Luther had an audience of Duke John, brother to the Elector of Saxony, who was then residing in that city. The prince requested him to preach, and he consented. Words of life-giving power flowed forth from his swelling heart. A Franciscan monk, John Voit, a friend of Frederic Myconius, was on that occasion converted to the Gospel. Two years afterward he left the convent, and became, subsequently, professor of theology at Wittemberg. The Duke assisted Luther with money for his journey.

From Weimar the Reformer repaired to Erfurth. It was the town in which his youth had been passed. He expected to find there his friend Lange; if, as he had written word, there was no risk incurred by entering the town.‡ As he came within three or four leagues of the place, nigh the village of Nora, he saw at a distance a troop of horsemen. Were they friends or foes? Rapidly Crotus, rector of the university, Eobanus Esse, the friend of Melancthon, (styled by Luther the prince of poets,) Euricius Cordus, John Draco, and others, to the number of forty, senators, students, and

* Terrorem hunc a Sathanà sibi dixit adferri . . . (Melch. Adam. p. 117.)

† Er wollte bey der erkandten Wahreheit mit breytem Fuss anshalten . . . (Mathesius, p. 23—first edition, 1566.)

‡ Nulli periculum sit Erfordiam ingredi. (L. Epp. i. 680.)

* Neque enim quam lata est Germania, ulli boni sunt. . . . (L. Opp. lat. ii. 182.)

† Duc nos in manifestum potius periculum, duc in ferrum, duc in ignes. (Ibid. 183.)

‡ Omnem nunc Germaniam quasi ad genua provolutam tibi . . . (L. Opp. lat. ii. 594.)

§ L. Epp. i. 680.

burghers, welcomed him with joyful acclamations. A crowd of the population of Erfurth met him in the road, and cheered him as he drew nigh, eager to behold the mighty monk who had dared to give battle to the pope.

A young man, of twenty-eight years of age, named Justus Jonas, preceded the party.* Jonas, after studying the law, at Erfurth, had been elected rector of the university, in 1519. Receiving the light of the Gospel, which was then beaming forth in all directions, he had conceived the wish to devote himself to sacred learning. "I think," said Erasmus, in writing to him, "that God has chosen you as his instrument to make known to others the glory of his Son Jesus."† The thoughts of Jonas were all turned toward Luther at Wittenberg. Some years before, when he was yet a student of law, his enterprising spirit had led him, in company with a few friends, to make a journey on foot, through forests infested by thieves, and across a country ravaged by the plague, in order to visit Erasmus, who was then at Brussels. And shall he not brave dangers of another kind, to accompany the Reformer to Worms? He entreated Luther to allow him to join him, and Luther consented. This was the first meeting of the two doctors, who were destined to pass their whole lives in labouring together for the revival of the church. Divine Providence was assembling around Luther men who were destined to be the lights of Germany: Melancthon, Amsdorff, Bugenhagen, Jonas. After his return from Worms, Jonas was elected provost of the church of Wittenberg, and Doctor of Divinity. "Jonas," continued Luther, "is a man whose continued life on this earth is worth any purchase."‡ No preacher had more power of captivating his hearers. "Pomeranus is exegetical," said Melancthon; "I am a logician; Jonas is the preacher. Words flow beautifully from his lips, and his eloquence is full of energy. But Luther excels in all."§ It appears that, about this time, a friend of Luther's childhood, and also one of his brothers, joined him in his suite.

The deputation from Erfurth had turned their horses' heads. They entered its walls, on horseback and on foot, surrounding Luther's wagon. At the city gate, in the public squares, and in those streets where the poor monk had so often begged a morsel of bread, a crowd of spectators was assembled. Luther alighted at the convent of the Augustines. Lange welcomed him with joy. Usingen, and some of the more aged friars, manifested considerable coolness. He was requested to preach. Preaching had been forbidden him; but the herald himself, carried away by the feelings of those about him, gave his consent.

On the Sunday after Easter, the church of the Augustines, of Erfurth, was crowded to excess. The brother, whose duty it once was to unclothe the gates, and sweep out the aisles, ascended the pulpit, and, opening the Bible, read these words: "*PEACE be unto you: and when Jesus had so said, he showed unto them his hands and his side.*" John xx. 19, 20. "Philosophers, learned doctors, and writers," said he, "have all laboured to show how man can attain to eternal life, and they have all failed. I am now to tell you the way."

In every age this has been the great question; accordingly, his hearers were all attention.

"There are two kinds of works," continued the Re-

former: "works not of ourselves, and these are good works; and our own works, and they are but little worth. One builds a church; another goes a pilgrimage to St. James's, or St. Peter's; a third fasts, prays, assumes the cowl, and goes barefoot; another does something else. All these are of no value, and will pass away; for our own works are powerless. But I am about to declare to you what is work indeed. God has raised up a Man, the Lord Jesus Christ, that He might destroy death, finish transgression, and close the gates of hell. This is the work of salvation. The devil thought he had the Lord in his grasp, when he saw him between two thieves, suffering a shameful death, under the curse of God and men. But the Godhead displayed its power, destroying *Death, Sin, and Hell. . .*"

"Christ has overcome!—this is the great news!—and we are saved by his work, not by our own. The pope teaches a different doctrine. But I affirm, that even the holy mother of God is saved neither by her virginity, nor by her maternity; nor yet by her purity or her works—but solely by means of faith, and by the operation of God. . ."

While Luther was preaching, a noise was suddenly heard in one of the galleries, and it was thought it was giving way, from the weight of the crowd. This caused much confusion in the auditory. Some rushed from their places, others were motionless from fear. The preacher stopped for a moment—then, stretching forth his hand, he exclaimed aloud, "Fear not—there is no danger—the devil is seeking to throw hinderances in the way of my preaching the Gospel—but he shall not gain his point."* At his bidding, those that were leaving the place stopped, astonished and constrained. The assembly resumed its calmness, and Luther proceeded, not regarding the temptations of the devil. "Some, perhaps, will say, you talk to us much about Faith, teach us, then, how to obtain it. Well, agreed! I will show you how. Our Lord Jesus Christ said, '*Peace be unto you!*' '*Behold my hands!*' That is to say, Look, O man! it is I, I alone, who have taken away thy sin, and redeemed thee, and now thou hast peace, saith the Lord."

"I," continued Luther, "ate not the fruit of the tree—no more did you; but we have received the sin transmitted to us by Adam, and we have sinned. In like manner, I suffered not on the cross—no more did you; but Christ suffered for us. We are justified by the work of God, and not by our own. I myself, saith the Lord, am thy righteousness and thy Redeemer."

"Believe the Gospel—believe St. Paul—and not the letters and decretals of the popes."

Luther, after preaching faith, as justifying the sinner, proceeds to preach works, as the fruits and evidence of our being saved.

"Since God has saved us, let us so order our works that he may take pleasure in them. Art thou rich?—let thy riches be the supply of other men's poverty. Art thou poor?—let thy service minister to the rich. If thy labour is for thyself alone, the service thou offerest to God is a mere pretence."†

Not a word concerning himself did Luther find place for in this sermon; nor yet for any allusion to the circumstances in which he stood. Not a word concerning Worms, the emperor, or the nuncios; he preached Christ, and Him alone. In a moment when the eyes of all the world were turned on him, he had no thought uppermost for himself—it is a mark of the faithful servant of God.

Luther took his departure from Erfurth, and passed through Gotha, where he again preached. Myconius adds, that after the sermon, when the congregation

* Hos inter, qui nos prævenerant, ibat Jonas, ille decus nostri, primaque fama Chori. (Eob. Hessi. Elegia secunda.)

† Velut organum quoddam electum ad illustrandam filii sui Jesu gloriam. (Erasmii Epp. v. 27.)

‡ Vir est quem oportuit multo pretio emptum et servatum in terra. (Weismann. i. 1436.)

§ Pomeranus est grammaticus, ego sum dialecticus, Jonas est orator. Lutherus vero nobis omnibus antecellit. (Knapp Narrat. de J. Jona. p. 681.)

* Agnosco insidias, hostis acerbe, tuas. (Hessi. Eleg. tertia.)

† L. Opp. (L.) xii. 485.

were leaving, the devil detached from the pediment of the church some stones that had not moved for two hundred years. The doctor took a night's rest in the convent of the Benedictines, at Reinhardtsbrunn, and proceeded from thence to Eisenach, where he was suddenly taken ill. Amsdorff, Jonas, Schurf, and all his friends, were alarmed. They bled him, and were unremitting in their attentions. The Schulthess of the town, John Oswald, brought him a cordial; Luther having taken it, had some sleep, and, refreshed by rest, was enabled to resume his journey on the following morning.

Everywhere, as he passed, the people of the country flocked round him.* His progress resembled a triumph. Men contemplated with interest the bold man who was going to present himself, bare-headed, before the emperor and the empire.† A dense crowd accompanied his steps, discoursing with him. "Ah!" said some, "there are plenty of cardinals and bishops at Worms! . . . You will be burnt alive, and your body reduced to ashes, as they did with John Huss." But nothing daunted the monk. "Though they should kindle a fire whose flame should reach from Worms to Wittenberg, and rise up to heaven, I would go through it in the name of the Lord, and stand before them—I would enter the jaws of the behemoth, break his teeth, and confess the Lord Jesus Christ."‡

One day, when he had entered into an inn, and the crowd was, as usual, pressing about him, an officer made his way through, and thus addressed him: "Are you the man who has taken in hand to reform the papacy? . . . How can you expect to succeed?" "Yes," answered Luther, "I am the man. I place my dependence upon that Almighty God, whose word and commandment is before me." The officer, deeply affected, gazed on him with a mild expression, and said: "Dear friend, there is much in what you say; I am a servant of Charles, but your Master is greater than mine. He will help and protect you."§ Such was the impression that Luther produced. Even his enemies were awed by the sight of the crowd that surrounded him; but they have depicted his progress in very different colours.|| At length the doctor reached Frankfort, on Sunday, the 14th of April.

Accounts of Luther's progress had, before this, reached Worms. The pope's partizans had not expected that he would obey the emperor's summons. Albert, Cardinal-Archbishop of Mentz, would have given the world to stop him on his journey; new expedients were resorted to for this purpose.

Luther rested a short time at Frankfort; from thence he wrote to Spalatin, who was then with the elector, at Worms, announcing his approach. It is the only letter he wrote during the journey. "I am arrived here," said he, "although Satan has sought to stop me in my way by sickness. From Eisenach to this place, I have been suffering, and I am, at this moment, in worse condition than ever. I find that Charles has issued an edict to terrify me; but Christ lives, and we shall enter Worms in spite of all the councils of hell, and all the powers of the air.¶ Therefore, engage a lodging for me."

Next day Luther visited the learned school of Wil-

* Iter facienti occurrebant populi. (Pallavicini, Hist. C. Tr. i. 114.)

† Quacunque iter faciebant, frequens erat concursus hominum, vidend. Lutheri studio. (Cochleus, p. 29.)

‡ Ein Feuer das bis an den Himmel reichte. . . (Keil. i. 90.)

§ Nun habet Ihr einen grossen Herrn, denn Ich. (Keil. i. 90.)

|| In diversoribus multa propinatio, læta compositio, musices quoque gaudia: adeo ut Lutherus ipse alicubi sonora testudine ludens, omnium in se oculos converteret, velut Orpheus quidem, sed rarus adhuc et cuculatus eoque mirabilior. (Cochleus, p. 29.)

¶ Intrabimus Wormatiam, invitis omnibus portis inferni et potentatibus æris. (L. Epp. i. 987.)

liam Nesse, the celebrated geographer of that age. "Apply yourselves," said he, "to the reading of the Bible, and the investigation of truth." Then, laying his right hand on one, and his left on another, he pronounced his blessing on all the scholars.

If Luther was thus engaged in blessing children, he was not less the hope of aged Christians. A widow of great age, who served God with her heart, Catherine of Holzhausen, came to him with these words: "My father and mother predicted to me, that God would one day raise up a man who should oppose the vanities of the pope, and rescue the Word of God. I hope you are that man; and I wish you the grace and Holy Spirit of God for your help."*

These feelings were very far from being general at Frankfort. John Cochleus, dean of the Church of our Lady, was a devoted adherent of the Roman Church. He could not repress his fears, at sight of Luther, in his passage through Frankfort, on his way to Worms. He felt that the church had need of zealous defenders. It mattered little that he had not been called upon. Scarcely had Luther left the city, when Cochleus set out after him, ready, as he said, to lay down his life in defence of the honour of his church.†

The panic was great among the partizans of the pope. The heresiarch was approaching; every day, every hour, brought him nearer. Once at Worms, and all might be ruined. The archbishop, Albert, the confessor, Glapio, and all the political advisers of the emperor, were in dismay. How to stop the monk, was the question. To seize and carry him off, was not to be thought of, for he was furnished with Charles's safe-conduct. Artifice alone could compass the end. Instantly they devise the following plan. The emperor's confessor, and his grand chamberlain, Paul, of Amsdorff, set out in haste from Worms.‡ They direct their course toward the chateau of Ebernburg, distant about ten leagues, and the residence of Francis Sickingen, the knight who had offered Luther an asylum. Bucer, a young Dominican, and chaplain to the elector palatine, converted to the Gospel at the period of the conference at Heidelberg, had sought refuge, and was then residing in this "abode of the righteous." The knight, who was not well versed in matters of religion, was easily imposed upon; and the character of the former chaplain to the palatine, favoured the views of the confessor. In fact, Bucer was disposed for peace. Distinguishing fundamental from secondary truths, he thought he might sacrifice the latter, for the sake of peace and unity.§

The chamberlain, and Charles's confessor, opened the business. They gave Sickingen and Bucer to understand, that if Luther were once in Worms, it would be all over with him. They declared that the emperor was ready to send certain learned men to Ebernburg, there to talk over matters with the Doctor. "Both parties," said they to the knight, "will put themselves under your protection." And to Bucer, they said, "We agree with Luther on all essential things—the only questions between us relate to some secondary points. You will act as mediator between us." The knight and the doctor were shaken. The confessor and the chamberlain continued—"The invitation must come from you," said they to Sickingen, "and Bucer must be the bearer of it."|| The whole project was agreed to, according to their wish. Only let Luther credulously

* Ich hoffe dass du der Verheissene . . . (Cyp. Hilar. Ev. p. 608.)

† Lutherum illac transeuntem subsequutus, ut pro honore ecclesiæ vitam suam . . . exponeret. (Cochleus, p. 36.)

‡ Dass der Keyser seinen Beichtvater und Ihrer Majest. Ober Kammerling, zu Sickingen schickt. (L. Opp. xvii. 687.)

§ Condoce faciebant τα αναγκαία a probabilibus distinguere, ut scirent quæ retinenda . . . (M. Adam. Vit. Buceri, p. 223.)

† Dass er sollte den Luther zu sich fodern. (L. Opp. xvii. 387.)

obey their invitation to Ebernburg, and the term of his safe-conduct will soon expire:—then who can protect him?

Luther had reached Oppenheim. In three days his safe-conduct would be void. A troop of horsemen were seen approaching, and soon he recognized the same Bucer with whom he had held such intimate conversations at Heidelberg.* “These horsemen belong to Francis Sickingen,” said Bucer, after the first greetings. “He has sent me to conduct you to his fortress.† The emperor’s confessor desires a conference with you. His influence with Charles is unbounded:—everything may yet be arranged; but have nothing to do with Aleander!” Jonas, Amsdorff, Schurff, knew not what to think. Bucer urged him:—but Luther never faltered. “I shall go on,” answered he, “and if the emperor’s confessor has anything to say to me, he will find me at Worms. I repair to the place of summons.”

In the meanwhile, Spalatin himself began to be disturbed with apprehensions. Situate in the midst of enemies of the Reformation, he heard it said on all sides that the heretic’s safe-conduct would be disregarded. His friendship took the alarm. At the moment when Luther was approaching the city, a servant met him, and delivered him a message from the chaplain: “Abstain from entering Worms.” And this from Spalatin himself, the elector’s confidential adviser! Luther, still unshaken, turned his eyes on the messenger, and answered, “Go tell your master, that though there should be as many devils at Worms, as there are tiles on its roofs, I would enter it.”‡ At no time had the grandeur of Luther’s spirit been more evidenced. The messenger re-entered Worms, and delivered the astounding declaration. “I was then intrepid,” (a few days before his death,) “I feared nothing. God can give this boldness to man. I know not whether now I should have so much liberty and joy.” “When our cause is good,” adds his disciple, Mathesius, “the heart expands and gives courage and energy to the evangelist and the soldier.”§

At last, on the morning of the 16th of April, Luther discovered the walls of the ancient city. All were expecting him. But one subject occupied the thoughts of the citizens. Some young nobles, Bernard, of Kirschfeld, Albert Lindenau, with six mounted cavaliers, and other gentlemen of the prince’s retinue, to the number in all of a hundred, (according to Pallavicini,) in their impatience, rode out of the city to meet him, and surrounding his travelling car, escorted him to the gates. He went forward. The Imperial herald galloped before, attired in the vestments of his office. Luther came next, in his modest vehicle. Jonas followed on horseback, and the party of horsemen surrounded him. A vast crowd was awaiting his arrival at the gates. At ten o’clock he entered within those walls, whence so many had predicted to him that he would never again depart. Behold him in Worms!

Two thousand persons accompanied the famed monk of Wittenberg through the streets of the city. People ran to their doors to see him. The crowd was increasing every moment—and was even greater than at the public entry of the emperor himself. Of a sudden, says an historian, a man clothed in grotesque habiliments, and bearing before him a lofty cross, as is customary at funerals, penetrated through the crowd, and advanced toward Luther:—then, with the shrill and plaintive cadence in which the priests perform masses

for the repose of the dead, he chanted these words, as if he were uttering them from the abode of departed spirits—

Advenisti, O desiderabilis!
Quem expectabamus in tenebris!*

Thus was Luther’s arrival celebrated by a *requiem*. It was the court fool of one of the Dukes of Bavaria, who, (if the account may be depended upon,) thus gave to Luther one of those warnings, replete at once with solemn instruction and irony, of which so many instances are on record. But the shouts of the crowd soon drowned the *de profundis* of the cross-bearer. The procession made its way with difficulty through the people. At last, the herald of the Empire stopped before the hotel of the Knights of Rhodes. It was there that Frederic of Thun, and Philip Feilitzsch, two counsellors of the elector, and Ulric Pappenheim, the Marshal of the Empire, had taken up their abode. Luther alighted from his wagon, and, as he set foot on the ground, exclaimed, “God will be my defence.”† “I entered Worms” said he, at a later period, “in an open cart and in a monk’s frock. And every one came out into the streets, desiring to see friar Martin.”‡

The intelligence of his arrival was received with alarm by the Elector of Saxony and Aleander. Albert, the young and accomplished Archbishop, whose mind was in a middle position, was dismayed at this daring step. “If I had no more courage than the Archbishop,” said Luther, “true it is, they would never have seen me at Worms.”

Charles V. instantly convoked his council. The confidential adviser of the emperor repaired in haste to the palace—for the fear had communicated to them. “Luther is come,” said Charles, “what must be done?”

Modo, Bishop of Palermo, and Chancellor of Flanders, answered, according to the testimony of Luther:—“We have long thought of this matter. Let your Majesty rid yourself at once of this man. Did not Sigismund bring John Huss to the stake? One is under no obligation, either to give or to observe a safe-conduct in the case of heretics.”§ “Not so,” said Charles, “what we promise we should observe and keep.” It was, therefore, agreed, that the Reformer should be heard.

While the great were thus planning how to deal with Luther, there were not a few in Worms rejoicing in the opportunity of at last beholding this distinguished servant of God. Capito, chaplain and counsellor of the Archbishop of Mentz, was of their number. This remarkable man, who, a little while before, had preached the Gospel in Switzerland with much liberty||—though he then owed it to the station he filled, to pursue a course which exposed him to the charge of cowardice from the Evangelical preachers, and of dissimulation from the Romanists.¶ Yet at Mentz, he had preached the doctrine of faith with great clearness. When he was leaving that city, he had arranged for his place being supplied by a young and zealous preacher, named Hedion. The word of God was not bound in that ancient seat of the German primacy. The Gospel was eagerly listened to; in vain did the monks attempt to preach from the Scriptures after their manner; in vain did they make every effort to arrest the impulsion given to men’s minds. Their failure was

* Thou art come whom we desired—whom we waited for in the regions of darkness!

† Deus stabit pro me. (Pallavicini, i. 114)

‡ L. Opp. xvii. 586.

§ . . . Dass ihre Majestät den Luther aufs erste beyseithäte und umbringen liess. . . (Ibid.)

|| Book VIII.

¶ Astutia plusquam vulpina vehementer callidum . . . Lutherum versutissime dissimulabat. (Cochläus, p. 36.)

* Da kam Bucer zu, mit Etlichen Return. (Ibid.)

† Und wollte mir überreden zu Sickingen gen Ebernburg zu kommen (L. Opp. xvii. 577.)

‡ Wenn so viel Teufel zu Wormn wären, als Ziegel auf den Dächern noch wohl ich hinein! (L. Opp. (L. xvii. 587.)

§ So wachst das Herz im Leibe . . . (Math. p. 24.)

complete.* But while preaching the new doctrine, Capito sought to maintain friendly relations with its persecutors—with a few of the same opinions, he flattered himself that he might, in this way, render great service to the Church. To hear them talk, one might have thought that if Luther was not burnt, and his followers excommunicated, it was only owing to the influence that Capito possessed with the Archbishop.† Cochläus, dean of Frankfurt, arriving at Worms at the same time as Luther, repaired direct to Capito's residence. The latter, who at least was outwardly on very friendly terms with Aleander, introduced Cochläus to him, becoming thus a connecting link between the Reformer's two great enemies.‡ Doubtless Capito imagined that he did service to the cause of Christ, by keeping up these appearances; but it would be impossible to show any good effect flowing from them. The event almost always disconcerts such calculations of human policy, proving that a decided course, while it is the most frank, is also most wise.

Meanwhile crowds continued to gather outside the hotel of Rhodes where Luther had alighted. Some had conceived an idea of him as a prodigy of wisdom; others as a monster of iniquity. Every one desired to see him.§ They left him, however, a few hours to recruit himself after his journey, and discourse with his most intimate friends. But as soon as the evening closed in, counts, barons, knights, gentlemen, ecclesiastics, and citizens, flocked about him. All, even those most opposed to him, were struck with his courageous bearing—the joy that beamed in his countenance—the power of his eloquence, and the solemn elevation and enthusiasm which gave to the words of a single monk a sort of irresistible authority. But some ascribed this grandeur to a something divine; while the partisans of the Pope loudly exclaimed that he was possessed by a devil.|| Visitors poured in, and the succession of the curious kept Luther in his bed till a late hour.

On the next morning, 17th of April, the hereditary Marshal of the Empire, Ulric Pappenheim, cited him to appear at four o'clock in the afternoon in presence of his Imperial Majesty and of the States of the Empire. Luther received the message with profound respect.

Thus all things were ready. He was about to appear for Jesus Christ before the most august of all assemblies. Encouragements were not wanting. The bold knight, Ulrich Hutten, was then in the castle of Ebernburg. Prevented coming to Worms, (for Leo the Tenth had desired Charles to send him bound hand and foot to Rome,) he resolved at least to stretch out the hand of friendship to Luther, and on the same day, 17th of April, he wrote to him, adopting the words of the king of Israel:—"The Lord hear thee in the day of trouble: the name of the God of Jacob defend thee: send thee help out of Zion: grant thee according to thine own heart, and fulfil all thy counsel."¶ O beloved Luther, my venerated father! . . . fear not and stand firm. The counsels of the wicked have laid wait for you, they have opened their mouths against you like roaring lions. But the Lord will arise against them and put them to flight. Fight, therefore, valiantly, the battle of Christ. For my part, I too will fight boldly. Would to God I might be allowed to face their frowns. But the Lord will deliver his Vine, that the wild boar

of the forest has laid waste . . . Christ preserve you!*" . . . Bucer did what Hutten was prevented doing; he made the journey from Ebernburg to Worms, and never left his friend during his stay there.†

But Luther looked not to men for his strength. "He who, attacked by the enemy, holds up the buckler of Faith," said he one day, "is like Perseus presenting the head of the Gorgon. Whoever looks upon it is struck dead. It is thus that we should hold up the Son of God against the snares of the devil."‡ On the morning of this 17th April, he was for a few minutes in deep exercise of mind. God's face seemed to be veiled, and—his faith forsook him:—his enemies seemed to multiply before him, and his imagination was overcome by the aspect of his dangers. His soul was like a ship driven by a violent tempest, rocked from side to side—one moment plunged in the abyss, and the next carried up to heaven. In that hour of bitter trial—when he drank of the cup of Christ—an hour which to him was as the garden of Gethsemane, he threw himself with his face upon the earth, and uttered those broken cries, which we cannot understand, without entering, in thought, into the anguish of those deeps from whence they rose to God.§ "Oh God, Almighty God everlasting! how dreadful is the world! behold how its mouth opens to swallow me up, and how small is my faith in Thee! . . . Oh! the weakness of the flesh, and the power of Satan! If I am to depend upon any strength of this world—all is over. . . . The knell is struck. . . . Sentence is gone forth. . . . O God! O God! O thou, my God! help me against all the wisdom of this world. Do this, I beseech thee; thou shouldst do this. . . . by thy own mighty power. . . . The work is not mine, but Thine. I have no business here. . . . I have nothing to contend for with these great men of the world! I would gladly pass my days in happiness and peace. But the cause is Thine, . . . and it is righteous and everlasting! O Lord! help me! O faithful and unchangeable God! I lean not upon man. It were vain! Whatever is of man is tottering, whatever proceeds from him must fail. My God! My God! dost thou not hear? My God! art thou no longer living? Nay, thou canst not die! Thou dost but hide Thyself. Thou hast chosen me for this work. I know it! . . . Therefore, O God, accomplish thine own will! Forsake me not, for the sake of thy well-beloved Son, Jesus Christ, my defence, my buckler, and my strong hold."

After a moment of silent struggle, he continued, "Lord—where art thou? . . . My God, where art thou? . . . Come! I pray thee, I am ready. . . . Behold me prepared to lay down my life for thy truth. . . . suffering like a lamb. For the cause is holy. It is thine own! . . . I will not let thee go! no, nor yet for all eternity! And though the world should be thronged with devils—and this body, which is the work of thine hands, should be cast forth, trodden under foot, cut in pieces, . . . consumed to ashes, . . . my soul is thine. Yes, I have thine own word to assure me of it. My soul belongs to thee, and will abide with thee for ever! Amen! O God send help! . . . Amen!"||

This prayer discloses to us Luther and the Reformation.¶ History here lifts the veil of the sanctuary, and discovers the secret source whence strength and courage descended to the humble and despised man, who was God's instrument, to set at liberty the soul and thought of man, and open a new age. Luther and

*Evangelium audiunt avidissime, verbum Dei alligatum non est. Caspar Hedio Zw. Epp. p. 167.

†Lutherus in hoc districtu dudum esset combustus, Lutherani ἀποκρινόμενοι, nisi Capito aliter persuasisset principi. (Ibid. 148.)

‡Hic (Capito) illum (Cochläum) insinuatit Hieronymo Aleandro, nuncio Leonis X. (Cochläus, p. 36.)

§Eadem die tota civitas sollicitè confluit. . . . (Pallavicini, 1. 114.)

||Nescio quid divinum suspicabantur; ex adverso alii male demone obsessum existimabant. (Ibid.) ¶Psa. xx.

*Servet to Christus. (L. Opp. ii. 175.)

†Bucerus eodem venit. (M. Adam. Vit. Buceri, p. 212.)

‡Also sollen wir den Sohn Gottes als Gorgonis Haupt. . . . (L. Opp. (W.) xvi. 1653.)

§L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 598.

||Die Glocke ist schon gegossen. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 589.)

¶Die Seele ist dein. (Ibid.)

the Reformation lie open before us. We discern their inmost springs. We see where their power lay. This effusion of a soul, offering itself up in the cause of truth, is found in the collection of documents relative to the citation of Luther to Worms, under number 16, of the safe-conducts, and other papers of that nature. One of his friends doubtless overheard and preserved it. In our judgment, it is one of the noblest of historical documents.

Four o'clock arrived. The marshal of the empire appeared. Luther prepared to set out. God had heard his prayers; he was calm when he quitted the hotel. The herald walked first. Next came the marshal of the empire followed by the reformer. The crowd that thronged the streets was yet more dense than on the preceding evening. It was not possible to advance—it was in vain that orders were given to make way—the crowd was increasing. At last the herald, seeing the impossibility of reaching the town hall, demanded admission into some private houses, and conducted Luther through the gardens and back ways to the place where the Diet was assembled.* The people who witnessed this, rushed into the houses after the monk of Wittenberg, stationing themselves at the windows overlooking the gardens, and many of them taking their stand on the tops of the houses. The roof and the pavements, above and beneath, all around him, were covered with spectators.†

Arriving at last at the town hall, Luther and his companions were again at a loss how to pass the gateway, which was thronged by the multitude. Make room! was the cry; but no one stirred. The Imperial soldiers then cleared a passage. The people hurrying forward to enter together with the reformer, the soldiers drove them back with their halberds. Luther entered the interior of the hall, and there again he beheld the enclosure crowded. In the ante-chambers, and window recesses, there were more than five thousand spectators, German, Italian, Spanish, and of other nations. Luther advanced with difficulty. As he drew near the door, which was to admit him to the presence of his judges, he was met by a valiant knight, George Freundsberg, who, four years afterward, attended by his followers, couched his lance at the battle of Pavia, and, bearing down the left of the French army, drove it into the Tessino, and decided the captivity of the king of France. This old general, seeing Luther pass, touched him on the shoulder, and shaking his head, blanched in many battles, said, kindly, "My poor monk, my poor monk! thou hast a march and a struggle to go through, such as neither I nor many other captains have seen the like in our most bloody battles. But if thy cause be just, and thou art sure of it, go forward in God's name, and fear nothing! He will not forsake thee!"‡ A noble tribute rendered by martial spirit to the courage of the soul. "He that ruleth his spirit, is greater than he that taketh a city," was the word of a king.§

And now the doors of the hall were thrown open—Luther entered, and many who formed no part of the Diet gained admission with him. Never had any man appeared before so august an assembly. The emperor, Charles V., whose kingdom extended across both hemispheres—his brother, the archduke Ferdinand—six electors of the empire, most of whose successors are now crowned heads—twenty-four dukes, many of

them territorial sovereigns, and among whom were some who bore a name in after times held in fear and horror by the nations who accepted the Reformation—(the duke of Alva, and his two sons)—eight margraves—thirty archbishops, bishops, and prelates—seven ambassadors, including those of France and England—the deputies of ten free cities—a number of princes, counts, and barons of rank—the pope's nuncios—in all two hundred persons. Such was the imposing assemblage before which stood Martin Luther.

His appearance there was of itself a signal victory over the papacy. The man whom the pope had condemned stood before a tribunal raised by that very fact above the pope's authority. Placed under interdict, and struck out from human fellowship by the pope—he was cited in respectful terms, and received before the noblest of human auditories. The pope had decreed that his lips should be closed for ever—and he was about to unclothe them in presence of thousands assembled from the remotest countries of Christendom. Thus had an immense revolution been effected by his means; Rome was brought down from her seat, and the power that thus humbled her was the word of a monk!

Some princes, who were near him, observing the humble son of the miner of Mansfield awed and affected in this assembly of sovereigns, approached him kindly. One of them whispered, "Fear not them who are able to kill the body, and cannot destroy the soul." Another whispered to him, "When you are brought before kings, it shall be given to you by the Spirit of your Father what you shall say."* Thus was the monk strengthened with his Master's words by the great ones of this world.

Meanwhile the guards made way for Luther. He stepped forward, and found himself in front of the throne of Charles V. All eyes were turned upon him. The confusion was stilled, and there was a profound silence. "Say nothing until a question is put to you," said the marshal of the empire, as he quitted him.

After a moment's solemn pause, John Eck, the chancellor of the archbishop of Treves, and the friend of Aleander, whom we must not confound with the theologian of that name, rose, and in a clear and sonorous accent, first in Latin, and then in German, said:

"Martin Luther, his sacred and invincible majesty, has cited you before his throne, acting on the opinion and advice of the states of the holy Roman empire, to require you to answer to these questions: First, Do you acknowledge these writings to have been composed by you?" At the same time the speaker pointed with his finger to about twenty volumes, placed on a table in the centre of the hall, immediately before Luther. "I could not guess where they had obtained them," said Luther, relating the fact; it was Aleander who had taken the trouble to collect them. "Secondly," continued the chancellor, "Are you prepared to retract these works, and the propositions contained therein, or do you persist in what you have therein advanced?"

Luther, without faltering, was about to answer the first question in the affirmative, when Jerome Schurf, hastily interrupting him, exclaimed aloud, "Let their titles be read."†

The Chancellor, advancing to the table, read the titles. There were in the number several works of a devotional character, and altogether unconnected with the controverted points.

The enumeration being gone through, Luther spoke as follows, first in Latin, then in German:

* Einige aus denen Reichs-Gliedern sprachen Ihm einen Muth, mit Christi Worten, ein. . . (Matt. x. 20, 28. Seckendorf, p. 348.)

† Legantur tituli librorum. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 589.)

* Und ward also durch heimliche Gänge geführt. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 544.)

† Doch lief das Volk häufig zu, und stieg sogar auf Dächer. (Seck. 348.)

‡ Munchlein, Munchlein, du gehst jetzt einen Gang, einen solchen Stand zu thun, dergleichen ich und mancher Obrister, auch in unser allererstesten Schlacht-Ordnung nicht gesehen haben. x. (Seck. p. 348.)

§ Proverbs xvi. 32.

"Most gracious emperor, princes, and lords !

"His imperial majesty puts to me two questions.

"As to the first, I acknowledge the books, the names of which have been read, to be of my writing; I cannot deny them.

"As to the second, seeing that it is a question which has reference to faith, and the salvation of souls—a question which concerns the word of God, the greatest and most precious treasure of heaven or earth*—I should act rashly if I were to answer without reflection. I might say less than the circumstance demands, or more than truth requires, and so sin against that word of Christ—*Whosoever shall deny me before men, him will I deny before my Father who is in heaven.* Therefore it is that I most humbly desire his imperial majesty to allow me time, that I may answer without offending against the word of God."

This reply, far from countenancing the supposition of indecision in Luther, was worthy of the Reformer and of the assembly. It was fit that he should act calmly and circumspectly in a question of such grave importance, that this solemn moment of his life might be clear from the suspicion of passion or precipitancy. Besides, by taking reasonable time, the deliberate firmness of his resolution would be the more strikingly apparent. Many men in the history of the world have brought great evils on themselves, and their contemporaries, by a hasty word. Luther restrained his own naturally impetuous temper:—he suppressed the words that were on his tongue and kept silence, when all the feelings that inspired him struggled to find utterance. This self-command and calmness, so unusual in such a man, increased his power a hundred-fold, and enabled him afterwards to answer with a prudence, a force, and a dignity, which baulked the expectations of his enemies, and confounded their pride and malice.

Nevertheless, as his tone had been respectful, many thought he was wavering. A ray of hope appeared for the Roman courtiers. Charles, eager to know more of a man whose teaching disturbed the Empire, had observed him narrowly. Turning to one of his courtiers, he remarked, contemptuously, "Certainly that man will never induce me to turn heretic."† Then, rising from his seat, the young Emperor, attended by his ministers, withdrew to the council chamber;—the Electors assembled in another apartment, together with the Princes;—the deputies of the free cities in a third. The Diet, on reassembling, agreed to grant the request. It was a notable blunder in men actuated by passion and prejudice.

"Martin Luther," said the Chancellor of Treves, "his Imperial Majesty, acting in the goodness of his nature, consents to allow you one day's delay; but on condition that you make answer by word of mouth, and not in writing."

Immediately the Imperial herald came forward, and conducted Luther back to the hotel. Threats and shouts accompanied him through the crowd;—alarming reports reached his friends. "The Diet is displeased," it was said: "the Pope's envoys triumph;—the Reformer will fall a victim." Men's passions were roused. Some gentlemen repaired in haste to Luther. "Doctor," said they in agitation, "what is all this? They say they are resolved to bring you to the stake. . . . If they dare attempt it," they added, "it shall be at the peril of their lives." "And it would have been so," said Luther, repeating their words at Eisleben twenty years later.

* Weil dies eine Frage vom Glauben und der Seelen Seligkeit ist und Gottes Wort betanget. . . (Ibid. 673.)

† Hic certe nunquam efficeret ut hæreticus evaderem. (Palavincini, i. 115.)

‡ Wie geht's? man sagt sie wollen euch verbrennen. . . (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 689.)

On the other hand, Luther's enemies were all confidence. "He has begged for time," said they; "he is going to retract. At a distance his speech was arrogant;—but now his courage forsakes him. . . He is conquered."

Luther was perhaps the only person at Worms perfectly undisturbed. A few minutes after his return from the Diet, he wrote to the counsellor, Cuspianus: "I am writing to you from the very midst of a tempest (perhaps he alluded to the noise of the crowd outside his hotel.) An hour ago I appeared before the Emperor and his brother.* . . . I avowed myself the author of my books, and I have promised to give my answer to-morrow, as to recantation. By the help of Jesus Christ, I will not retract a single letter of my writings."†

The commotion among the people and the soldiers of the states was increasing every hour. While the two parties were repairing calmly to the Diet—the people and the soldiers came to blows in the streets. The Spanish troops, proud and stern, gave great offence by their insolence to the burghers of the city. One of these satellites of Charles, finding in a bookseller's shop the Pope's Bull, published with a commentary written by the knight, Hütten, laid hands upon it, tore it in pieces, and trampled it under foot. Others having discovered several copies of Luther's tract on the Captivity of Babylon, carried them off and tore them up. The common people, roused to resistance, fell upon the soldiers, and compelled them to retire. Another time a mounted Spaniard pursued, sword in hand, through the public streets of Worms, a German, who fled from him—and the people in their fright made no attempt to stop the pursuer.‡

Some politic persons thought they had hit upon an expedient to rescue Luther. "Retract," said they, "your errors in doctrine, but adhere to all you have said concerning the Pope and his court, and you will be safe." Aleander trembled at the suggestion. But Luther, not to be moved from his purpose, declared that he cared little for a political reformation, if it were not based upon faith.

On the 18th of April, Father Glapio, the Chancellor Eck, and Aleander, met early in the morning agreeably to orders from Charles V., to settle the course of proceeding with Luther.

Luther composed his thoughts. He felt that tranquillity of soul, without which man can do nothing truly great. He prayed;—he read the Word of God;—he glanced over his own writings, and endeavoured to give a suitable form to his answer. The thought that he was about to bear testimony for Jesus Christ, and his word in the face of the Emperor, and of the whole Empire, dilated his heart with joy! The moment when he was to make his appearance was approaching. He drew near the table on which the volume of the Holy Scriptures lay open, placed his left hand upon it, and raising the other towards heaven, he vowed to adhere constantly to the Gospel, and to confess his faith freely, even though he should be called to seal his confession with his blood. This done, he felt the peace of his soul increased.

At four o'clock the herald presented himself, and conducted Luther to the hall of the Diet. The general curiosity was extreme, for the answer was to be decisive. The Diet being engaged in deliberation, Luther was obliged to wait in the court, surrounded by a dense crowd, eagerly moving to and fro, and resembling a sea of heads. For two hours, the Reformer was hemmed

* Hac hora coram Cesare et fratre Romano constitit. (L. Opp. i. 687.)

† Verum ego ne apicem quidem revocabo, (Ibid.)

‡ Kappens Ref. Urkunden, ii. 448.

in by the multitude pressing to see him. "I was not used," said he, "to such ways and noises." To an ordinary man this would have been a grievous hinderance to preparedness of mind. But Luther was walking with God. His look was serene; his features unruffled. The Eternal was placing him on a rock. Evening began to close in, and the torches were lighted in the hall. Their light gleamed through the ancient painted glass to the court beyond, and the whole scene wore an aspect of more than common solemnity. At length the Doctor was admitted. Many persons obtained admission with him, for every one was desirous to hear his answer. The Princes having taken their seats, and Luther being again in presence of Charles V., the Chancellor of the Elector of Treves broke silence, and said:

"Martin Luther, you requested yesterday a delay, which is now expired. Certainly the Diet was not bound in justice to accede to your desire, since every man should be so grounded in his faith as to be able at all times to give an answer to those who ask him; much more one who is an eminent and learned doctor in the Scriptures. . . . Now, therefore, answer the enquiry of his Majesty, who has manifested so much indulgence. Are you prepared to defend all that your writings contain, or do you wish to retract any part of them?"

After having spoken these words, the Chancellor repeated them in German.

"Hereupon," say the Acts of Worms, "Doctor Martin Luther made answer in a low and humble tone, without any vehemence or violence, but with gentleness and mildness, and in a manner full of respect and diffidence, yet with much joy and Christian firmness."†

"Most Serene Emperor, and you, illustrious Princes and gracious Lords," said Luther, turning toward Charles, and looking round the assembly; "I this day appear before you in all humility, according to your command, and I implore your Majesty, and your august Highnesses, by the mercies of God, to listen with favour to the defence of a cause which I am well assured is just and right. I ask pardon, if by reason of my ignorance, I am wanting in the manners that befit a court; for I have not been brought up in king's palaces—but in the seclusion of a cloister.

"Two questions were yesterday put to me by his Imperial Majesty; the first, whether I was the author of the books whose titles were read: the second, whether I wished to revoke or defend the doctrine I have taught. I answered the first, and I adhere to that answer.

"As to the second, I have composed writings on very different subjects. In some I have discussed Faith and Good Works, in a spirit at once so pure, clear, and Christian, that even my adversaries themselves, far from finding anything to censure, confess that these writings are profitable, and deserve to be perused by devout persons. The Pope's bull, violent as it is—acknowledges this. What then should I be doing if I were now to retract these writings? Wretched man! I alone, of all men living, should be abandoning truths approved by the unanimous voice of friends and enemies, and opposing doctrines that the whole world glories in confessing.

"I have composed, secondly, certain works against Popery, wherein I have attacked such as by false doctrines, irregular lives, and scandalous examples, afflict the Christian world, and ruin the bodies and souls of men. And is not this confirmed by the grief of all who fear God? Is it not manifest that the laws and

human doctrines of the Popes entangle, vex, and distress the consciences of the faithful, while the crying and endless extortions of Rome ingulf the property and wealth of Christendom, and more particularly of this illustrious nation?

"If I were to revoke what I have written on that subject, what should I do . . . but strengthen this tyranny, and open a wider door to so many and flagrant impieties!* Bearing down all resistance with fresh fury, we should behold these proud men swell, foam, and rage more than ever? And not merely would the yoke which now weighs down Christians be made more grinding by my retraction—it would thereby become, so to speak, lawful—for, by my retraction, it would receive confirmation from your most Serene Majesty, and all the States of the Empire. Great God! I should thus be like to an infamous cloak, used to hide and cover over every kind of malice and tyranny.

"In the third and last place—I have written some books against private individuals, who had undertaken to defend the tyranny of Rome by destroying the faith. I freely confess that I may have attacked such persons with more violence than was consistent with my profession as an ecclesiastic: I do not think of myself as a saint; but neither can I retract these books, because I should, by so doing, sanction the impieties of my opponents; and they would thence take occasion to crush God's people with still more cruelty.

"Yet, as I am a mere man, and not God, I will defend myself after the example of Jesus Christ, who said: '*If I have spoken evil, bear witness against me.*' (John xviii. 23.) How much more should I, who am but dust and ashes, and so prone to error, desire that every one should bring forward what he can against my doctrine.

"Therefore, most Serene Emperor, and you, illustrious Princes, and all, whether high or low, who hear me, I implore you by the mercies of God to prove to me, by the writings of the prophets and apostles, that I am in error. As soon as I shall be convinced, I will instantly retract all my errors, and will myself be the first to seize my writings, and commit them to the flames.

"What I have just said I think will clearly show, that I have well considered and weighed the dangers to which I am exposing myself; but far from being dismayed by them, I rejoice exceedingly to see the Gospel this day, as of old, a cause of disturbance and disagreement. It is the character and destiny of God's word. 'I came not to send peace unto the earth, but a sword,' said Jesus Christ. God is wonderful and awful in his counsels. Let us have a care, lest, in our endeavours to arrest discords, we be found to fight against the holy word of God, and bring down upon our heads a frightful deluge of inextricable dangers, present disasters, and everlasting desolations. . . . Let us have a care lest the reign of the young and noble Prince, the Emperor Charles, on whom, next to God, we build so many hopes, should not only commence, but continue and terminate its course under the most fatal auspices. I might cite examples drawn from the oracles of God," continued Luther, speaking with noble courage in the presence of the mightiest monarch of the world—"I might speak of Pharaohs—of kings of Babylon, or of Israel, who were never more contributing to their own ruin, than when, by measures in appearance most prudent, they thought to establish their authority! God removeth the mountains, and they know not. (Job ix. 5.)

"In speaking thus, I do not suppose that such noble

* Des Gefühls und Wesens war Ich gar nicht gewohnt. (L. Opp. xvii. 593, 596.)

† Schreyt nicht sehr noch heftig, sondern redet fein, sittlich, züchtig und bescheiden. . . . (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 576.)

* Nicht allein die Fenster sondern auch Thur und Thor aufhåte. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 573.)

Princes have need of my poor judgment ; but I wish to acquit myself of a duty that Germany has a right to expect from her children. And so commending myself to your August Majesty, and your most Serene Highnesses, I beseech you, in all humility, not to permit the hatred of my enemies to rain upon me an indignation-I have not deserved.”*

Luther had pronounced these words in German, with modesty, and yet with much earnestness and resolution ;† he was desired to repeat them in Latin : (the Emperor was not fond of German.) The splendid assembly which surrounded the Reformer, its noise and excitement had exhausted him. “ I was bathed in sweat,” said he “ and standing in the centre of the Princes.” Frederic of Thun, confidential counsellor of the Elector of Saxony, who, by his master's orders, had taken his stand at the Reformer's side, to guard him against surprise or violence, seeing the exhaustion of the poor monk, said, “ If you are not equal to the exertion of repeating your speech, what you have said will suffice.” But Luther, having taken a moment's breathing time, began again, and repeated his address in Latin with undiminished power.‡

“ The Elector was quite pleased with that,” said the Reformer, when relating the circumstance.

As soon as he stopped speaking, the Chancellor of Treves, spokesman of the Diet, said, angrily :—

“ You have not given any answer to the inquiry put to you. You are not to question the decisions of the Councils—you are required to return a clear and distinct answer. Will you, or will you not, retract ?” Luther then answered, unhesitatingly : “ Since your most Serene Majesty and your High Mightinesses require of me a simple, clear, and direct answer, I will give one, and it is this : I cannot submit my faith either to the Pope or to the Councils—because it is as clear as noon-day that they have often fallen into error, and even into glaring inconsistency with themselves. If then I am not convinced by proof from Holy Scripture, or by cogent reasons ; if I am not satisfied by the very texts that I have cited ; and if my judgment is not in this way brought into subjection to God's word, I neither can nor will retract anything : for it cannot be right for a Christian to speak against his conscience.” Then turning a look on that assembly before whom he stood, and which held in its hands his life or death : “ I stand here, and can say no more : *God help me.* Amen.”||

Thus did Luther, constrained to act upon his Faith, led by his conscience to the surrender of his life, bound by the noblest of all necessity—the servant of the truth he believed, and in that service most free ; like a vessel freighted with treasure more precious than itself, that the pilot runs upon the rocks ; pronounce the sublime words that at the distance of three centuries still make our hearts bound within us. Thus spake, in presence of the Emperor, and the chiefs of the nation, a single monk ! and that weak and poor man standing alone, but depending on the grace of the Most High, shone forth grander and mightier than them all. His words came with a power against which the great of this world could do nothing. This is that weakness of God which is stronger than men. The Empire and the Church on the one hand—an obscure individual on the other, have looked upon each other !

* This speech, as well as most of the documents we cite, are taken word for word from authentic documents. (See L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 776–780.)

† Non clamare at modesto, non tamen sine christianâ animositate et constantiâ. (Ibid. 165.)

‡ See L. Opp. lat. ii. 165–167.

§ Dabo illud neque dentatum, neque cornutum. Ibid. 166.)

|| Hier stehe ich ; ich kan nicht anders ; Gott helfe mir ! Amen. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 550.)

God had gathered together these kings and prelates, to bring publicly to naught their wisdom. The battle is lost ; and the consequences of this defeat of the powers of this world will be felt among all nations, and in all ages to come.

The assembly was motionless with astonishment. Several of the princes present could scarcely conceal their admiration. The emperor, recovering from first impressions, exclaimed ; “ The monk speaks with an intrepid heart and unshaken courage.”* The Spaniards and Italians alone were confounded, and soon began to ridicule a moral grandeur, which they could not comprehend.

“ If you do not retract,” resumed the Chancellor, as soon as the assembly had recovered from the impression produced by Luther's speech—“ the emperor and the States of the Empire will proceed to consider how to deal with an obstinate heretic.” At these words Luther's friends trembled—but the monk repeated : “ May God be my helper ! for I can retract nothing.”†

This said, Luther withdrew, and the princes deliberated. Every one saw clearly that the moment was critical for Christendom. On the yea or nay of this monk, perhaps, depended the repose of the Church and of the world for ages to come. In the desire to overawe him, he had been raised on a platform, in sight of a whole nation ; the attempt to give publicity to his defeat had only served to enhance his victory over his enemies. The partisans of Rome could not patiently submit to this humiliation. Luther was again called in, and the speaker thus addressed him :—“ Martin, you have not spoken with that humility which befits your condition. The distinction you have drawn as to your works was needless, for if you retracted such as contain errors, the emperor would not allow the rest to be burned. It is absurd to require to be refuted by Scripture, when you are reviving heresies condemned by the general Council of Constance. The emperor, therefore, commands you to say, simply, yes or no ; whether you mean to affirm what you have advanced, or whether you desire to retract any part thereof.”—“ I have no other answer to give than that I have already given,” said Luther, quietly. They understood him.—Firm as a rock—the billows of the powers of the world had broken harmlessly at his feet. The simple energy of his words, his erect countenance, the glance of his eye, the inflexible firmness that might be traced in his rude German features, had indeed left a deep impression on the assembly. All hope of quelling his spirit had vanished. The Spaniards, the Belgians, and even the Italians were silent. The monk had triumphed over these powers of this world. He had said, *No !* to the Church and to the Empire. Charles the Fifth arose from his seat, and the whole assembly rose at the same instant. “ The Diet will meet again to-morrow morning to hear the emperor's decision,” said the Chancellor, aloud.

It was night :—each repaired home in the dark. Two of the Imperial officers were appointed to accompany Luther. Some persons took it into their heads that his doom had been decided, that they were conducting him to prison, which he would only leave to mount the scaffold. Then a tumult spread. Several gentlemen demanded, aloud : “ Are they leading him to prison ?” “ No !” answered Luther, “ they are conducting me to my hotel.” On hearing this, the commotion subsided. Then certain Spaniards of the emperor's household followed the bold man through the streets that led to the hotel, with shouts and mockery,‡

* Der monch redet unerschrocken, mit getrostem Muth ! (Seckendorf, p. 350.) † L. Opp. (W.) xv. 2235.

‡ Subannatione hominem Die et longo rugitu, prosectui sunt. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 166.)

while others poured forth the cries of a wild beast bereft of his prey. But Luther maintained his firmness and assurance.

Such was the scene of Worms. The intrepid monk, who had hitherto boldly braved all his enemies, spoke, on that occasion, to those who thirsted for his blood, with calm dignity and humility. With no exaggeration, no enthusiasm of the flesh, no irascibility; he was in peace in the liveliest emotion; unpresumptuous, though withstanding the powers of this world, and full of grandeur in presence of the great ones of the earth. Behold an indubitable sign that Luther was then acting in obedience to God, and not the suggestions of his own pride. In the hall at Worms was one greater than Luther, or than Charles. "When ye shall be brought before governors and kings for my sake, take no thought how or what ye shall speak, for it shall be given you, in that same hour, what ye shall speak. For it is not ye that speak, but the Spirit of your Father which speaketh in you."* Never, perhaps, has this promise been more signally fulfilled.

A powerful impression had been produced on the chiefs of the empire. Luther had remarked this; and it had given him new courage. The pope's adherents were provoked, because Eck had not earlier interrupted the speech of the guilty monk. Several princes and lords were won over to his cause by the tone of deep conviction with which he had defended it. It is true, with some the effect was transient; but some, who then concealed their thoughts, at a later period, declared themselves with great boldness.

Luther had returned to his hotel, and was seeking in repose to recruit his strength, exhausted in the stern and trying events of the day. Spalatin, and others of his friends, surrounded him, giving thanks to God. As they were discoursing, a servant entered bearing a silver vase, filled with Eimbeck beer. "My master," said he, as he offered it to Luther, "desires you to refresh yourself with this beverage." "What prince is it," said the Wittenberg Doctor, "who has me in such gracious remembrance?" It was the aged Duke Eric, of Brunswick. The Reformer was moved by this offering from a powerful lord belonging to the pope's party. "His Highness himself," continued the messenger, "drank of the cup before sending it to you," Hereupon Luther, being thirsty, poured out some of the Duke's beer, and, after having drunk, he said: "As, on this day, Duke Eric has remembered me, may our Lord Jesus Christ remember him in the hour of his last struggle."† The gift was a trifling one; but Luther, desiring to show his gratitude to a prince who thought of him at such a moment, gave him of such as he had—a prayer! The servant bore his message to his master. The aged duke called to mind these words at the moment of his death, and, addressing a young page, Francis Kram, who was standing at his bedside:—"Take the Bible," said he, "and read to me." The youth read the words of Christ, and the soul of the dying man took comfort. "*Whosoever shall give you a cup of water to drink in my name, because ye belong to Christ,*" said the Saviour, "*verily, I say unto you, he shall not lose his reward.*"

The servant of the Duke of Brunswick had scarcely left him, when a messenger from the Elector of Saxony brought orders to Spalatin to come to him immediately. Frederic had attended the diet with many apprehensions. He had expected that Luther's courage would have failed him in the Emperor's presence. Hence he had been deeply affected by the Reformer's firmness. He felt proud of having taken such a man

under his protection. When the chaplain arrived, the table was spread. The elector was just sitting down to supper with his court, and already the servant in waiting had taken away the vase, in which it was the custom to wash before eating. On seeing Spalatin enter, Frederic instantly made a sign to him to follow him; and, as soon as he found himself alone with him in his bedchamber, he said, with strong emotion: "Oh! how Luther spoke before the emperor and all the States of the Empire:—all I feared was, that he might go too far!"* From that time, Frederic formed a resolution to protect the Doctor more openly.

Alander saw the effect that Luther had produced; there was no time to lose. It was necessary to urge the young emperor to adopt vigorous measures. The moment was favourable; a war with France was impending. Leo X., eager to aggrandise his states, and caring little for the peace of Christendom, was, at the same time, secretly negotiating two treaties—one with Charles, against Francis; and the other with Francis, against Charles.† By the former, he stipulated with the emperor for the possession of Parma, Placentia, and Ferrara; by the latter, he claimed from the king a district of the kingdom of Naples, which should be conquered from Charles. The latter felt the importance of gaining Leo to his side, that he might be strengthened by his alliance in the war with his rival of France. The mighty pontiff's friendship seemed to be cheaply purchased by the sacrifice of Luther.

The day following Luther's appearance being Friday, the 19th of April, the emperor caused to be read aloud to the Diet, a message, written in Flemish, by his own hand:‡

"Descended from the Christian Emperors of Germany, from the Catholic Kings of Spain, from the Archdukes of Austria, and Dukes of Burgundy, who have all distinguished themselves as defenders of the faith of Rome, I am firmly resolved to tread in the footsteps of my ancestors. A single monk, led astray by his own madness, erects himself against the faith of Christendom. I will sacrifice my kingdoms, my power, my friends, my treasure, my body and blood, my thoughts and my life, to stay the further progress of this impiety.§ I am about to dismiss the Augustine, Luther, forbidding him to cause the least disturbance among the people. I will then take measures against him, and his adherents, as open heretics, by excommunication, interdict, and every means necessary to their destruction.|| I call on the members of the states to comport themselves like faithful Christians."

This address was not well received by all to whom it was addressed. Charles, young and hasty, had not observed the customary form, which obliged him first to ask the opinion of the Diet. Immediately, two directly opposite parties began to show themselves. The creatures of the pope, the elector of Brandenburg, and several dignitaries of the church, demanded that Luther's safe-conduct should not be respected.¶ "His ashes ought to be thrown into the Rhine," said they, "as was the fate of John Huss." Charles, if we may believe one historian, subsequently repented bitterly that he did not adopt this cowardly suggestion. "I

* O wie schön hat Pater Martinus geredet. (Seck. p. 355.)

† Guicciardini, L. xv. liv. 175. Dumont Corp. Dipl. tom. iv. 96. Dicesi del papa Leone, che quando Paveva fatto lega con alcuno, prima soleva dir che pero non si dovea restar de trattar con lo altro principe opposto. (Suriano, Venetian Ambassador at Rome, MS. Archives of Venice.)

‡ Autographum in lingua Burgundica ab ipsomet exaratum. (Cochläus, p. 32.)

§ Regna, thesauros, amicus, corpus, sanguinem, vitam, spiritumque profundere. (Pallavicini, i. 118.)

|| Und audern Wegen sie zu vertilgen. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 581.)

¶ Dass Luthero das sichere Geleit nicht mochte gehalten werden. (Seckend. p. 337.)

* Matt. x. 18, 20.

† Also gedenckene seiner unser Herr Christus in seinem letzten Lampff. (Seck. p. 354.)

acknowledge," said he, toward the close of life, "that I committed a great mistake, in not punishing Luther with death. I was not bound to keep my promise; that heretic had offended a Master greater than I. I might, and I ought to, have forgotten my pledge, and avenged the offence he committed against God. It is because I did not have him put to death, that heresy has ever since been spreading. His death would have stifled it in its cradle."*

This frightful proposal filled the elector and all the Reformer's friends with alarm. "The death of John Huss," said the elector palatine, "has brought too many calamities on Germany, for us to think of again erecting a like scaffold." Even Duke George exclaimed, "The German princes will not endure the violation of a safe-conduct. This first Diet, presided over by our new emperor, will not be guilty of so shameful an action. Such perfidy befits not the ancient good faith of the Germans." The Bavarian princes, though attached to the Roman church, supported this protest; and the prospect of his death, that Luther's friends had before them, gradually disappeared.

The report of these discussions, which lasted for two days, circulated in the city. Party spirit was roused. Certain gentlemen, who had espoused the new opinions, began to speak their minds boldly, on the act of treachery that Aleander solicited. "The emperor," said they, "is young, and is led away by the cajoleries of papists and bishops."† Pallavicini mentions four hundred nobles, all ready, with their swords, to enforce respect to Luther's safe-conduct. On the morning of Saturday, placards were seen posted on the doors of the houses, and in the public squares, some against Luther, and others in his favour. In one was read the strong and simple words of Ecclesiastes, "*Woe to thee, O land, when thy king is a child!*"‡ It was rumoured that Sickenger had assembled, at a distance of a few leagues from Worms, within the impregnable walls of his fortress, a number of knights and soldiers, and waited only the issue of the affair, to know how to act. The popular enthusiasm, not merely in Worms, but even in the remotest towns of the empire—the intrepid courage of the knights—the devotion of several princes to the cause of the Reformation—all together, gave clear intimation to Charles and to the Diet, that the course of proceeding urged by the Romanists, might place in jeopardy the supreme authority, give birth to popular commotions, and endanger the very stability of the empire itself.§ It was but a question whether a single monk should be brought to the stake; but the princes and partisans of Rome, could not muster, among them all, either the strength or the courage necessary for the act. Doubtless, also, Charles V., yet in his youth, feared to incur the guilt of perjury. We might infer this from a saying which, if report be true, he uttered at this juncture: "Though honour and good faith should be banished from the earth, they should find an asylum in the breasts of princes." It is a melancholy reflection, that he appears to have forgotten this maxim before his death. But the emperor may have been actuated by other motives. The Florentine, Vettori, the friend of Leo X. and of Machiavelli affirms, that Charles

spared Luther, that he might hold the pope in check.*—In the sitting of Saturday, the violent propositions of Aleander were rejected. Luther was the object of much affection, and a desire was general to rescue this simple man, whose confidence in God was so affecting; but it was wished, at the same time, to save the church. Men trembled at the foreseen consequences of either the triumph or the punishment of the Reformer. Plans of conciliation were started, and it was proposed to make a new effort with the Doctor of Wittenberg. The Archbishop, Elector of Mentz himself, the young and prodigal Albert, "more devout than bold," says Pallavicini,† had caught the alarm, at witnessing the interest evinced by the people and the nobility in the fate of the monk of Saxony. His chaplain, Capito, who, during his residence at Bale, had contracted acquaintance with the evangelical priest of Zurich, Zwingle, a courageous confessor of the truth, of whom we have before had occasion to speak, there can be little doubt, also represented to Albert the justice of the Reformer's cause. The worldly archbishop experienced one of those transient recurrences of Christian feelings which we sometimes trace in the lives of men, and consented to wait on the emperor, and request him to give time for a fresh attempt. But Charles would not hear of anything of the kind. On Monday, the 22d of April, the princes came in a body to repeat the request of Albert. "I will not go from what I have laid down," replied the emperor. "I will authorise no one to have any official communication with Luther. But," added he, (much to the indignation of Aleander,) "I will allow that man three days consideration, during which time any one may exhort him privately, as he may think fit."‡ It was all his friends asked. The Reformer, thought they, elevated by the solemnity of his public trial, would perhaps give way in more friendly conference, and by this means, it might be possible to save him from the gulf that yawned before him,

The Elector of Saxony knew the very contrary: hence he was full of anxiety. "If it were in my power," he wrote on the next day, to his brother, Duke John, "I would be ready to undertake the defence of Luther. You can hardly imagine how I am beset by the partisans of Rome. If I were to tell you all, you would hear strange things.§ They are bent upon his ruin; and if any one evinces the least interest in his safety, he is instantly cried down as a heretic. May God, who forsaketh not the cause of the righteous, bring the struggle to a happy issue" Frederic, without betraying his warm affection for the Reformer, contented himself with keeping a constant eye upon all his movements.

Not so men of all ranks at Worms. Their sympathy broke forth without fear or disguise. On the Friday, a train of princes, counts, barons, knights, gentlemen, ecclesiastics, laity, and common people, surround the Reformer's lodging, entering and departing, as if never satisfied with gazing on him.¶ He was become the man of Germany. Even those who did not question his being in error, were affected by the nobility of soul which led him to peril his life at the call of his conscience.

Luther had the happiness of holding, with many per-

* Sandoval, Hist. de Carlos V., quoted by Llorente in his History of the Inquisition, li. 27. According to Llorente, the supposition that Charles, toward the end of his life, leaned to evangelical opinions, is an invention of the Protestants, and of the enemies of Philip II. The question is a problem in history, which the numerous citations of Llorente seem, unhappily, to solve conformably to his statement.

† Eum esse puerum, qui nutu et blanditiis Papistarum et Episcoporum trahatur quocunque velint. (Cochleus, p. 33.)

‡ Verum etiam in longinquis Germaniæ civitatibus, motus et murmura plebium. (Ibid.)

§ Es wäre ein Aufruhr daraus worden, says Luther.

* Carlo si excuso di non poter procedere più oltre, rispetto al salvocondotto, ma la verità fu che conoscendo che il Papa temeva molto di questa dottrina di Lutero, lo volle tenere con questo freno. (Vettori, Istoria d'Italia MSC. Biblioth. Corsini at Rome, extracted by Ranke.)

† Qui pio magis animo eret quam forti. (Pallavicini, p. 118.)

‡ Quibus privatim exhortari hominem possent. (Pallavicini, i. 119.)

§ Wunder hören werden. (Seckend. 365.)

¶ Und konnten nicht satt werden ihn zu sehen. (L. Opp. xviii. 591.)

sors at Worms, and those some of the most intelligent of the nation, conversations abounding in that salt with which all his words were seasoned. All, on leaving him, carried away a sentiment of generous enthusiasm for truth. "How many things have I to tell you," wrote George Vogler, private secretary to the margrave, Casimir Von Brandenburg. "What conversations, overflowing with piety and kindness, Luther has had with me and others. O! how rich in grace is that man!"*

One day, a young prince, of seventeen years of age, galloped into the court of the inn. It was Philip, who for two years had governed Hesse. The young landgrave was of decided and enterprising character; wise above his years, warlike, impetuous, and little accustomed to be guided by anything but his own will. Struck by Luther's speech, he wished to have a nearer view of him. "He, however, was not on my side in the matter,"† said Luther, in relating it. He threw himself from his horse, ran up the stairs, without ceremony, to Luther's apartment, and, addressing him, said: "Well, Doctor, how are you going on?" "My noble lord," answered Luther, "I think all will end well." "I hear," replied the landgrave, laughing, "that you, Doctor, teach that a woman may leave her husband and take another, when the first is proved to be too old." The courtiers of the imperial court had invented this story. The enemies of truth never fail to circulate inventions, as pretended doctrines of Christian teachers. "No, my lord," replied Luther, with gravity, "do not talk thus, I beg of your Highness." On this, the prince thrust out his hand to the doctor, cordially grasping Luther's, with the words: "Dear Doctor, if you are in the right, may God be your helper!" and then, leaving the room, jumped into his saddle, and rode off. It was the first interview of these two men, who were destined subsequently to stand in the van of the Reformation, defending it—the one by the sword of the Word, and the other by that of kingly power.

The Archbishop of Treves, Richard von Greiffenklau, by permission of Charles, had undertaken the office of mediator. Richard, who was intimate with the Elector of Saxony, and a staunch Roman Catholic, wished, by accommodating this affair, to render a service to his friend as well as to the Church. In the evening of Monday, 22d April, just as Luther was sitting down to table, a messenger from this prelate brought him word that the Archbishop wished to see him on the day after the morrow, Wednesday, at six in the morning.

The chaplain, attended by Sturm, the Imperial herald, was at Luther's door before six in the morning of that day. But already, and as early as four o'clock, Aleander had summoned Cochläus to his side. The Nuncio had quickly discerned in the man whom Capito had introduced to him a devoted instrument of the Roman Court, and one on whom he could rely as upon himself. Not being himself able to attend the interview, Aleander wished much to have some one in place of himself. "Do you go direct to the Archbishop of Treves," said he to the Dean of Frankfurt, "take no part in the discussion, but merely pay attention to all that is said, so as to be able to bring me an exact report."‡ The Reformer repaired, accompanied by some of his friends, to the Archbishop's residence. He found the Prelate surrounded by the Margrave Joachim of Brandenburg, Duke George, of Saxony, the Bishops of Brandenburg and Augsburg,

some nobles and deputies of the free cities, and other civilians and divines, among whom were Cochläus and Jerome Weche, chancellor of Baden. The latter, a learned civilian, was anxious to see a reformation of general morals and discipline; he went even further, in his wishes. "What we want," said he, "is that the word of God, so long hidden under a bushel, should be brought forward in all its brightness."* This friend to conciliation was appointed to conduct the conference. Turning kindly to Luther, he said, "the object in summoning you hither is not to dispute with you—but to urge upon you brotherly exhortations. You know how carefully Scripture enjoins us to beware of the 'arrow that flieth by day, and the destruction that wasteth at noon-day.' The adversary of the human race has impelled you to the publishing of certain things contrary to the faith. Consider your own eternal interest and that of the Empire. Have a care, lest those whom Christ hath redeemed from eternal death by his blood, should by you be led away to their everlasting ruin. Cease to set up your judgment against that of holy Councils. Unless we adhere to the decrees of our fathers, there will be nothing but confusion in the Church. The eminent Princes who hear me are quite intent upon saving you; but if you persist, the Emperor will banish you beyond the empire,† and no part of the world will then be able to give you shelter. Consider therefore the fate that awaits you."

"Most serene Princes," answered Luther, "I thank you for your kind concern, for I am but a poor man—of too mean station to look to be advised by such great lords:"‡—and he proceeded to say, "I have not censured all the Councils, but only the Council of Constance, for their condemnation of John Huss's doctrine: namely, that the Christian Church is the assembly of those who are predestinated to salvation.§ It condemned that article of our faith, *I believe in the holy universal Church*, and even the word of God." He added: "I am told that my preaching gives occasion of stumbling. I answer, that it is impossible to preach the Gospel of Christ without offence. Why then should any such fear separate me from the Lord, and that divine word which alone is truth? No, rather will I give up body, blood, and life itself! . . ."

The Princes and Doctors having deliberated, Luther was called in, and Wehe resumed with mildness:—"We must honour the powers that be, even when they err: and sacrifice much for the sake of charity." Then with more earnestness he added:—"Submit to the judgment of the Emperor, and fear nothing."

LUTHER. "I consent with all my heart to the Emperor, the Princes, and even the humblest Christian's examining and judging of my writings, but on one single condition, namely, that they take God's word for their guide. Men have nothing to do, but to render obedience to that. My conscience is in dependence upon that word, and I am the bounden subject of its authority."||

THE ELECTOR OF BRANDENBURG. "If I understand you, Doctor, you will acknowledge no other judge than the Holy Scripture?"

LUTHER. "Yes, my lord, exactly so—that is my resolve."¶ On this the Princes and Doctors with-

* Dass das Wort Gottes, welches so lange unter dem Schefel verborgen gasteckt, heller scheine . . . (Seckend. 364.)

† Und aus dem Reich verstossen. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 652. Sleidan, i. 97.)

‡ Agnosco enim me hominiconem, longe viliores esse, quam ut a tantis Principibus . . . (L. Opp. lat. p. 167.)

§ Ecclesia Christi est universitas predestinatorum. (Ibid.)

¶ Sie wollten sein Gewissen, das mit Gottes Wort und heiliger Schrift ebunden und gefangen wäre, nicht dringen. (Math. p. 57.)

¶ Ja darauf stehe Ich. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 553.)

* Wie eine holdselige Person erist. (Meuzel Magaz. i. 207.)

† War noch uich auf meiner Seite. (L. Opp. xvii. 559.)

‡ Aleander, mane hora quarta vocaverit ad se Cochläus, jubens ut . . . audiret solum . . . (Cochläus, p. 36.)

drew, but the excellent Archbishop of Treves was still loath to forego his undertaking. "Come with me," said he to Luther, passing into his private apartment, and at the same time, he desired John Eck and Cochläus of the one side, and Schurff and Amsdorff, of the other party, to follow. "Why," asked Eck, with warmth, "continually appeal to the Holy Scripture!—it is from thence come all heresies." But Luther, says his friend Mathesius, was unmoved as a rock, backed by the *true rock*, the word of the Lord. "The Pope," said he, "is no judge in things pertaining to the word of the Lord. It is the duty of every Christian to see and understand how to live and die."* They separated. The partisans of the Papacy felt Luther's superiority, and ascribed it to the circumstance of there being no one at hand capable of answering him. "If the Emperor had managed well," says Cochläus, "when he cited Luther to Worms, he would have summoned theologians capable of refuting his errors."

The Archbishop of Treves repaired to the Diet, and communicated the failure of his negotiation. The surprise of the young Emperor was only equalled by his indignation. "It is high time," said he, "to put an end to this business." The Archbishop, requesting a delay of two days, and all the Diet joining in the request, Charles V. gave consent. Aleander, losing patience, broke forth in complaints.†

While these things were passing in the Diet, Cochläus burned with desire to bear off the victory denied to prelates and kings. Though he had ever and anon thrown out a word, in the presence of the Archbishop of Treves, the injunction of Aleander to maintain silence had restrained him. He resolved to make amends for this restraint, and lost no time, after giving the Pope's Nuncio an account of his mission, to present himself at Luther's lodging. Advancing to him in a friendly manner, he expressed his regret at the Emperor's resolution. After they had dined together, the conversation grew more animated.‡ Cochläus urged Luther to retract. The latter shook his head. Several persons who sat at table could with difficulty control their feelings. They expressed their indignation that the Papists, instead of convincing, should seek to restrain the Reformer by force. "Well," said Cochläus to Luther, growing impatient of these reproaches, "I offer to dispute publicly with you if you will forego your safe-conduct."§ Of all things what Luther most wished was a public discussion. What was he to do! To throw aside his safe-conduct would be to risk destruction: to decline Cochläus's challenge would be casting doubt upon his cause. The guests saw in this proposal an act of perfidy planned with Aleander, whom the Dean had just left. Vollrat von Watzdorf relieved Luther from the embarrassment of a decision. Warm in his temper, and roused to indignation at the thought of a stratagem devised for delivering Luther into the hands of the executioner,|| he rose with great warmth, and, seizing the terrified priest, turned him out of doors; and blood might have flowed had not the guests interposed between the angry knight and the trembling Cochläus.¶ The latter withdrew in confusion from the hotel of the Knights of Rhodes. Doubtless it was nothing but the warmth of argument that had drawn forth the words let slip by the Dean: doubtless there was no design

concocted with Aleander to draw Luther into the toils. Cochläus denies it, and we prefer to believe his assurance. Yet, true it is, he had but just quitted the Nuncio to present himself at Luther's lodging.

That same evening, the Archbishop of Treves assembled, at supper, the persons who had been present in the morning's conference. He sought thus to unbend the minds of the parties, and dispose them in favour of reconciliation. Luther, with all his intrepid firmness in presence of arbiters or judges, was remarkable, in private intercourse, for a good nature and a cheerfulness, which gave ground to hope almost anything from him. The Archbishop's Chancellor, who had displayed so much stiffness in his official bearing, concurred in this plan, and, toward the end of the repast, gave Luther's health. The latter was about to return the compliment—the wine was poured out, and, according to his custom, he had made the sign of the cross on his glass; when, all of a sudden, the glass burst in his hands, and the wine was spilt upon the table. The guests were thunderstruck. Some of Luther's friends exclaimed, "It must have been poisoned,"* but the Doctor, without discomposure, answered, with a smile—"Dear friends, either this wine was not destined for me, or it would have disagreed with me:" adding, calmly—"No doubt the glass has flown, because, in washing, it was plunged too suddenly in cold water." These simple words have something of grandeur about them, in his circumstances, and show his unruffled peace. We cannot hence infer that the Romanists intended to poison Luther, above all, at the table of the Archbishop of Treves. This repast had no effect one way or another. Neither human applause, nor any fear of man, could shake the Reformer's decision. It was from above!

On the morning of Thursday, the 25th of April, the Chancellor, Wehe, and Doctor Peutinger, of Augsburg, the emperor's counsellor, who had expressed much friendship for Luther, on occasion of his interview with De Vio, repaired to the hotel of "the Knights of Rhodes." The Elector of Saxony sent Frederic Von Thun, and another of his council, to be present at the conference. "Rely upon us," said Wehe and Peutinger, earnestly desirous, at any sacrifice, to prevent the schism which was on the point of dividing the Church—"this business shall be concluded in a Christian spirit; take our word for it." "I answer at once," said Luther; "I consent to forego my safe-conduct,† and resign my person and my life to the emperor's disposal; but, as to the word of God . . . Never!" Frederic Von Thun, in strong emotion, stood up, and addressing the two envoys, said, "Is not that enough? Is not such a sacrifice sufficient?" And then protesting he would hear no more, he withdrew. On this, Wehe and Peutinger, hoping to succeed better with the Doctor himself, seated themselves at his side. "Submit to the Diet," said they to him. "No," answered Luther, "for it is written, 'Cursed is he who trusteth in man.'" (Jeremiah xvii.) Wehe and Peutinger redoubled their exhortations and instances—pressing the Reformer more and more closely:—Luther, worn out, arose, and made sign to them to retire, saying: "I will allow no man to exalt himself above God's word."‡—"Think better of it," said they, as they withdrew; "we will call upon you again in the afternoon."

* Ein Christenmensch muss zusehen und richten . . . [L. Opp. i. 604.]

† De iis Germanis acerrime conquestus est. (Pallavicini, i. 120.)

‡ Peracto prandio. (Cochläus, p. 36.)
§ Und wollte mit mir disputiren, ich sollte allein das Geleit aussagen. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 589.)

|| Aique ita traderat eum carnificibus. (Cochläus, p. 36.)
¶ Das thut das Blut über den Kpff gelaufen ware, wo man nicht gewehret hätte. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 589.)

* Es müsse Gift darinnen gewesen seyn.—Luther does not mention this circumstance, but his friend, Razeberg, physician to the Elector, John Frederic, records it in a manuscript history, found in the library of Gothe, and says he received it from an eye-witness.

† Er wollte ehe das Geleit aussagen. . . (L. Opp. (L.) xvii.)
‡ Er wollte kurzum Menschen über Gottes Wort nicht erkennen. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 583.)

They came according to appointment; but aware that Luther would not yield the point, they brought with them a new proposal. Luther has declined to acknowledge the Pope, the Emperor, and the Diet, there was yet an authority which he himself had formerly invoked; a General Council. Doubtless, such a suggestion would call forth the anger of Rome, but it was a last plank. The delegates, therefore, proposed to Luther an appeal to a Council. He had only to accede to the offer without entering into points of detail. Years must elapse before the difficulties the Pope would interpose in the way of a Council could be removed. A gain of some years was everything to the Reformation and the Reformer. God, in the progress of events, would in that time bring about great changes. But Luther put *right* above all things; he had no desire to deliver himself at the expense of the Truth, even though a silent dissimulation of it should be all required of him. "I consent—but," he answered, and the condition involved an appeal from the Council as judge—"on condition that the Council should decide according to *Holy Scripture*."*

Peutinger and Wehe, who had no idea of a Council deciding otherwise, hastened overjoyed to the Archbishop. "Doctor Martin," said they, "will submit his writings to the judgment of a Council." The Archbishop was preparing to communicate the intelligence to the Emperor, when a doubt crossed his mind; he sent for Luther.

Richard Von Greiffenklau was alone when the Doctor arrived. "Dear Doctor," said the Archbishop, with much kindness of manner,† "my doctors assure me that you consent to submit your cause without reserve to the decision of a Council."—"My Lord," answered Luther, "I can endure anything, except to abandon the *Holy Scripture*. The Archbishop saw at once that Wehe and Peutinger had not fully explained the facts. Never could Rome give her consent to a Council which should take Scripture alone for its guide. "It was requiring," says Pallavicini, "that one of weak sight should read very small writing, and at the same moment refusing him the use of glasses."‡ The good Archbishop sighed. "It was of little use," said he, "my sending for you. What would have been the consequence if I had gone direct to bear the message to the Emperor?"

The unshaken firmness and uprightness of Luther may well astonish us. They will, however, be comprehended and honoured by all who know the righteousness of God. Seldom has a nobler testimony been borne to the unchangeable word of the Lord at the peril of the liberty and life of the man who thus bore witness.

"Well, then," said the venerable Prelate, addressing Luther, "let me hear your own remedy for the evil."

LUTHER was silent for an instant. "My lord, I know of none but what is found in that word of Gamaliel: 'if this work be of men, it will come to nought. But if it be of God, ye cannot overthrow it, lest haply ye be found even to fight against God.' Let the Emperor, the Electors, and the States of the Empire, return that answer to the Pope."

THE ARCHBISHOP. "At least retract some articles."

LUTHER. "Provided they be not those which the Council of Constance has condemned."

THE ARCHBISHOP. "Alas, I fear it is precisely those."

LUTHER. "Then far sooner take my life; rather

would I be deprived of my limbs, than give up the plain and sincere word of God."*

The Archbishop at length understood Luther. "Retire," said he, still in a tone of much mildness. "My lord," resumed Luther, "may I beg you to request his Majesty to send me the safe-conduct necessary for my return whence I came."—"I will attend to it," replied the worthy Archbishop—and they parted.

Thus terminated these negotiations. The attention of the whole Empire had been engaged by this man,† and its urgent entreaties and direful threats had not caused him to stumble. His erect bearing under the iron hand of the Pope was the means of emancipating the Church—and the commencement of a new era. The interposition of Providence was manifest. It was one of those grand scenes in history above which the majesty of God seemed to rise and hover. Luther retired in company with Spalatin, who had joined them during his conversation with the Archbishop. John von Minkwitz, counsellor of the Elector of Saxony, had been taken ill at Worms. The two friends visited him. Luther comforted the sick man in the tenderest manner. "Farewell," said he, as he left the room, "tomorrow I leave Worms."

Luther was not mistaken. Scarcely three hours had elapsed from his return to his hotel, when the Chancellor Eck, attended by the Chancellor of the Empire, and a notary, presented themselves.

The Chancellor addressed him as follows:—"Martin Luther, his Imperial Majesty, the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire, having repeatedly and in various ways—but in vain—exhorted you to submission—the Emperor, in his character of defender of the Catholic faith, finds himself compelled to resort to other measures. He, therefore, orders you to return to whence you came, within the space of twenty-one days, and prohibits you from disturbing the public peace on your journey, either by preaching or writing."

Luther was well aware that this message was the precursor of his condemnation. "It has happened unto me," answered he mildly, "according to the will of the Eternal. Blessed be his name!" He then proceeded—"And first, I humbly, and from the bottom of my heart, thank his Majesty, the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire, that they have given me so gracious a hearing. I neither have, nor ever have had, a wish but for one thing: to wit, a reformation of the Church according to the Holy Scripture. I am ready to do or to suffer all things for obedience to the Emperor's will. Life or death, honour or dishonour, I will bear. I make but one reservation—the preaching of the Gospel; for, says St. Paul, the *Word of God* is not to be bound."‡ The deputies retired.

On Friday morning, the 26th of April, the Reformer's friends and several nobles assembled at Luther's lodgings.† Men took delight in recognizing in the Christian constancy he had opposed to Charles and to the Empire, the features of the celebrated character of antiquity:

Justum ac tenacem propositi virum,
Non civium ardor prava jubentium,
Non vultus instantis tyranni,
Mente quatinus solida . . . 6

All were eager once more, and perhaps for the last time, to say farewell to the intrepid monk. Luther partook of a simple repast. And now he must bid

* Ehe Stumpf und Stiel fahren lassen. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii.

684.)

† Totum imperium ad se conversum spectabat. (Pallavicini, i. 120.)

‡ Salutatis patronis et amicis qui eum frequentissimi venerunt. (L. Opp. lat. ii. 163.)

§ Horat. Od. lib. 3.

* Das darüber aus der heiligen Schrift gesprochen. (Ibid.

684.) † Ganz gut und mehr denn gnädig. (L. Opp. i. 604.)

‡ Simulque conspiciolorum omnium usum negare. (L. Opp. i. 110.)

adieu to his friends, and depart far from them under a sky overhung with storms.* He resolved to spend this solemn moment in the presence of God. He fortified his soul, and gave his blessing to those around him.* It was ten o'clock. Luther left the hotel, attended by his friends who had accompanied him to Worms. Twenty gentlemen on horseback surrounded the wagon. A crowd accompanied him outside the city. Sturm, the Imperial herald, joined him shortly after at Oppenheim, and on the following day the party arrived at Frankfort.

Thus did Luther leave those walls which seemed destined to become his tomb. His heart overflowed with praise to God. "Satan himself," said he, "kept the Pope's citadel, but Christ has made a wide breach in it, and the devil has been compelled to confess that Christ is mightier than he."†

"The day of the Diet of Worms," says the devout Mathesius, the disciple and friend of Luther, "is one of the most glorious given to the earth before its great catastrophe."‡ The conflict at Worms resounded far and near, and as the report of it traversed Europe from the northern countries to the mountains of Switzerland, and the towns of England, France, and Italy, many seized with eagerness the mighty weapons of the word of God.

Arriving at Frankfort on the evening of Saturday, the 27th of April, Luther, on the following morning, took advantage of a moment of leisure, the first he had enjoyed for a long time past, to despatch a short letter, replete at once with familiarity and energy, to his friend, Lucas Cranach, the celebrated painter at Wittenberg: "My service to you, dear master Lucas," said he: "I expected his Majesty would assemble fifty learned doctors to convict the monk outright. But not at all. Are these books of your writing? Yes. Will you retract them? No! Well, begone! There's the whole history. Deluded Germans. . . how childishly we act!—how we are duped and defrauded by Rome! Let the Jews sing their Yo! Yo! Yo! But a pass-over is coming for us also, and then we will sing hallelujah! We must keep silence and endure for a short time. 'A little while and ye shall not see me, and again a little while and ye shall see me,' said Jesus Christ. I trust I may say the same. Farewell.—I command you all to the Eternal. May He preserve in Christ your understanding and your faith, from the attacks of the wolves and dragons of Rome. Amen."

After writing this rather mysterious letter, Luther immediately set out for Friedberg, six leagues from Frankfort. Time, in fact, pressed. On the following morning he again collected his thoughts, and resolved once more to address Charles the Fifth. He was unwilling to appear in the light of a guilty rebel. In his letter he explained clearly the obedience the Christian owes to the king—and that which is due to God—and the point at which the former must give place to the latter. As we read Luther's letter, we are involuntarily reminded of the saying of the greatest autocrat of modern times: "My dominion ends where that of conscience commences."||

"God is my witness, who knoweth the thoughts," said Luther, "that I am ready with all my heart to

obey your Majesty through good or evil report, in life or in death, with no one exception, save the word of God, by which man liveth. . . In all the affairs of this life my fidelity shall be unshaken, for, in these, loss or gain has nothing to do with salvation. But it is contrary to the will of God, that man should be subject to man in that which pertains to eternal life. Subjection in *spirituals* is a real worship, and should be rendered only to the Creator."*

Luther also wrote in German a letter to the States. It was nearly to the same effect, and recapitulated what had taken place at Worms. This letter was several times transcribed and circulated throughout the Empire, exciting everywhere, says Cochlæus, the feelings of the people against the Emperor, and the upper ranks of the clergy.†

Early the following morning, Luther wrote a note to Spalatin, enclosing in it the two letters he had written on the previous evening. He sent back to Worms the herald, Sturm, who had been gained to the cause of the Gospel. Embracing him, he parted from him, and set out for Grunberg.

On the Tuesday, when he was within two leagues distance from Hirschfeld, he was met by the chancellor to the prince-abbot of the city, who had come out to welcome him. Soon after appeared a troop of horsemen, headed by the abbot. The latter dismounted, Luther stepped from his wagon. The prince and the Reformer embraced, and entered Hirschfeld together. The senate received them at the gates.‡ Thus, dignitaries of the church opened their arms to a monk whom the pope had anathematised, and the higher classes did honour to a man whom the emperor had placed under ban of the empire.

"To-morrow morning, at five o'clock, we shall be at church," said the prince, rising from the repast to which he had invited the Reformer. He insisted on his occupying his own apartment. The following day Luther preached, and the prince-abbot and his suite attended the sermon.

In the evening of that day Luther reached Eisenach, the scene of his childhood. All his acquaintance in the place came round him, and entreated him to preach; and the following day they escorted him to church. Upon this the curate appeared, attended by a notary and witnesses. He stepped forward, trembling between fear of losing his appointment, and of opposing the energetic man before him. "I must *protest*," said he, at last, with embarrassment, "against the liberty you are about to take." Luther ascended the pulpit, and a voice which, three-and-twenty years before had sung in the streets of that same town for a morsel of bread, proclaimed through the vaulted roofs of its venerable church, the word which was beginning to agitate the world. The sermon being over, the curate stepped up to Luther: He held in his hand the record drawn up by the notary, and regularly witnessed, to protect the curate from dismissal. "I ask your pardon," said he, humbly; "I take this course from fear of the tyrants that oppress the church."§

And truly there was ground for apprehension. Affairs at Worms had changed their aspect, and Alexander reigned paramount. "The only prospect for Luther is banishment," wrote Frederic to his brother, Duke John, "nothing can save him. If God permits me to see you again, I shall have strange things to

* Seine Freunde gesegnet. (Mathesius, p. 27.)

† Aber Christus macht ein Loch herein. (L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 689.)

‡ Dies ist der herrlichen grossen Tag einer vorm Ende der welt. (p. 28.)

§ Es müssen die Juden einmal singen Io, Io, Io! . . . (L. Opp. i. 589.) The shouts of the Jews at the crucifixion are here taken to represent the triumphant songs of the partisans of Popery on the downfall of Luther; but the Reformer hears at a distance the hallelujahs of deliverance.

|| Napoleon to the Protestant deputies after his accession to the Empire.

* Nam ea fides et submissio proprie est vera illa latria et adoratio Dei. . . (L. Opp. i. 592.)

† Per chalcographos multiplicata et in populos dispersa est ea epistola. . . Cæsari autem et clericis odium popolare, &c. (Cochläus, p. 38.)

‡ Senatus intra portas nos excepit. (L. Opp. ii. 6.)

§ Humiliter tamen excusante . . ob metum tyrannorum suorum. (L. Opp. ii. 6)

tell you. Not only Annas and Caiaphas, but Pilate and Herod have conspired against him." Frederic had no desire to prolong his stay, and, accordingly, quitted Worms, as did the elector palatine. The Elector-Archbishop of Cologne also took his departure from the Diet, and the inferior princes followed the example. Deeming it impossible to avert the blow, they preferred, perhaps unwisely, to quit the place. The Spaniards, Italians, and the most *ultra-montane* of the German princes, alone remained.

Thus Aleander was master of the field. He presented to Charles a rough draught of an edict, intended to serve as a model for that the Diet was about to publish against the monk. The production of the nuncio pleased the incensed emperor. He assembled the members of the Diet, still at Worms, in his council-chamber, and read to them Aleander's paper, which, as Pallavicini informs us, was approved by all present.

On the following day, which was a public festival, the emperor repaired to the cathedral, attended by the nobles of his court. The service being gone through, a crowd of persons thronged the interior, when Aleander, clothed in the insignia of his order, approached Charles.* He held in his hand two copies of the edict against Luther, one in Latin, the other in German, and, kneeling before his Imperial Majesty, he petitioned Charles to affix to it his signature, and the seal of the empire. It was at the moment when sacrifice had just been offered, when the incense filled the temple, and the hymn was reverberating in the vaulted roofs, and, as it were, in the immediate presence of God, that the seal was to be set to the destruction of the enemy of Rome. The emperor, in the most gracious manner,† took a pen, and attached his signature to the edict. Aleander withdrew in triumph, and instantly sent the decree to the printer, and thence to every part of Christendom.‡ This result of Roman Diplomacy had cost no small pains to the papacy. We learn from Pallavicini himself, that the edict, though dated the 8th of May, was written and signed some days later, but ante-dated, in order that it might appear sanctioned by the presence of the whole Diet.

"We, Charles the Fifth," &c., said the emperor, "to the Electors, Princes, Prelates, and all to whom these presents shall come.

The Almighty having confided to us, for the defence of our holy faith, more extensive dominion and rule than He hath given to any of our predecessors, we purpose to employ all our powers to preserve our holy empire from being polluted by any heresy.

"The Augustine monk, Martin Luther, regardless of our exhortations, has madly attacked the holy church, and attempted to destroy it by writings full of blasphemy. He has shamefully villified the unalterable law of holy marriage; he has laboured to incite the laity to imbrue their hands in the blood of their priests,§ and, defying all authority, has incessantly excited the people to revolt, schism, war, murder, theft, incendiarism, and the utter destruction of the Christian faith.

In a word, and passing over many other evil intentions, this being, who is no man, but Satan himself, under the semblance of a man in a monk's hood,|| has collected, in one offensive mass, all the worst heresies of former ages, adding his own to the number.

"We have, therefore, dismissed from our presence this Luther, whom all reasonable men count a mad-

man, or possessed by the devil; and it is our intention that so soon as the term of his safe-conduct is expired, effectual measures be forthwith taken to put a stop to his fury.

"For this end, and on pain of incurring the penalty of treason, we hereby forbid you to receive the said Luther from the moment when the said term is expired, or to harbour, or to give him meat or drink, or by word or act, publicly or in private, to aid or abet him. We further enjoin you to seize, or cause him to be seized, wherever he may be, and to bring him before us without delay, or hold him in durance until you shall be informed how to deal with him, and have received the reward due to your co-operation in this holy work.

"As to his adherents, you are enjoined to seize upon them, putting them down and confiscating their property.

"Touching his writings, seeing that the best of food is held in horror, by all men, when the least poison is mixed therewith, how much more should such writings, wherein the main object is a mortal venom, be not merely rejected, but destroyed? You will, therefore, burn, or in other ways utterly destroy them.

"As to the authors, poets, printers, painters, vendors, or purchasers, of caricatures or placards against the pope or the church, you are enjoined to seize on their persons and property, and deal with them as may seem fit.

"And if any one, whatever may be his rank, should dare to act contrary to this decree of our Imperial Majesty, we command that he be placed under the ban of the empire.

"Let each one observe this decree."

Such was the edict signed in the cathedral of Worms. It was more than a Roman bull, which, though issued in Italy, might not be carried into execution in Germany. The emperor himself had spoken, and the Diet had ratified the decree. The whole body of Romanists shouted for joy. "The tragedy is over," exclaimed they. "For my part," said Alphonso Valdez, a Spaniard of Charles's court, "I am persuaded it is not the last act, but the beginning."* Valdez clearly perceived that the movement was in the church, the people, the age; and that were Luther to fall, his cause would not perish with him. But none could help seeing the imminent and inevitable danger in which the Reformer was placed, and the superstitious multitude were impressed by a feeling of horror at the thought of that incarnate Satan, whom the emperor pointed to as clothed with a monk's habit.

The man against whom the mighty ones of this earth were thus forging their thunderbolts—on leaving the pulpit of Eisenach, endeavoured to muster resolution to take leave of some of his dearest friends. He decided not to take the road to Gotha and Erfurth, but to proceed by way of the village of Mora, the birth-place of his father, in order once more to see his grandmother (who died four months afterward,) and to visit his uncle, Henry Luther, and some other relations, Schurff, Jonas, and Suaven set out for Wittenberg; Luther entered his wagon, accompanied by Amsdorff, and plunged into the forest of Thuringen.†

That same evening he arrived in the village of his fathers. The aged peasant pressed to her heart that grandson who had dared to confront the emperor and the pope. Luther passed the following day with his relations, joyfully contrasting its sweet tranquillity with the turmoil of Worms. The next day he again set out in company with Amsdorff and his brother James. It was in these secluded spots that the Reformer's fate was on the point of being decided. They skirted the

* Cum Cæsar in templo adesset . . . processit illi obviam Aleander. (Pallavicini, i. 122.)

† Festivissimo vultu. (Pallavicini, i. 122.)

‡ Et undique pervulgata. (Ibid.)

§ Ihre Hände in der Priester Blut zu waschen. L. Opp. (L.) xvii. 598.

|| Nicht ein Mensch, sondern als der böse Feind in Gestalt jenes Menschen mit angenommener Mönchshütten . . . (Ibid.)

* Non finem sed initium. (P. Martyris Epp. p. 412.)

† Ad carnem meam trans sylvam profectus. (L. Epp. ii. 7.)

woods of Thuringen, taking the path that leads to Waltershausen. As the wagon was passing a narrow defile near the ruined church of Glisbach, a short distance from the castle of Altenstein, suddenly a noise was heard, and in a moment, five horsemen, masked and armed from head to foot, fell upon them. His brother James, as soon as he caught sight of the assailants, jumped from the wagon, and fled as fast as he could without uttering a word. The driver would have resisted. "Stop," cried a hoarse voice, and instantly one of the attacking party threw him to the earth.* Another of the masks grasped Amsdorff, and held him fast. While this was doing, the three horsemen laid hold on Luther, maintaining profound silence. They forced him to alight, and throwing a knight's cloak over his shoulders, set him on a led horse that they had with them. This done, the two other masks let go Amsdorff and the wagoner, and the whole five sprang into their saddles. One dropped his cap, but they did not stop to recover it; and in the twinkling of an eye, the party and their prisoner were lost in the thick gloom of the forest. At first they took the direction of Broderode; but they rapidly changed their route, and, without quitting the forest, rode first in one direction, and then in another, turning their horses' feet to baffle any attempt to track their course. Luther, little used to riding, was soon overcome with fatigue.† His guides permitted him to stop for a few instants. He rested on the earth beside a beech tree, and drank some water from a spring which still bears his name. His brother James, continuing his flight from the scene of the encounter, reached Waltershausen that evening. The driver, hastily throwing himself into the wagon, in which Amsdorff had already mounted, galloped his horse at full speed, and conducted Luther's friend to Wittenberg. At Waltershausen, at Wittenberg, in the open country, the villages and towns on the route, the news spread that Luther was carried off. Some rejoiced at the report, but the greater number were struck with astonishment and indignation—and soon a cry of grief resounded throughout Germany—"Luther has fallen into the hands of his enemies!"

After the stirring conflict that Luther had been called to sustain, it had pleased God that he should be transferred to a place of repose and peace. After raising him on the dazzling stage of Worms, where all the energies of the Reformer's soul had been roused to their highest pitch, God had prepared for him the obscure and lowly refuge of a prison. He draws from the deepest obscurity the frail instruments by which He designs to bring mighty things to pass; and then when He had suffered them to shine for a while on an illumined stage, He dismisses them again to obscurity. The Reformation was to be brought about by other steps than violent struggles or public tribunals. Not thus does the heaven penetrate the body of the people—the spirit of God seeks stiller channels. The man whom the champions of Rome were piteously persecuting, was to disappear for a time from the world. It was needful that his personal greatness should be hidden in shade, that the revolution then accomplishing might not bear the impress of one man. It was fit that the man should be put aside that God alone might remain, to move by his spirit over the

abyss, wherein the darkness of the middle ages was sinking, and to say, "Let there be light!" in order that there might be light.

The shades of evening closing in, and no one being able to observe their track, Luther's escort changed their route.‡ It was nearly eleven o'clock at night when they arrived at the foot of a hill.* The horses slowly climbed the steep ascent. On the summit stood an ancient fortress, on every side but that by which they approached it, surrounded by the black forests which clothe the mountains of Thuringen.

It was to the lofty and isolated castle of Wartburg, where the ancient Landgraves in earlier times had fixed their retreat, that Luther was thus led. The bolts were drawn back, the iron bars fell, the gates unclosed, the Reformer passed the threshold, and the doors were closed upon him. He dismounted in an inner court. One of the horsemen, Burkard von Hund, lord of Altenstein, then left him. Another, John von Berlepsch, provost of Wartburg, conducted him to his apartment, where he found a knight's garment and sword. The three others followed, and took away his ecclesiastical habit, attiring him in the knightly dress prepared for him, and enjoining him to let his beard and hair grow,‡ that no one in the castle might know who he was. The attendants of the castle of Wartburg, were to know the prisoner only by the name of knight George. Luther scarcely recognized himself under his singular metamorphosis.† Left at length to his meditations, he had leisure to revolve the extraordinary events that had befallen him at Worms, the uncertain future that awaited him, and his new and strange abode. From the narrow windows of his turret, his eye discovered the dark, untrodden, and boundless forest which surrounded him. "It was there," says Mathesius, his friend and biographer, "that Luther was shut in, like St. Paul in his prison at Rome."

Frederic von Thun, Philip Feilitsch, and Spalatin, in a confidential conversation with Luther, by order of the Elector, had not disguised from him that his liberty would be sacrificed to the anger of Charles, and of the pope.§ Yet this forced abduction was so involved in mystery, that Frederic himself was for a long time ignorant of the place where Luther was concealed. The grief of those who were favourable to the Reformation continued. Spring passed away; summer, autumn, winter, succeeded—the sun had run its annual course, and the walls of the Wartburg still held their prisoner. Truth had been placed under interdict by the German diet; and its defender, immured in a fortress, was no longer on the stage of events; and even the fate that had overtaken him was unknown. Alexander was all confidence, and the Reformation appeared lost... but God reigns! and the blow which seemed to bring to nothing the cause of the gospel, will but serve to rescue its undaunted servant, and diffuse far and wide the radiance of faith.

Let us leave Luther a captive in Germany, on the heights of the Wartburg, and let us see what God was then bringing to pass in other countries of Christendom.

* Hora ferme undecimâ ad mansionem noctis perveni in tenebris. (L. Epp. ii. 3.)

† Exutus vestibus meis et equestribus indutus, comam et barbam nutriens... (L. Epp. ii. 7.)

‡ Cum ipse me jamdudum non noverim. (Ibid.)

§ Seckendorf, p. 365.

* Dejectoque in solum auriga et verberato. (Pallav. i. 122.)

† Longo itinere, novus eques, fessus. (L. Epp. ii. 3.)

BOOK VIII.

THE SWISS.—1484—1522.

At the period when the decree of the diet of Worms was announced, a steadily progressive movement was beginning to manifest itself in the quiet valleys of Switzerland. To the voices which were raised in the plains of Upper and Lower Saxony, responded from the mountains of Switzerland the bold voices of its priests and herdsmen, or of the inhabitants of its martial cities. The partizans of Rome, in their sudden alarm, exclaimed aloud that a vast and formidable conspiracy was everywhere forming against the church. The friends of the gospel joyfully replied, that as in spring-time the breath of life is felt from the sea shore to the mountain top, so the spirit of God was now melting the ice of a long winter in every part of Christendom, and clothing with verdure and flowers the most secluded valleys, and the most steep and barren rocks. Germany did not communicate the light of truth to Switzerland—Switzerland to France—France to England; all these lands received it from God; just as no one region transmits the light to another, but the same orb of splendour dispenses it direct to the earth. Raised far above men, Christ, the Day-Star from on high, was, at the period of the Reformation, as at the first introduction of the gospel, the divine source whence came the light of the world. One and the same doctrine suddenly established itself in the 16th century, at the domestic hearths, and in the places of worship of nations the most distant and dissimilar. It was because the same spirit was everywhere present, producing the same faith.

The Reformation in Germany, and that in Switzerland, demonstrate this truth. Zwingle did not communicate with Luther. Doubtless there was a bond of union between both these men; but we must seek it above this earth. He who gave the truth from heaven to Luther, gave it to Zwingle. Their communion was in God. "I began," said Zwingle, "to preach the gospel in the year of grace, 1516—that is, at a time when the name of Luther had never been heard among these countries. It was not from Luther that I learned the doctrine of Christ—it was from God's word. If Luther preached Christ, he does as I do: that is all."*

But while the several Reformations derived from the same spirit a comprehensive unity—they also bore various peculiar features derived from the different populations in the midst of which they were wrought.

We have already lightly sketched the state of Switzerland at the period of the Reformation. We will add but a few words. In Germany the principle of monarchy prevailed. In Switzerland the democratic principle prevailed. In Germany the Reformation had to struggle against the authority of princes—in Switzerland against the will of the people. A popular assembly, more readily swayed than a single individual, is more hasty in its decisions. The victory over papal rule, which, beyond the Rhine, had cost years, required, on the Swiss bank, but a few months, or even days.

In Germany the person of Luther rises majestically amid the Saxon population; he seems almost alone in his attacks on the Roman Colossus; and wherever

the battle rages, we distinguish his lofty figure on the field of conflict. Luther is, as it were, the monarch of the change which is effected—In Switzerland the contest is begun, at one and the same time in several cantons; there is a confederation of reformers; their very number surprises us. Doubtless one head is seen above the rest—but no one commands—it is a republican magistracy, to which all come, bearing the peculiar features of their origin. We have Wittembach, Zwingle, Capito, Heller, Ecolampadius, Oswald Myconius, Leo Juda, Farell, Calvin; it is at Glaris, at Bale, at Zurich, at Berne, at Neuchâtel, at Geneva, at Lucerne, at Schaffhausen, at Appenzel, at Saint Gall, and in the country of the Grisons. In the German Reformation but one stage is seen, and that uniform and level, like the face of the land; but in Switzerland the Reformation appears broken, like the country itself, by its thousand hills. Every valley has its own hour of awakening, and every mountain top its own radiance.

A calamitous period had ensued to the Swiss people since their exploits against the Dukes of Burgundy. Europe, having learned the strength of their arms, had drawn them from their fastnesses, and deprived them of their independence, by making them arbiters in the field of battle of the fortunes of her states. The hand of the Swiss peasant turned a sword against the breast of his countryman in the plains of Italy and France, while foreign intrigues were spreading discord and envy in those Alpine meadows, so long the abode of simplicity and peace. Tempted by golden bribes, sons, workmen, and servants, quitted, by stealth, the chalets of the mountain pastures to tread the banks of the Rhone, or of the Po. Swiss unity had yielded to the gradual progress of mules laden with gold. The Reformation—for, in Switzerland, the Reformation had its political aspect—proposed to re-establish the unity and primitive virtue of the cantons. Its first call was, that the people should tear in pieces the nets of foreign lures, and, with one heart, embrace each other at the foot of the Cross. But its generous desire was unheeded; Rome, long used to recruit in the Swiss valleys, the blood she lavished in the strife for power, arose indignantly. She excited the Swiss against their own countrymen; and passions, till then unknown, lacerated the bosom of the nation.

Switzerland stood in need of a reformation. The Swiss were, it is true, remarkable for a simplicity and credulity which were subjects of ridicule to the cunning Italians; but they were also considered to be, of all nations, the most stained by incontinency. Astrologers ascribed this to the constellations*—philosophers to the temperament of these indomitable people—moralists to the principles of the Swiss, who counted deceit, unkindness, and calumny, sins of deeper dye than unchastity.† Marriage was forbidden to the priests; but it would have been difficult to find one who lived in true celibacy. Often they were enjoined to behave themselves, not chastely—but prudently. This was one of the first disorders which the Reformation opposed. It is time to take a view of the glimmerings of the new light that was dawning in the Alps.

* Wirz, *Helvetische Kirchen Geschichte*, iii. 301.

† Solomitis melius erit in die iudicii, quam rerum vel honoris ablatoribus. (Hemmerlin, de anno jubileo.)

* 1516, eo scilicet tempore, quum Lutheri nomen in nostris regionibus inauditum adhuc erat. . . doctrinam Christianam a Lutheris, sed ex verbo Dei didici. (Zwillingii Opera curant. Schulero et Schultesso, Turici vol. i. 273, 276.)

Toward the middle of the eleventh century, two pilgrims penetrated from St. Gall, in the direction of the mountains southward of that ancient monastery, and reached an uninhabited valley, ten leagues in extent.* This valley is, on the north, separated from the canton of Appenzel by the lofty mountains of the Sentis, the Sommerigkopf, and the Old Man. Southward, the Kuhfirren, with its seven peaks, rises between it and the Wallenses, Sargans, and the Grisons. Toward the east, the valley lies open to the rays of the rising sun, displaying in the distance the magnificent prospect of the Tyrolean Alps. The two pilgrims, arriving at the source of a small stream, the Thur, erected there two cells. By slow degrees, thinly-scattered habitations appeared: and, on the most elevated site, 2010 feet above the lake of Zurich, there arose, around a little church, a village, called *Wildhaus*, or the *Wild-house*, on which now depend two hamlets, Lisighaus, or Elizabeth's house, and Shonenboden. On those elevated spots, the earth does not yield its fruits. A green sward of Alpine freshness clothes the whole valley, ascending the sides of mountains, above which, enormous rocks rise, in savage grandeur, toward heaven.

A quarter of a league from the church, near Lisighaus, beside a footway leading to the pastures beyond the river, there still stands a solitary house. Tradition informs us, that the wood required for the building was felled on the very spot it occupies.† It has every appearance of remote antiquity. The walls are thin—the windows are composed of small round panes—the roof is formed of shingles, loaded with stones to prevent the wind carrying them away. In front gushes a limpid stream.

There lived in this house, toward the close of the fifteenth century, a man named Zwingle, amman or bailiff of the village. The family of Zwingle or Zwingli was ancient, and in great esteem among the dwellers on these mountains.‡ Bartholomew, the bailiff's brother, first curate of the parish, and, in 1487, dean of Wesen, enjoyed a sort of reputation in the district.§ The wife of the amman of Wildhaus, Margaret Meili, whose brother, John, was afterward abbot of the convent of Fischingen, in Thurgovia, had already borne him two sons, Henry and Klaus, when, on new year's day, 1484, just seven weeks from the birth of Luther, a third son, who was afterward named Ulrich, saw the light in this solitary chalet.|| Five other sons, John, Wolfgang, Bartholomew, James, and Andrew, and one daughter, added to the strength of this Alpine family. Not a man in the neighbouring country was more respected than the bailiff, Zwingle.¶ His character, his office, and his numerous progeny, made him the patriarch of these hills. He, as well as his sons, led a shepherd's life. Soon as the early days of May arrived to cheer the mountains, the father and his sons set out with their flocks for the pastures; ascending, as the season advanced, from station to station, and attaining the loftiest summits of the Alps toward the end of July. Then they began again to descend gradually toward the valley, and, in this way, the people of Wildhaus were accustomed to return in autumn to their lowly cottages.

* Tockenburgh.

† Schuler's, Zwingli's *Bildungs Gesch.* p. 290.

‡ Diss Geschlecht, der Zwinglingen, was in guter Achtung dieser Lenden, als ein gut alt ehrlich Geschlecht. (H. Bullinger Hist. Beschreibung der Eidg. Geschichten.) This precious work exists only in manuscript. I am indebted for the communication of it to the kindness of M. J. G. Hess. The orthography of the manuscript is preserved.

§ Ein Verrumbter Mann. (Ibid.)

|| "Quadragesimum octavum agimus." Zwingle to Vadian, 17th Sept. 1531.

¶ Clarus filii pater ob spectatum vitæ sanctimoniam. (Osward Myconius Vita Zwinglii.)

Frequently, in summer, the young folks, who had been left behind in their habitations, eager to breathe the pure air of the mountains, set out in parties for the chalets, accompanying, with their songs, the sound of their rustic music; for all were musical. As they arrived on the Alps, the shepherds saluted them from afar with their horns and songs, and hastened to regale them with a repast of milk: after which, the merry company, by many a winding path, descended again into the valley, to the sound of their pipes. Ulrich, doubtless, sometimes shared these delights in early youth. He grew up at the foot of those rocks which seemed everlasting, and whose peaks pointed to the skies. "I have often thought," said one of his friends, "that, being brought near to heaven on these sublime heights, he contracted a something heavenly and divine."*

Many were the long winter evenings in the cottages of Wildhaus. At such seasons, young Ulrich listened at his paternal hearth, to the conversations of the bailiff and the elderly men of the village. When they recounted how the people of the valley had formerly groaned under a cruel yoke, his heart responded to the old men's joy at the thoughts of the independence achieved by Tockenburgh, and secured to it by its alliance with the Swiss. The love of his country was kindled, and Switzerland became endeared to his heart. If a word were uttered against the confederated cantons, the child would immediately rise, and, with simple earnestness, undertake their defence.† Often, too, would he sit quietly at the knee of his pious grandmother, listening, with fixed attention, to her Bible stories and superstitious legends, and eagerly received them into his heart.

The good bailiff took delight in observing the promising disposition of his son. He thought he saw that Ulric might be fit for something better than tending his herds on Mount Sentis, and singing the Ranz des Bergers. One day he took him in his hand, and directed his steps toward Wesen. He crossed the grassy summits of the Ammon, avoiding the wild and bold rocks which border the Lake of Wallenstadt; and, arriving at the village, entered the dwelling of the dean, his brother, and gave into his care the young mountaineer, to be examined as to his capacities.‡ The dean, in a short time, loved his nephew as if he were his own son. Delighted with the quickness of his understanding, he confided the task of his instruction to a schoolmaster, who soon taught him all he himself knew. When he was ten years old, Ulric already evinced marks of superior intelligence,§ and his father and uncle decided on sending him to Bale.

When this child of the mountains of Tockenburgh arrived in that celebrated city, a new world seemed to open before him. The fame of the celebrated Council of Bale, its university, founded by Pius II., in 1460, its printing-presses, which recalled to life the great writers of antiquity, and disseminated through the world the first-fruits of the revival of learning, and the circumstances of its being the abode chosen by such eminent men as the Wessels and Wittembachs, and, above all, by Erasmus, made Bale, at the period of the Reformation, one of the great foci of illumination in the west.

Ulric was placed in St. Theodore's school, at that time presided over by Gregory Binzli, a man of affectionate character, and of a gentleness, at that period,

* Divinitatis nonnihil cælo propriorem contraxisse. (Ows. M'c.)

† Schuler's *Zw. Bildung* p. 291.

‡ Tonerimum adhuc ad fratrem sacerdotem adduxit, ut ingenij ejus periculum faceret. (Melch. Ad. Zw. p. 25)

§ Und in ihm erschienen merckliche Zeichen eines edlen Gemüths. (Bullinger's MS.)

rarely found in schoolmasters. Young Zwingle made rapid progress. Learned discussions, much in vogue in that age, among the doctors of universities, had descended even to the children of the school. Ulrich took part in them, disciplining his nascent strength against the pupils of other establishments, and invariably coming off victorious from these contests, which were as the preludes of those which were to overthrow the papal authority in Switzerland.* Such early successes roused the jealousy of his senior rivals. Ere long, he outgrew the school of Bale, as he had outgrown that of Wesen.

Lupulus, a distinguished scholar, had shortly before opened at Berne, the first learned foundation of Switzerland. The bailiff of Wildhaus, and the Curate of Wesen, agreed together to send the youth there, and, in 1497, Zwingle, leaving the smiling plains of Bale, again approached those upper Alps, among which he had passed his infancy, and whose snowy summits, glowing in the sun, might be discerned from Berne. Lupulus, a distinguished poet, introduced his pupil to the hidden treasures of classical learning,† then known only, and but slightly, to a few. The young neophyte was delighted to breathe these perfumes of antiquity. His mind opened, his style took its form, and himself became a poet.

Among the convents of Berne, that of the Dominicans was most celebrated. A grave controversy existed between these monks and the Franciscans. The latter maintained the immaculate conception of the Virgin, which the former denied. Wherever they went—at the splendid altar, that adorned their church—and from the twelve columns which supported its roof, the Dominicans thought of nothing but to humble their rivals. The well-toned voice of Zwingle had drawn their notice; they listened to the accounts brought them of his precocious understanding; and, thinking he might do credit to their order, sought to attract him among them;‡ and invited him to take up his residence in the convent, until the period when he might pass his novitiate. The future usefulness of Zwingle was at stake. The *amman* of Wildhaus, on learning the baits the Dominicans held out, trembled for the innocence of his son, and desired him to leave Berne without delay. Thus, Zwingle escaped those monastic walls in which Luther had voluntarily immured himself. What afterward ensued, will show the greatness of the danger Zwingle then incurred.

A great agitation reigned in Berne, in 1507. A young man of Zurzack, name John Jetzer, having one day presented himself at the convent of the Dominicans, had been repulsed. The poor youth, grieving at his rejection, had returned to the charge, holding out 53 florins, and some silk stuffs. "It is all I have in the world," said he, "take it, and receive me into your order." He was admitted on the 6th of January, as a lay brother. But, on the very first night, a strange noise in his cell filled him with terror. He fled to the convent of Carthusians, but they sent him back to the Dominicans.

The following night, being the eve of the festival of St. Matthias, he was awakened by deep sighs. Opening his eyes, he beheld by his bedside, a tall phantom, clothed in white. "I am a soul from the fires of purgatory," said a sepulchral voice. The lay brother answered, shuddering, "May God deliver you—I can do nothing." On this the spirit drew nigh, and, seizing him by the throat, reproached him with his refusal. The terrified Jetzer cried aloud, "What

* In disputationibus, quas pro more tuam erant inter pueros usitate victorian semper reportavit. (Osw. Myo. Vit. Zw.)

† Ab eo in adyta classicorum scriptorum introductus. (Ibid.)

‡ Und als er wol singen kondt lokten ihn die prediger Mönchen in das Kloster. (Bullinger, MSC.)

can I do for your deliverance?" "You must scourge yourself to blood during eight days, and lie prostrate on the earth, in the chapel of St. John." This said, the apparition vanished. The lay brother confided what he had seen to his confessor, the convent preacher, and, by his advice, submitted to the discipline enjoined him. It was soon reported throughout the town, that a departed soul had applied to the Dominicans for its deliverance out of purgatory. The multitude deserted the Franciscans, and every one hastened to the church where the holy man was seen stretched prostrate on the earth. The soul of the sufferer had announced that it would return in eight days. On the appointed night it re-appeared, accompanied by two spirits, tormenting it, and howling fearfully. "Scot!" said the voice, "Scot, the forger of the Franciscans' doctrine of the immaculate conception of the Virgin, is among those who suffer with me these horrible torments." At this report, which soon circulated in Berne, the partisans of the Franciscans were still more appalled. But the soul had announced that the Virgin herself would make her appearance. Accordingly, on the day named, the astonished brother beheld Mary appear in his cell. He could not believe his eyes. She approached him kindly, delivered to him three tears of Jesus, three drops of his blood, a crucifix, and a letter addressed to Pope Julius II. "He is," said she, "the man whom God has chosen to abolish the festival of the immaculate conception." Then, coming close to the bed in which the brother lay, she announced, in a solemn tone, that a distinguished grace was about to be conferred on him, and he felt his hand pierced with a nail—but Mary wrapped round the wound a linen cloth, worn, she said, by her son during the flight into Egypt. But this was not enough; that the glory of the Dominicans might equal that of the Franciscans, Jetzer was to have the five wounds of Christ and of St. Francis in his hands, feet, and side. The other four were inflicted, a sleeping-potion was administered, and he was placed in an apartment hung with tapestry, representing the events of the Passion. Here he passed days, his imagination becoming inflamed. Then the doors were from time to time thrown open to the people, who came in crowds to gaze on the brother with the five wounds, extending his arms, with his head reclined, and imitating, in his posture, the crucifixion of our Lord. At intervals, losing consciousness, he foamed at the mouth, and seemed to give up the ghost. "He is suffering the cross of Christ," whispered those who stood round him. The multitude, eager for wonders, incessantly thronged the convent. Men worthy of high esteem, even Lupulus, the master of Zwingle, were awe-struck; and the Dominicans, from their pulpits, extolled the glory with which God had covered their order.

For some years that order had felt a necessity for humbling the Franciscans, and adding, by the claim of miracles, to the devotion and liberality of the people. Berne, with its "simple, rustic, and ignorant population," (adopting the description of it given by the sub-prior of Berne, to the chapter held at Wempfen, on the Necker,) had been chosen for the scene of these wonders. The prior, the sub-prior, the preacher, and the purveyor of the convent, had taken upon them the chief parts; but they could not play them throughout. Favoured with another vision of Mary, Jetzer thought he recognized the voice of his confessor, and, having given utterance to his suspicion, Mary vanished. Soon after she again appeared, to upbraid him with his incredulity. "This time it is the prior!" cried Jetzer, throwing himself forward, with a knife in his hand. The saint hurled a pewter plate at the head of the brother, and again disappeared.

In consternation at the discovery which Jetzer had made, the Dominicans sought to rid themselves of him by poison. He detected the artifice, and, fleeing from the convent, divulged their imposture. They put a good face upon the matter, and despatched deputies to Rome. The pope commissioned his legate in Switzerland, together with the Bishops of Lausanne and Sion, to investigate the affair. The four Dominicans were convicted, and condemned to be burnt alive, and, on the 1st of May, 1509, they perished in the flames, in presence of more than thirty thousand spectators. This event made a great noise throughout Europe, and, by revealing one great plague of the church, was instrumental in preparing the way of the Reformation.*

Such were the men from whose hands young Ulrich Zwingle escaped. He had studied letters at Berne—he was now to apply himself to philosophy; and, for this purpose, he repaired to Vienna, in Austria. Joachim Vadian, a young native of St. Gall, whose genius seemed to give promise of a distinguished statesman to Switzerland; Henri Loreti, of the canton of Glaris, commonly called Glarianus, and who showed considerable talent for poetry; a young Suabian, John Heigerlin, son of a smith, and on that account called Faber, of supple character, fond of distinction, and manifesting the qualities of a courtier; such were the companions of Ulrich's studies and amusements in the Austrian capital.

In 1502, Zwingle returned to Wildhaus. While he gazed on its mountains, he felt that he had tasted of the sweets of learning, and was no longer able to live amid his brethren's songs, and the bleatings of their flocks. He was eighteen. He went to Bale† to renew his application to study; and there, at one and the same time, master and student, he taught in the school of St. Martin, and pursued his studies at the university. He could now dispense with his father's succours. Shortly after, he took the degree of Master of Arts. A native of Alsace, named Capito, who was nine years older than himself, was one of his dearest friends.

Zwingle devoted himself to the study of scholastic theology; for, called, as he was at a later period, to combat its sophisms, it was necessary he should explore its tangled labyrinths. But often the joyous student of the mountains of the Sentis was seen suddenly to shake off the dust of the schools, and, exchanging its philosophic toils for amusement, take the lute, harp, violin, flute, dulcimer, or hunting-horn, and pour forth glad sounds, as in the meadows of Lisighaus, making his apartment, or the houses of his friends, echo with the airs of his beloved country, and accompanying them with his own songs. In his love of music, he was a true son of Tockenburg, a master among many.‡ He played the instruments we have named, and others besides. Enthusiastically attached to the art, he diffused a taste for it through the university, not that he relished dissipation, but because he loved relaxation from the fatigue of graver studies, and its power of restoring him with fresh strength for close application.§ There was no one more cheerful or more amiable, or whose discourse had more charms.¶ He might have been compared to a vigorous alpine tree,

expanding in all its grace and strength, not yet pruned, and sending forth its strong boughs on every side. The moment was destined to arrive, when these branches would shoot upward, with renewed vigour, toward heaven.

Having made his way into scholastic theology, he returned weary and disgusted from these arid sands, having found nothing but confused ideas—a vain babble, emptiness, and barbarism, without any sound idea of doctrine. "It is mere lost time," said he—and he waited to know more.

Just at that crisis (November, 1505,) arrived in Bale, Thomas Wittembach, son of a burgomaster of Bienne. Wittembach had previously been teaching at Tubingen at the same time with Reuchlin. He was in the prime of life, sincere, pious, versed in the liberal sciences, in mathematics, and in the Holy Scriptures. Zwingle and all the young students immediately gathered round him. An energy hitherto unknown breathed in his discourses, and prophetic words proceeded from his lips. "The time is not far distant," said he, "when the scholastic theology will be abolished, and the primitive teaching of the Church restored."* "The death of Christ," added he, "is the only ransom of our souls."† The heart of Zwingle eagerly received those seeds of life.‡

Among the students who constantly attended the lectures of the youthful Doctor, was a young man of twenty-three years of age, of small stature, and weak and unhealthy appearance, but whose look bespoke at once gentleness and intrepidity. It was Leo Juda, son of a curate of Alsace, and whose uncle had lost his life at Rhodes, under the standard of its knights, for the defence of Christendom. Leo and Ulrich lived in the closest intimacy. Leo played the dulcimer, and had a very fine voice. Often in his apartment the two friends of the arts amused themselves in joyous song. Leo Juda became subsequently Zwingle's colleague, and death itself could not terminate this sacred friendship.

The situation of pastor of Glaris became vacant at this period. Henry Goldi, a young courtier in the Pope's service, groom of his Holiness's palfrey, and already endowed with several benefices, hastened to Glaris with the Pope's letter of appointment. But the shepherds of Glaris, proud of the antique glories of their race, and of their struggles for liberty, were unwilling to bow their heads before a parchment from Rome. Wildhaus is not far from Glaris; and Wesen, of which Zwingle's uncle was curate, is the place where that people hold their market. The reputation of the young master of arts at Bale had penetrated to these mountains. The people of Glaris resolved to choose Zwingle for their priest. They invited him in 1506. Zwingle, after being ordained at Constance by the bishop, preached his first sermon at Rapper swill. On St. Michael's day he read his first mass at Wildhaus; in presence of all his relations and the friends of his family, and towards the close of the year reached Glaris.

He immediately applied himself zealously to the duties of his extensive parish. Yet he was but twenty-two years of age, and at times he yielded to dissipation and the loose morality of the age: As a Romish priest he was like other priests all around him. But even at that time, when as yet the Gospel had not changed his heart, Zwingle never plunged into those scandals which often grieved the Church, and he constantly felt that

* Et doctrinam Ecclesie veterem . . . instaurari oporteat. (Gualternus, Misc. Tig. iii. 102.)

† Der Tod Christi sey die einzige Bezahlung für unsere Sünde. . . (Fuslin Beyr. ii. 268.)

‡ Quam a tanto viro semina quedam . . . Zwingiano pectori injecta essent. (Leo Jud. in Pref. ad Ann. Zw. in N. T.)

§ Sic reverentia pudoris, imprimis autem officii divini, per petue carit Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

* Wirz, Helvetische Kirchen, Gesch. vol. iii. 387. Anshelms Cronik, iii. and iv. No event of that age gave occasion to more publications. See Haller's Biblioth. der Schw. Gesch. iii.

† Ne diutius ab exercitio literarum cessaret. (Osw Myc. Vit. Zw.)

‡ Ich habe auch nie von Keinem gehört, der in der Kunst Musica . . . so erfahren gewesen. (B. Weysen, Füsslin Beytrage zur Ref. Gesch. iv. 36.)

§ Ut ingenium seriis defatigatum recrearetur et paratius ad solita studia redderetur . . . (Melch. Ad Vit. Zw.)

¶ Ingenio amœnus, et ore jucundus, supra quam dici possit, erat. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

it was necessary to subject his desires to the holy rule of God's word.

A passion for war at that time disturbed the quiet valleys of Glaris. There dwelt in those valleys whole families of heroes; the Tschudi, the Wala, the Aebli, whose blood had been shed on the field of battle. The elder warriors were accustomed to recount to youths ever ready to listen to such recitals, the events of the wars of Burgundy and Suabia, the battles of St. James and of Ragaz. But, alas, it was no longer against the enemies of their liberty that these martial shepherds took arms. They might be seen, at the bidding of the King of France, of the Emperor, of the Duke of Milan, or of the Pope, descending like an avalanche from the Alps, and rushing with the noise of thunder against the trained soldiers of the plain.

Towards the end of the fifteenth century, a poor boy named Matthew Schinner, who was attending the school of Sion, in the Valais, was one day singing before the doors, as Luther used to do rather later, when he heard himself called by an old man; the latter struck by the liberty with which the child answered his questions, said in that prophetic accent which, say some, man sometimes acquires shortly before his departure from this world—"Thou shalt be a Bishop and a Prince!"* The prediction made a deep impression on the young mendicant, and from that moment an ambition the most unbounded took possession of his heart. At Zurich, and at Como, his progress in his studies amazed his teachers. He was appointed curate in a small parish in the Valais; rose rapidly in reputation, and being subsequently sent to Rome to solicit the Pope's confirmation of a recent election of a Bishop of Sion, he procured the bishopric for himself, and encircled his head with the episcopal crown. Ambitious and artful, yet not unfrequently noble and generous, this man never regarded one dignity as anything but a stepping-stone to a higher. Having tendered his services to Louis XII. for a stipulated price, the King remarked, "It is too much for any one man."—"I will shew him," replied the Bishop of Sion, in a passion, "that I am a man worth purchasing at the cost of many." Accordingly, he made proposals to Pope Julius II., who received his advances with joy; and Schinner, in the year 1510, succeeded in uniting the whole Swiss Confederation with the policy of that ambitious Pontiff. The Bishop having been rewarded with a Cardinal's hat, smiled to see but a single step between him and the papal throne itself!

Schinner's attention was continually engaged by the Swiss cantons, and as soon as he discerned any man of rising influence, he hastened to attach him to his interest. The pastor of Glaris drew his notice; and it was not long before Zwingle was apprized that the Pope had granted him an annual pension of fifty florins, to encourage him in his studies. His poverty being such as did not allow his purchasing books, this money, so long as he received it, was spent in procuring classical and theological works from Bale.† Zwingle thenceforward connected himself with the Cardinal, and thus became attached to the Romanist party. Schinner, and Julius II., at length laid aside the mask. Eight thousand Swiss, collected together by the eloquence of the Cardinal Bishop, passed the Alps;—but want of supplies, and the valour and bribes of the French, obliged them to retreat ingloriously to their mountains. They brought with them the usual effects of their foreign wars—suspicion, licentiousness, party spirit, violence, and every kind of disorder. The citizens rose against their magistrates, the children against

their fathers—agriculture and their flocks were neglected—and luxury and beggary increased—the most sacred ties were broken, and the Confederacy seemed on the point of falling to pieces.

Then it was that the eyes of the young curate of Glaris were opened, and his indignation was awakened. His powerful voice was raised to show the people the gulf into which they were hurrying. In the year 1510, he published his poem, entitled the Labyrinth. Behind the mazes of that mysterious garden, Minos has concealed the Minotaur, a monster half man and half bull, whom he feeds with the blood of the Athenian youth. The Minotaur, says Zwingle, is the sin, the irreligion, and the foreign service of the Swiss which devour her children.

A brave man, Theseus, undertakes to deliver his country; but many obstacles are in the way;—first, a lion with one eye; it is Spain and Arragon;—next a crowned eagle, with open throat; it is the Empire;—then a cock with crest erect, as if provoking to the onset; it is France. The hero, overcoming all these obstacles, slays the monster, and delivers his country.

"So it is now," exclaims the poet, "the people wander in the labyrinth; but being without the clue, they never return to light. We nowhere see men following the walk of Christ. For a breath of fame we risk our lives—harrass our neighbours—rush into strifes, war, and battles: just as if the very furies had broken loose from hell!"‡

A Thesus was needed—a Reformer;—Zwingle saw this, and from that moment he had an obscure presentiment of his destiny. Shortly after this he put forth another allegory, in which his meaning was more clearly conveyed.†

In April, 1512, the confederates again rose at the Cardinal's summons to the rescue of the Church. Glaris was foremost. The whole commune was enrolled for the campaign, and ranged under its banner with its Landaman and Pastor. Zwingle was compelled to join the march. The army passed the Alps; and the Cardinal made his appearance among the confederates, with the Pontiff's presents—a ducal cap, adorned with pearls and gold, and surmounted with the Holy Spirit, represented under the figure of a dove. The Swiss scaled the walls of the fortified towns, and in the face of the enemy swam the rivers, naked, with their halberds in their arms. Everywhere the French were defeated, the bells and trumpets sounded, people flocked from all sides; the nobles sent to the army wine and fruits in great abundance; monks and priests proclaimed on the roads that the confederates were God's people, and the avengers of the spouse of Christ; while the Pope, a prophet similar to Caiaphas, conferred on the confederates the title of "Defenders of the Liberty of the Church."‡

This visit to Italy was not without its consequences to Zwingle in his vocation as a Reformer. It was on his return from this campaign that he began to study Greek—"in order," he said, "to draw from the true source the doctrine of Christ."§ "I am resolved to apply myself so closely to Greek (he wrote to Vadian, Feb. 23, 1513,) that no one but God shall call me off from that study." "I do so from a love of divine learning, and not for the sake of fame." At a subsequent period, a worthy priest, who had been his school-

* Dass wir die höllischen wütterinn'n Mögend denken abbrochen syn.

(Zw. Opp. ed. Schuler et Schulthess, ii. part ii. 260.)

† Fabelgedicht vom Ochsen und ethlichen Thieren, diez lottfender dinge begriffenlich. (Ibid. 267.)

‡ De Gestis inter Gallos et Helvetios, relatio H. Zwinglii.

§ Ante decem annos, operam dedi græcis literis, ut ex fons tibus doctrinam Christi haurire possem. (Zw. Opp. l. 274. Explan. Article, 1523.)

* Helvet. Kirch. Gesch. von Wirtz, iii. 214.

† Welches er an die Bücher verwandte. (Bullinger MSC.)

fellow, having visited him—"Master Ulrich," said the visitor, "they tell me you have gone into the new error, and that you are a follower of Luther."—"I am no Lutheran," said Zwingle, "for I understood Greek before I had heard the name of Luther."* To understand Greek, and study the Gospel in the original, was, in Zwingle's judgment, the basis of the Reformation.

Zwingle went beyond this early acknowledgment of the great principle of Evangelic Christianity, namely the unerring authority of Holy Scripture. He further saw the way of determining the sense of the Divine Word:—"Those persons have but low thoughts of the Gospel, who regard whatever they think incompatible with their reason as of no consequence, unnecessary, or unjust.† Men are not permitted to bend the Gospel according to their pleasure, to their own interpretations."‡ "Zwingle looked to heaven," says his best friend, "desiring to have no other interpreter than the Holy Ghost."§

Such, from the very commencement of his career, was the man who has been boldly represented as having aimed to subject the Bible to human reason. "Philosophy and Theology," said he, "were constantly raising difficulties in my mind. At length, I was brought to say, we must leave these things, and endeavour to enter into God's thoughts in his own word. I applied myself," continues he, "in earnest prayer to the Lord, to give me his light; and though I read nothing but Scripture, its sense became clearer to me than if I had studied many commentators."¶ He compared Scripture with Scripture, interpreting obscure texts by such as were more clear.¶ Ere long he was thoroughly acquainted with the Bible, and especially with the New Testament.¶ When Zwingle thus turned toward the Holy Scriptures, Switzerland made its earliest advance toward the Reformation. Accordingly, when he expounded their meaning, all felt that his teaching came from God, and not from man.** "A work altogether divine!" exclaims Oswald Myconius;—"it was in this manner that we recovered the knowledge of heavenly truth."

Yet Zwingle did not despise the explanations of the most celebrated teachers; he subsequently studied Origen, Ambrose, Jerome, Augustine, Chrysostom, but never as authorities. "I study the doctors," said he, "just as we ask a friend, *How do you understand this?*" Holy Scripture was, in his judgment, the touchstone by which the holiest doctors should themselves so be tested.††

Zwingle's advance was slow and progressive. He did not arrive at truth, as Luther had done, by those tempest-shocks, which compel the soul hastily to seek a refuge; he reached it by the gentle influence of Scripture—a power which gradually subdues the heart of man. Luther attained the wished-for shore, after struggling with the storms of ocean:—Zwingle, by steering cautiously and slowly along the shore. They are the two leading methods by which God conducts men. † Zwingle was not fully converted to God and his Gospel until the early days of his abode at Zurich;

* Ich hab' græcæ können, ehe ich ni nüt von Luther gehört hab'. (Safat. Chronicle, MSC.)

† Nihil sublimius de evangelio sentiunt, quam quod, quidquid eorum rationi non est consentaneum, hoc iniquum, vanum et frivolum existant. (Zw. Opp. i. 202.)

‡ Nec posse evangelium ad sensum et interpretationem hominum redigi. (Zw. Opp. i. 215.)

§ In cœlum suspexit, doctorem quærens spiritum. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

¶ Scripta contulit et obscura claris elucidavit. (Ibid.)

¶ In summa er macht ihm, die H. Schrift, Insonders dass N. T. ganz gemein. (Bullinger, MSC.)

** Ut nemo non videret Spiritum doctorem, non hominem. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

†† Scriptura canonica, seu Lydio lapide probandos. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

yet the moment when, in 1514 or 1515, this bold man bowed the knee before God, to ask of Him to enable him to understand His word, was that wherein appeared the dawn of the Day-Star which afterward rose upon him.

It was about this time that a poem of Erasmus, wherein that writer introduced Jesus Christ speaking to one who was perishing by his own apathy, produced a deep impression on Zwingle's thoughts. Alone in his room, he repeated to himself the passage in which Jesus complained that men came not to him for all grace, though he was the fountain of all blessing. "All!" said Zwingle, "All!" and that word again and again recurred to his mind.—"Are there then any created beings or saints, from whom we should seek help? No, Christ is our only treasure."*

Zwingle did not confine his reading to Christian writers. One of the accompaniments of the Reformation of the sixteenth century was an attentive study of the classics. Zwingle delighted in the poems of Hesiod, Homer, and Pindar, and has left commentaries on the two latter. He studied closely Cicero and Demosthenes, whose writings instructed him in oratory and politics. The child of the mountains also loved the wonders of nature as reported by Pliny: Thucydides, Sallust, Livy, Cæsar, Suetonius, Plutarch, and Tacitus, gave him an insight into the affairs of life. He has been blamed for his enthusiastic attachment to the great names of antiquity; and true it is, that some of his expressions respecting them are not to be justified. But, in paying them so much honour, he thought he discerned in them not mere human virtues, but the influence of the Holy Spirit. God's dealings, far from being limited in former ages to the Holy Land, extended, as he thought, to the whole world.† "Plato, also," said he, "drew from a source divine; and if the Catos, Camillus, and Scipios, had not been deeply religious, could they have acted so nobly as we know they did?"‡

Zwingle diffused around him a love of letters. Several young persons of distinction were brought up in his school. "You have offered me, not only your books, but yourself," wrote Valentine Tschudi, son of one of the heroes in the wars of Burgundy: and this youth, who had already studied at Vienna and Bale, under the first masters, added, "I have never met with any one who explains the classics with so much justness of thought, and depth of understanding, as yourself."§ Tschudi went to Paris, and had an opportunity of comparing the genius of its university with that he had known in the narrow valley of the Alps, overlooked by the gigantic summits and eternal snows of the Dodi, the Glarnisch, the Righi, and the Freyberg. "In what trifling do they educate the youth of France!" said he, "no poison can equal the sophistical art they are trained in. It dulls the faculties, destroys the judgment, and reduces to the level of the brutes. It makes a man a mere echo, an empty sound. Ten women could not compete with one of such sophists.¶ Even in their prayers, I feel assured they bring their sophisms to God himself, and would, by syllogisms, oblige the Holy Spirit to grant their petitions."|| Such, at this period, was Paris, the intellectual capital of Christendom, contrasted with Glaris, a market-town of shep-

* Dass Christus unser armen seelen ein einziger Schatz sey. (Zw. Opp. i. 298.) Zwingle speaking in 1523, says he read this poem of Erasmus eight or nine years before.

† Spiritus ille cœlestis non solum Palestinam vel creaverat vel fovebat, sed mundum universum . . . (Ecol. et Zw. Opp. p. 9.)

‡ Nisi religiosi nunquam fuissent magnanimi. (Ibid.)

§ Nam qui sit acrioris in enodandis autoribus iudicii, vidi neminem. (Zw. Opp. p. 13.)

|| Ut nec decem mulierculæ . . . uni sophistæ adæquari queant. (Ibid. 45.)

herds of the Alps. One gleam of light from God's word gives more true illumination than all the wisdom of man.

A great genius of that age, Erasmus, exercised much influence on Zwingle. The moment any of his writings appeared, Zwingle hastened to procure it. In 1514, Erasmus visited Bale, and was received by its Bishop with every expression of esteem. All the friends of learning assembled round him. But the monarch of the schools had at once discovered the man who promised to be the glory of Switzerland. "I congratulate the Swiss people," said he, writing to Zwingle, "that you are doing your best to civilize and ennoble it, by studies and moral conduct alike worthy of admiration."* Zwingle longed to see him. "Spaniards and Gauls once made the journey to Rome to look on Titus Livius," said he, and—set out. Arriving at Bale, he there found a man about forty years of age, of small stature, weak health, and delicate constitution, but extremely amiable and polite.† It was Erasmus. The charm of his intimacy banished Zwingle's timidity, and the power of his intellect impressed him with reverence. "As poor," said Ulrich, "as Æschines, when the disciples of Socrates each brought a gift to their master, I make you the present he made, and give you *myself*,"

Among the men of learning who then formed a kind of court of Erasmus—Amerbach, Rhenanus, Froben, Nessenus, Glareanus, and the rest—Zwingle took notice of a young native of Lucerne, twenty-seven years of age, named Oswald Geishüssler. Erasmus, translating his name into Greek, had named him Myconius. We shall often speak of him by his Christian name, to distinguish this friend of Zwingle from Frederic Myconius, the disciple of Luther. Oswald, after studying at Rothwyl, with another young man of his own age, named Berthold Haller—then at Berne, and afterward at Bale—had become rector of St. Theodoric's, and still later of St. Peter's, school in that city. Though the humble schoolmaster had but a slender income, he had married a young girl of a simplicity and purity of mind that won all hearts. We have already said that it was a time of trouble in Switzerland; when foreign wars gave rise to scandalous disorders, and the soldiers, returning to their country, brought with them habits of licentiousness and brutality. One winter's day, gloomy and overcast, some of these wretches attacked the quiet dwelling of Oswald, in his absence. They assaulted the door, threw stones, and with indecent language called for his wife. At last, they burst open the door, and having made their way to his school, broke everything in the place, and then retired. Shortly after, Oswald returned. His son, little Felix, ran to meet him with loud cries; and his wife, speechless, made signs of horror. In a moment, he perceived what had happened. At the same instant, a noise was heard in the street. Unable to control himself, the schoolmaster seized a weapon, and pursued the rioters to the cemetery. They took refuge within it and prepared to resist. Three of them rushed upon Myconius, and wounded him; and, while his wounds were being dressed, the wretches again broke into his house, with horrid cries. Oswald tells no more.‡ Such were the scenes which took place in Switzerland, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, before the Reformation had humanized the manners of the people.

The uprightness of Oswald Myconius, and his desire of learning and virtue, brought him into contact

with Zwingle. The rector of the school of Bale at once acknowledged the superior genius of the curate of Glaris. In unaffected humility he shrunk from the praises of Zwingle and Erasmus. "You schoolmasters," the latter would often say, "are, in my opinion, equal to kings." But the modest Myconius was of a different judgment. "I do but creep upon the earth," said he; "from my childhood there has been a something low and small about me."**

A preacher who had arrived in Bale, almost at the same time as Zwingle, was then exciting attention. Of mild and peaceful temper, he loved a tranquil life; slow and circumspect in his actions, he was most happy in studious occupations, and in endeavours to promote good will among Christians.† He was named John Hausschein, in Greek, Æcolampadius, or "light of the house," and was born in Franconia, of rich parents, one year before the birth of Zwingle. His pious mother wished to devote to learning and to God himself the only child that Providence had left her. His father at first destined him to commerce, and afterward to jurisprudence; but on Æcolampadius's return from Bologna, (where he had studied law,) the Lord, whose purpose it was to make him a light in the Church, called him to the study of Theology.‡ He was preaching in his native town, when Capito, who had made his acquaintance at Heidelberg, obtained his election as preacher at Bale. He there proclaimed Christ, with an eloquence which was the admiration of his hearers.§ Erasmus admitted him to intimacy. Æcolampadius was charmed with the hours he spent in the society of this distinguished genius. "We must seek," said the prince of scholars, "we must seek but one thing in Holy Scripture, namely, Jesus Christ."|| He presented to the young preacher, in token of his friendship, the first chapters of St. John's Gospel. Æcolampadius would often kiss this pledge of so valued a friendship, and appended it to his crucifix, "in order," said he, "that I may always remember Erasmus in my prayers."

Zwingle returned to his mountain-home with his mind and heart full of all he had seen and heard at Bale. "I should not be able to sleep," said he, writing to Erasmus, "without holding some discourse with you. There is nothing I am so proud of as having seen Erasmus." Zwingle had received a new impulsion. Such visits have at times great effects on a Christian's conduct. The disciples of Zwingle, Valentin, Jost, Louis, Peter, and Egidius Tschudi; his friends, the bailiff, Aebli, the curate, Binzli, of Wesen, Fridolin Brunner, and the celebrated professor Glareanus, were delighted to watch his growth in wisdom and knowledge. The old respected him as a courageous defender of his country;—the faithful pastors as a zealous minister of the Lord. Nothing was transacted in the country without his advice. All the better sort looked to him as destined one day to restore the ancient virtues of their country.¶

Francis the First having ascended the throne, and preparing to avenge on Italy the honour of France, the Pope in alarm, sought to gain over the cantons. Thus, in 1515, Ulrich again saw the plains of Italy covered by the battalions of his fellow-countrymen. But the

* *Equidem hui rei repere didici hactenus, et est natura nescio quid humile vel a cunabulis in me.* (Osw. *Myc. Vit. Zw.*)

† *Ingenio miti et tranquillo, pacis et concordie studiosissimus.* (M. *Ad. Vit. Eccl. p. 63.*)

‡ *Flectente et vocante Deo, qui eo in domo sua pro lampade usurus erat.* (Ibid. 46.)

§ *Omnia vero spiritualium et eruditorum admiratione Christum predicavit.* (Ibid.)

|| *Nihil in sacris literis præter Christum querendum.* (Erasmii, *Epp.* p. 403.)

¶ *Iustitiam avitam per hunc olim restitutum iri.* (Osw. *Myc. Vit. Zw.*)

* *Tu tuique similes optimis etiam studiis ac moribus et expoliatis et nobilitatis.* (Zw. *Epp.* p. 10.)

† *Et corpusculum hoc tuo minuto, verum minime inconcinno, urbanissime gentium tuarum videar.* (Ibid.)

‡ *Erasmii, Laus Stultitiae, cum annot. Myconii.*

discord which the intrigues of the French introduced among the army of the confederates grieved his spirit. Often might he be seen, in the midst of the camp, haranguing, in words of energy and wisdom, an audience armed from head to foot and ready for battle.* On the 8th of September, five days before the battle of Marignan, he preached in the square of Monza, where the Swiss troops who adhered to their standards were assembled. "If the advice of Zwingle had then been followed," says Werner Steiner, of Zug, "what miseries would our country have been spared!" But all ears were closed against the accents of concord, peace, and submission. The overpowering eloquence of the Cardinal Schinner electrified the confederates, and made them rush impetuously to the fatal plains of Marignan. The flower of the Swiss youth perished. Zwingle, who had failed in his attempts to avert these calamities, exposed himself in the cause of Rome to the greatest danger. His hand grasped a sword!† Melancholy mistake of Zwingle. He, a minister of Christ, more than once forgot that it was his duty, to fight only with the weapons of the Spirit, and he was doomed to see accomplished in his own case in a most striking manner, that prophecy of the Lord, *They that take the sword shall perish by the sword.*

Zwingle and the Swiss failed to save Rome from defeat. The Venetian ambassador, at the court of Rome, was the first to learn the news of the defeat at Marignan. Overjoyed, he repaired early to the Vatican. The Pope left his apartments, though scarcely attired, to give him audience. Leo the Tenth, on hearing the intelligence, made no secret of his fears. In a moment of alarm, he saw nothing but Francis the First, and lost all hope:—"My lord ambassador," said he, tremblingly, to Zorsi, "we must throw ourselves into the king's arms, and cry for mercy." Luther and Zwingle, when in circumstances of peril, knew another refuge, and invoked another mercy.‡

This second visit to Italy was not unattended with advantage to Zwingle. He took notice of the differences between the Ambrosian ritual, in use at Milan, and that of Rome. He collected, and compared with each other, the most ancient canons of the Mass. Thus his spirit of inquiry found employment amid the tumult of camps. At the same time, the sight of the children of his native land, drawn from their mountains, and delivered up to slaughter, like their cattle, filled him with indignation. "The blood of the confederates," said he, "is counted of less value than their sheep and oxen." The faithlessness and ambition of the pope—the avarice and ignorance of the clergy—the licentiousness and immorality of the monks—the pride and luxury of the prelates—the corruption and venality that spread on all sides among his countrymen—all these evils were forced more than ever on his notice, and helped to deepen, more than ever, his conviction of the necessity of a reformation in the Church.

Zwingle, from that time, preached the word of God with more distinctness. He expounded the portions of the Gospels and Epistles chosen for public worship; ever comparing Scripture with Scripture.¶ He spoke with force and animation,¶ and pursued, with his audi-

tors, the same course that God was pursuing with him. He did not expose, as Luther did, the wounds of the Church; but, according as his study of the Bible discovered to him any profitable instruction, he imparted it to his flock. He laboured to persuade them to receive the truth into their hearts; and then depended upon it for the effect it was destined to produce.* "If the people see clearly what is true," thought he, "they will at once discern what is false."—This maxim is good in the commencement of a reformation, but a time arrives when error must be boldly denounced. Zwingle well knew this. "The spring," said he, "is the season for sowing our seed."—It was then seed time with him.

Zwingle has marked this period as the dawn of the Swiss Reformation. Four years before, he had bent over God's book; and he now raised his head, and turned toward the people to impart to them the light he had received from it. It was a new and important epoch, in the development of the religious revolution of these countries; but it is a mistaken conclusion to infer that Zwingle's reformation preceded Luther's. Zwingle may possibly have preached the Gospel a year previous to the theses of Luther, but the Gospel was preached by Luther himself, four years before those celebrated propositions. If Luther and Zwingle had done nothing but preach, the Reformation would not have so soon spread through the Church. The one and the other was neither the first monk, nor the first priest who taught a purer doctrine than the scholastic teachers: but Luther was the first who boldly and publicly raised the standard of truth against prevailing error, and invited general attention to the fundamental doctrine of the Gospel, *salvation by grace*; thus introducing his generation to that path of knowledge, faith and life, from which a new world has arisen, and commencing a real and saving change. The great battle, of which the signal was given in the theses of 1517, was the true parent of the Reformation, and gave to it both its soul and its form. Luther was the earliest of the Reformers.

A spirit of inquiry was beginning to breathe on the Swiss mountains. One day, the curate of Glaris, being in the lovely country of Mollis, at the house of Adam, the curate of the place, in company with Binzli, the curate of Wesen, and Varchon, curate of Kerensen, the party of friends found an old liturgy, in which they read these words—"After the child is baptized, the sacrament of the Lord's Supper and the cup is to be given him."†—"Then," remarked Zwingle, "the Supper was, at that time, given under both kinds!" The liturgy in question was about two centuries old. This was a great discovery for the priests of the Alps.

The defeat at Marignan produced the consequences that were to be expected in the remoter cantons. The victorious Francis I. lavished gold and flattery to win over the confederates; and the emperor adjured them by their honour, by the tears of widows and orphans, and the blood of their brethren, not to sell their services to their murderers. The French party prevailed in Glaris, and his residence in the country became, from that time, a burden to Ulrich.

At Glaris, Zwingle might have remained a man of his own age. Party intrigue, political prejudices, the empire, France, the duke of Milan, might have almost absorbed his life. God never leaves in the tumult of the world those whom he is training for the people. He leads them aside—he sets them in solitude, where they may feel themselves in his presence, and gather

* In dem Heerlager hat er Flyssig geprediget. (Bullinger MSC.)

† . . . In den Schlachten sich redlich und dapper gestellt mit Rathen, Worten und Thaten. (Bullinger, MSC.)

‡ Domine orator, vederemo quel fara il re Christo semetteremo in le so man dimandando misericordia. (Zorsi Relatione MS.)

§ Bellissimo parlador: (Leo X.) prometea assa ma non attendea. . . . (Relatione MSC. di Gradenigo, venuto orator di Roma.)

¶ Non hominum commentis, sed sola scripturarum biblicarum collatione. (Zw. Opp. i. 273.)

¶ Sondern auch mit predigen, dorrinnen er helftig wass. (Bullinger's MS.)

* Volebat veritatem cognitam, in cordibus auditorum, agere suum officium. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

† Detur Eucharistie sacramentum, similiter poculum sanguinis. (Zw. Opp. i. 266.)

inexhaustible instruction. The Son of God himself, the type in that particular of his dealings with his servants, passed forty days in the desert. The time had come when Zwingle was to be delivered from the turmoil of his political agitation, which by constant passage through his soul would have quenched the spirit of God. It was time that he should be disciplined for another stage than that whereon figured courtiers and factions, and on which he might have been tempted to waste an energy worthy of better aims. His country stood in need of a very different service. It was necessary that a new life should at this time descend from heaven, and that he who was to be the instrument in communicating it to others should himself unlearn the things of time. These two spheres are entirely distinct; a wide space separates these two worlds; and before passing from the one to the other, Zwingle was to halt for a while on a neutral territory, a middle and preparatory ground, there to be taught of God. God at this time took him from the centre of the factions of Glaris, and led him, for his novitiate, to the solitude of a hermitage. Thus was the hopeful promise of the Reformation, which, ere long, was to be transplanted to another soil, and to cover the mountains with its shadow, shut up in the narrow enclosure of the walls of an abbey.

About the middle of the ninth century, a wayfaring monk, Meinrad of Hohenzollern, had passed between the lakes of Zurich and Wallstetten, and resting on a little hill in front of an amphitheatre of fir-trees, had constructed there his cell. Outlaws had imbrued their hands in the blood of the saint. For a long time the blood-stained cell was deserted. But toward the end of the tenth century, a convent and church, in honour of the virgin, was built on this sacred spot. On the eve of the day appointed for its consecration, the bishop of Constance and his priests were at prayers in the church—when a heavenly light, proceeding from some invisible beings, suddenly resounded in the chapel. They listened prostrate and amazed. Next day as the bishop was about to consecrate the chapel, a voice three times repeated, "Stop! Stop! God himself has consecrated it." Christ in person, it was said, had pronounced his blessing on it during the night; the hymns heard were those of the angels, apostles, and saints; and the virgin had appeared for an instant like a flash of lightning on the altar. A bull of Leo VIII. forbade the faithful to doubt the truth of this legendary tale. From that time a vast crowd of pilgrims poured incessantly to our lady of the Eremites for the consecration of the angels. Delphi and Ephesus in former ages, and Loretto in modern times, have alone equalled the renown of Einsidlen. It was in this singular scene that Ulrich Zwingle was, in 1516, called to be priest and preacher.

Zwingle did not hesitate. "I am neither swayed by ambition, nor the love of gain," said he, "but driven by the intrigues of the French."† Motives of a higher kind concur to decide him. On the one hand being more retired, having more quiet, and a charge of less extent, he will have more time for study and meditation. On the other hand, this resort of pilgrims will afford him opportunity for diffusing to the most distant lands the knowledge of Christ.‡

The friends of the gospel at Glaris loudly expressed their grief. "What worse could have befallen Glaris," said Peter Tachudi, one of the most distinguished citi-

zens of the canton, "than to lose so valuable a man."§ His parishioners, seeing his inflexibility, resolved to continue to him the name of pastor of Glaris, with a part of the stipend, and the power of returning to it whenever he would.†

Conrad, of Reichberg, a gentleman descended from an ancient family, of serious, open-hearted intrepid, and sometimes stern manners, was one of the best known huntsmen of the country whither he was going. He had established on one of his estates a stud for the breeding of horses, which became famous in Italy. This man was the *abbot* of our lady of the Eremites. Reichberg held in equal aversion the pretensions of Rome, and theological controversy. When one, on occasion of a visitation of the order, made some remarks: "I am master here and not you," answered he abruptly: "go about your business." Another time, when Leo Juda was discussing some subject at table with the administrator of the convent, the hunting abbot exclaimed: "Let me put an end to your disputings: I say, with David—*Have mercy upon me, O God! according to thy loving kindness: Enter not into judgment with thy servant!* and I want to know nothing more."‡

The baron Theobald de Geroldsek was administrator of the monastery. He was of mild character, sincerely pious, and fond of learning. His favourite scheme was to collect in his convent a society of learned men. With this view he had invited Zwingle. Eager for instruction, he entreated his new friend to direct his studies. "Read the Holy Scriptures," answered Zwingle, "and for the better understanding them, consult St. Jerome." "And yet," he continued, "a time is coming (and soon too, with God's help,) when Christians will think little of St. Jerome or any other teacher, but the word of God."§ The conduct of Geroldsek exhibited evidence of his progress in the faith. He gave permission to the nuns of a nunnery attached to Einsidlen to read the bible in the vulgar tongue, and some years after he took up his abode at Zurich, in Zwingle's neighbourhood, and died on the plain of Cappel. The same attraction soon united to Zwingle the worthy Exlin, Lucas, and other inmates of the abbey walls. These studious men, remote from the clamours of party, were accustomed to read together the Scriptures, the fathers, the masterpieces of antiquity, and the writings of the restorers of learning. It often happened that friends from distant parts joined their interesting circle. One day Capito, among others, arrived on a visit to Einsidlen. The two friends, renewing the connexion formed at Baden, together went round the convent and its wild environs, absorbed in conversation touching the Scripture and the will of God. On one point they were agreed—it was that *the pope must fall!* Capito was at that time a braver man than he was at a later date.

In this quiet retreat, Zwingle had rest, leisure, books, and friends; and he grew in understanding and in faith. Then it was (May 1507,) that he applied himself to a task that was very useful to him. As in early times, the kings of Israel with their own hands transcribed the law of God, so Zwingle copied out the epistles of St. Paul. There were then none but cumbersome editions of the New Testament, and Zwingle wished to be able to carry it always about him.|| He

* Quid enim Glareanæ nostræ tristius accidere poterat, tanto videlicet privari viro. (Zw. Epp. p. 16.)

† For two years after this, Zwingle still signed himself: Pastor Glaronæ, Minister Eremi. (Ibid.)

‡ Wirz, K. Gesch. iii. 363. Zwingli's Bildung v. Schüler, p. 174. Miscell. Tigur. iii. 23.

§ Fore, idque brevi, Deo sic juvante, ut neque Hieronymus neque ceteri, sed sola scriptura divina apud Christianos in prætio sit futura. (Zw. Opp. i. 273.)

|| This manuscript is in the library of Zurich.

* Cossa, cossa frater, divinitus cappella consecrata est. Hartm. Annal. Einsidl. p. 51.

† Locum mutavimus non cupidinis aut cupiditatis moti stimulis, verum Gallorum technis. (Zw. Epp. 24.)

‡ Christum et ejus veritatem in regiones et varias et remotas divulgari tam felici opportunitate. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

learned by heart the whole of the epistles; then the remaining books of the New Testament; and after that portions of the Old. Thus did his heart cleave more and more to the supreme authority of God's word. Not satisfied with acknowledging its supremacy, he formed the resolution to subject his life to it in sincerity. Gradually his walk became in every thing more Christian. The purpose for which he had been brought into this wilderness was then accomplishing. Doubtless it was not till his visit to Zurich, that the Christian life penetrated his soul with power; but already at Einsidlen his progress in sanctification was evident. At Glaris he had been seen to take part in worldly amusements; at Einsidlen he was more noticeable for purity of manners, and freedom from every stain, and from every kind of worldliness: he began to see the great spiritual interests of the people, and by slow degrees learned what God would teach him.

Providence had, besides, other purposes in bringing him to Einsidlen. He was to have a nearer view of the superstitions and corruptions which had invaded the church. The image of the Virgin, carefully preserved in the monastery, it was alleged, had the power of working miracles. Over the gate of the abbey might be read this pompous inscription: "Here may be obtained complete remission of sins." A multitude of pilgrims, from all parts of Christendom, flocked to Einsidlen, that they might obtain this grace for their pilgrimage. The church, the abbey, the whole valley, was crowded, on occasion of the fete of the Virgin, with her devout worshippers. But it was especially on the grand fete of the consecration of the angels, that the crowd thronged the hermitage. Long files, to the number of several thousands of both sexes, climbed the steep sides of the mountain leading to the oratory, singing hymns, or counting the beads of their chaplets. These devout pilgrims forced their way into the church, believing themselves nearer to God there than anywhere else.

Zwingle's residence at Einsidlen had similar effects to those attending Luther's visit to Rome, in admitting him to a closer view of the corruptions of the papacy. It was there his education, as a reformer, was completed. The seriousness his soul had acquired, soon manifested itself in outward action. Affected at the sight of so many evils, he resolved to oppose them energetically. He did not falter between his conscience and his interest. He boldly stood up, and his powerful eloquence fearlessly attacked the superstition of the crowd that surrounded him. "Think not," said he, speaking from his pulpit, "that God is in this temple more than in any other part of creation. Wherever he has fixed your dwelling he encompasses you, and hears you, as much as at our lady at Einsidlen. What power can there be in unprofitable works, weary pilgrimages, offerings, prayers to the Virgin, and the saints, to secure you the favour of God? What signifies the multiplying of words in prayer? what efficacy in the cowl, or shaven crown, or priestly garments, falling, and adorned with gold? God looks upon the heart—and our heart is far off from God."*

But Zwingle was resolved to do more than resist superstition; he sought to satisfy the ardent desire after a reconciliation with God, which urged on some of the pilgrims that flocked to the chapel of our Lady of Einsidlen. "Christ," he cried, like the Baptist from another wilderness of Judea, "Christ, who offered himself on the cross, once for all, is the sacrifice and victim which satisfies for all eternity, for the sins of all believers."† Thus Zwingle went forward. From the

* Vestis oblonga et plicis plena, muli auro ornati . . . Cor vovio interim procula a Deo est. (Zw. Opp. l. 236.)
† Christus qui sese semel in cruce obtulit, hostia est et victima satisfaciens in æternum, pro peccatis omnium fidelium. (Ibid. 263.)

hour when so bold a style of preaching was heard in the most venerated sanctuary in Switzerland, the banner of resistance to Rome was more distinctly visible above its mountains; and there was a kind of earthquake of Reformation, which moved its very foundations.

In truth, an universal astonishment took possession of men's minds, at the sound of the eloquent priest's sermons. Some withdrew with horror; others fluctuated between the faith of their fathers and the doctrine that was to give them peace. Many were led to that Jesus who was declared to be full of mercy, and took away with them the tapers they had brought to present to the Virgin. A crowd of pilgrims returned to their native places, everywhere announcing the tidings they had heard at Einsidlen. "Christ alone saves us, and he saves everywhere!" It often happened that troops of pilgrims, astonished at what they thus heard recounted, turned back without completing their pilgrimage. The worshippers of Mary were every day fewer. It was from their offerings that the revenue of Zwingle and Geroldsek was drawn. But the bold witness for the truth was too happy to see himself impoverished, while thus, spiritually, making many rich.

On Easter Sunday, 1518, among the numerous hearers of Zwingle, was a learned man, of gentle character and active charity, named Gaspard Hedio, a doctor of divinity at Bale. Zwingle preached on the history of the man taken with palsy (Luke v.), in which occurs our Lord's declaration: "*The Son of Man hath power on earth to forgive sins,*" a passage well suited to strike the crowd assembled in the church of the Virgin. The preacher's discourse moved, delighted, and inspired the whole assembly; and, in an especial manner, the Doctor of Bale.* Long afterward, Hedio would express his admiration: "How beautiful and profound! how grave and convincing! how moving, and agreeable to the Scriptures, was that discourse!" said he. "How it reminds one of the *εὐεργετα*, (force,) of the ancient doctors."† From that moment, Hedio loved and admired Zwingle.‡ He longed to go to him, and open his heart. He lingered about the abbey, without daring to make advances, restrained, as he tells us, by a sort of superstitious fear. Mounting his horse, he slowly departed from our Lady's chapel, looking back on a spot which held so great a treasure, with the warmest regret.§

In this manner did Zwingle preach; less powerfully, no doubt, but with more moderation, and no less success than Luther; he avoided precipitation, and gave less offence to men's minds, than did the Saxon monk; he trusted to the power of truth for results. The same prudence marked his intercourse with the dignitaries of the church. Far from directly opposing them, like Luther, he continued long on friendly terms with them. They treated him with respect, not only on account of his learning and talents, (and Luther would have been entitled to equal attention from the Bishops of Mentz and Brandenburg,) but still more on account of his devotion to the pope's political views, and the influence that such a man as Zwingle must needs possess in a republic.

In fact, several cantons, weary of the pope's service, were on the point of a rupture. But the legates hoped to retain many on their side by gaining Zwingle, as they had gained over Erasmus, by pensions and honours. The legates, Ennius and Pucci, often visited

* Is sermo ita me inflammavit . . . (Zw. Epp. p. 90.)

† Elegans ille, doctus, gravis, copiosus, penetrans et evangelicus . . . (Ibid. 89.)

‡ Ut inciperem Zwingium arctissime complecti, suscipere at admirari. (Ibid.)

§ Sicque abequavi, non sine molestia, quam tamen ipse mihi peperam. (Ibid. 90.)

Einsidlen, where, from the proximity of the democratic cantons, their negotiations with those states were most easy. But Zwingle, far from sacrificing truth to the solicitations and bribes of Rome, allowed no opportunity to pass of defending the Gospel. The famous Schinner, who was then on ill terms with his diocese, spent some time at Einsidlen. "The whole papacy," remarked Zwingle, in conversation with him, "rests on bad foundations.* Do you begin and clear away errors and corruptions, or else you will see the whole fabric come tumbling to the ground, with frightful noise."†

He spoke with the same frankness to the legate, Pucci. Four times did he return to the charge. "By God's help," said he, "I mean to preach the Gospel, and that will shake Rome;" and then he went on to explain what was needed in order to save the church. Pucci promised everything, but did nothing. Zwingle declared his intention to throw up the pope's pension, but the legate entreated him to retain it. As he had no desire to appear in open hostility against the head of the church, Zwingle continued in receipt of it for three years. "But do not think," said he, "that for any money I will suppress a single syllable of truth."‡ Pucci, in alarm, procured the nomination of the Reformer as acolyte of the pope. It was a step to further honours. Rome sought to intimidate Luther by solemn judgments, and to win Zwingle by her favours. Against one she hurled excommunications; to the other she cast her gold and splendours. They were two different methods for attaining the same end, and sealing the daring lips which presumed, in opposition to the pope's pleasure, to proclaim the Word of God in Germany and Switzerland. The last device was the most skilfully conceived, but neither was successful. The enlarged hearts of the preachers of the Gospel, were shown to be above the reach of vengeance or seduction.

About this time Zwingle conceived great hopes of another Swiss prelate. This was Hugo of Landenberg, Bishop of Constance. Landenberg gave directions for a general visitation of the churches, but being a man of very feeble character, he allowed himself to be overruled, sometimes by Faber, his vicar, at others by a bad woman, from whose influence he could not extricate himself. He sometimes seemed to honour the Gospel, and yet, if any one preached it boldly, he looked upon the preacher as a disturber. He was one of those men too often met with in the church, who, preferring truth to error, are, nevertheless, more tender of error than concerned for truth; and are frequently found, at last, opposed to those in whose ranks they ought to be contending. Zwingle applied to Hugo; but in vain. He was doomed to experience, as Luther had done, that it was useless to invoke the assistance of the heads of the church; and that the only way to revive Christianity, was to act the part of a faithful teacher of God's Word. The opportunity for this was not long delayed.

In 1518, a barefooted Carmelite arrived on the heights of St. Gothard, in those elevated passes which have been with difficulty opened across the steep rocks that separate Switzerland from Italy. This man had been brought up in an Italian convent, and was the bearer of papal indulgences, which he was commissioned to sell to the good Christian people of the Helvetic league. Brilliant successes, under two preceding popes, had made him notorious for this shameful traffic. Companions of his journey, whose business

it was to puff off his wares, accompanied his advance across snows and ice-fields, as old as creation itself. The caravan, miserable in its appearance, and a good deal resembling a troop of adventurers in quest of booty, went forward to the sound of the dashing streams that form, by their confluence, the rivers Rhine, Reuss, Aar, Rhone, Tessino, and others—silently meditating the spoiling of the simple Swiss. Samson—for that was the name of the Carmelite, attended by his company, arrived first at Uri, and commenced their trade. They had soon made an end with these poor country-folks, and removed thence to the canton of Schwitz. It was there Zwingle was residing; and there it was that the contest between these servants of two widely different masters was to begin. "I am empowered to remit all sins!" said the Italian monk, (the Tetzel of Switzerland,) to the people of Schwitz. "Heaven and earth are subject to my authority; and I dispose of Christ's merits to whoever will purchase them, by bringing me their money for their indulgences."

When tidings of this discourse reached Zwingle, his zeal was kindled, and he preached vehemently. "Christ," said he, "the son of God, says, *Come unto me all ye who labour and are heavy laden, and I will give you rest.* What audacious folly and madness is it then to say, contradicting him: 'Buy letters of indulgence, apply to Rome, give your money to the monks, sacrifice to the priests!—if you do these things, I will absolve you from your sins.' Christ is the one offering! Christ is the only sacrifice! Christ is the only way!"†

Throughout Schwitz, people soon spoke of Samson as a cheat and impostor. He took the road to Zug; and, for the moment, the two champions missed each other.

Scarcely had Samson taken his departure from Schwitz, when a citizen of that canton, named Stapfer, who was much respected, and afterward public secretary, was suddenly reduced, with his family, to a state of total destitution. "Alas!" said he, addressing himself, in his perplexity, to Zwingle, "I know not how to satisfy my hunger, and the wants of my poor children."‡ Zwingle could give when Rome would take; and he was as ready to do good works, as he was to oppose those who inculcated them as means by which we are saved. He daily supplied Stapfer with support.§ "It is God," said he, intent on taking no credit to himself, "it is God who begets charity in the believer, and gives at once the first thought, the resolve, and the work itself; it is God who does it by his own power,"|| Stapfer's affection for him lasted till death; and, four years after this, when he filled the post of Secretary of Schwitz, he turned to Zwingle under the feeling of a higher want, and with noble candour, said, "Since it was you who once supplied my temporal need, how much more may I expect you may give me that which shall satisfy the famine of my soul."

The friends of Zwingle multiplied daily. It was no longer at Glaris, Bale, and Schwitz, that persons were found whose hearts were with him: at Uri, there was Schmidt, the secretary; at Zug, Colin Muller, and Werner Steiner, his old companions in arms at Marnigan; at Lucerne, Xyloctect and Kilchmeyer; at Bienne, Wittembach; and in other parts not a few.

* Romam curre! redimo literas indulgentiarum! da tantumdem monachis! offer sacerdotibus, &c. (Zw. Opp. i. 222.)

† Christus una est oblatio, unum sacrificium, una via. (Ibid.) 201.

‡ Ut mese, meorumque liberorum indeie corporali subveniretis. (Zw. Opp. 284.)

§ Largas mihi quotidie suppetias tulistis. (Ibid.) || Caritatem ingenerat Deus, consilium, propositum et opus. Quidquid boni præstat justus, hoc Deus, sua virtute præstat. (Zw. Opp. i. 226.)

* Dass das ganz papstum einen schlechten grund habe (Zw. Opp. ii. pars. i. 7.)

† Oder aber sy werdint mit grosser unriw umfallen. (Ibid.)

‡ Frustra sperari me vel verbum de veritate deminatorum esse, pecunie gratia. (Zw. Opp. i. 365.)

But the curate of Einsidlen had no more devoted friend than Oswald Myconius. Oswald had quitted Bale in 1516, to take the direction of the Cathedral school at Zurich. At this period, that city possessed neither learned men nor schools. Oswald laboured, in conjunction with several benevolent persons, to reclaim the people of Zurich from their ignorance, and initiate them in ancient learning. He at the same time defended the uncompromising truth of holy Scripture, and declared that if the pope or the emperor should enjoin what was contrary to the Gospel, it was man's duty to obey God alone, who is above emperor or pope.

Seven centuries before, Charlemagne had added a college of canons to that same cathedral, the school attached to which was placed under Oswald Myconius. These canons having declined from their first institution, and wishing to enjoy their benefices in the sweets of indolence, had adopted the custom of electing a preacher, to whom they delegated the duty of preaching, and the cure of souls. This post became vacant shortly after the arrival of Oswald, who immediately thought of his friend. What a blessing it would be to Zurich! Zwingle's manners and appearance were prepossessing—he was a handsome man,* of polite address, and pleasing conversation, already remarked for his eloquence, and distinguished among all the confederated Swiss for his brilliant genius. Myconius spoke of him to the provost of the chapter, Felix Frey,† who was prepossessed by the manners and talents of Zwingle; to Utinger, an old man much respected; and to the canon, Hoffman, a man of upright and open character, who having, for a long time, opposed the foreign service of the Swiss, was favourably inclined toward Ulrich. Other inhabitants of Zurich had, on different occasions, heard Zwingle at Einsidlen, and had returned home full of admiration. The approaching election of a preacher for the cathedral, ere long put everybody in Zurich in motion. Various interests were started; many laboured night and day to promote the election of the eloquent preacher of our Lady of the Eremites.‡ Myconius apprised his friend of it. "On Wednesday next," answered Zwingle, "I am going to dine at Zurich, and we will talk it over." He came accordingly. Calling on one of the canons, the latter inquired: "Could you not come among us, and preach the Word of God?" "I could," answered Zwingle, "but I will not come unless invited;" and, forthwith, he returned to his monastery.

This visit alarmed his enemies. They persuaded several priests to offer themselves as candidates for the vacant post. A Suabian, named Lorenzo Fable, even preached a sermon in proof of his talent; and a report prevailed that he was chosen. "True it is, then," said Zwingle when he heard it, "no prophet is honoured in his own country; since a Suabian is preferred before a Swiss. I see what popular applause is worth."§ Immediately afterward, Zwingle received intelligence from the secretary of Cardinal Schinner that the election had not taken place; nevertheless the false report that had reached him piqued the curate of Einsidlen. Finding one so unworthy as Fable aspiring to fill the office, he was the more bent on obtaining it, and wrote to Myconius on the subject. Oswald answered the following day. "Fable will continue *Fable*: the good folks who will have to decide the election,

have learned that he is the father of six sons, and is besides possessed of, I can't tell how many benefices."*

Zwingle's opponents were not discouraged; true, all agreed in extolling his distinguished acquirements;† but some said, "he is too passionately fond of music;" others, "he is fond of company and pleasure;" others again, "he was in his youth very intimate with people of loose morals." One man even charged him with having been guilty of seduction. This was mere calumny: yet Zwingle, although more innocent than the ecclesiastics of his age, had more than once, in the first years of his ministry, given way to the passions of youth. It is not easy to estimate the effect upon the soul of the atmosphere in which it lives. There existed under the Papacy, and among the clergy, disorders that were established, allowed, and recognised, as agreeable to the laws of nature. A saying of Æneas Sylvius, afterward Pope Pius II., gives some notion of the wretched state of public morals at this period.‡ Licentiousness had become almost everywhere allowed.

Oswald exerted all his activity in his friend's favour. He laboured to the utmost to clear his character, and happily succeeded.§ He visited the burgomaster Roust, Hoffman, Frey, and Utinger. He extolled the probity, the frankness, and deportment of Zwingle, and confirmed the favourable impression that he had made on the people of Zurich. But little credence was given to the assertions of his adversaries. The men of most weight gave their judgment that Zwingle should be the preacher of Zurich. The canons whispered the same thing. "You may hope for success," wrote Oswald, with emotion, "for I have hopes of it." At the same time he apprized him of the charges of his enemies. Although Zwingle was not yet altogether a new man, his was the soul of one whose conscience is awakened, and who may fall into sin, but never without struggle and remorse. Often had he determined to live a holy life—alone among his order—in the world. But when he heard himself accused he would not boast of exemption from sin. Accordingly he wrote to the canon, Utinger. "With none to walk with me in the path of holiness (many even of those about me being offended at it,) I did alas! fall—and, as St. Peter says, turned again, like a dog, to my own vomit.|| God knows with what shame and anguish I have dragged forth into light these sins from the depths of my heart, and spread them before that mighty God, to whom I, however, confess my wretchedness more freely than to mortal man."¶ But while Zwingle acknowledged himself a sinner, he vindicated himself from the odious charges brought against him, and affirmed that he had ever abhorred the thought of adultery, or the seduction of the innocent; ** melancholy excesses! then too common: "I call to witness," he added, "all with whom I ever lived."††

On the 11th of December the election took place. Zwingle was chosen by a majority of seventeen out of twenty-four votes. The time had come for the Reformation to arise in Switzerland. The chosen in-

* *Fabula manebit fabula; quem domini mei acceperunt sex pueris esse patrem . . .* (Ibid.)

† *Neminem tamen, qui tuam doctrinam non ad cælum ferat . . .* (Ibid.)

‡ *Non esse qui vigesimum annum excessit, nec verginem tetigerit.* (Zw. Epp. p. 57.)

§ *Reprimò hæc pro viribus, imò et repressi.* (Ibid. 54.)

|| *Quippe neminem habens, comitem hujus instituti, scandalizantes vero non paucos, heu! cecidi et factus sum canis ad vomitum.* (Ibid. 55.)

¶ *En cum verecundia (Deus novit!) magna hæc ex pectoris specubus depromsi, apud eum scilicet cum quo etiam coram minus quam cum illo ferme mortalium confiteri vererer.* (Zw. Epp. p. 55.)

** *Ea ratio nobis perpetuo fuit, nec alienum thorum conscendere, nec verginem vitare.* (Ibid.)

†† *Testes invoco cunctos, quibuscum vixi.* (Ibid.)

* *Dan Zwingli vom lyb ein hubscher man wass.* (Bulletin MS.)

† *Und als Imme sein gestalt und geschicklichkeit wol gefiel, gab er Im syn stim.* (Ibid.)

‡ *Qui dies et noctes laborarent ut vir ille subrogeretur.* (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

§ *Scio vulgi acclamationes et illud blandum Euge! Euge!* (Zw. Epp. p. 53.)

strument that Providence had been for three years preparing in the seclusion of Einsidlen was ready, and was to be transferred to another scene. God, who had made choice of the rising university of Wittemberg, situate in the heart of Germany, under the protection of the wisest of princes, *there* to call Luther—made a choice of Zurich, esteemed the chief town of Helvetia, *there* to fix Zwingle. At Zurich he would be in communication not merely with the most intelligent and simple-minded, the most resolute and energetic, of the Swiss population, but also with the various cantons that lay around that ancient and influential state. The hand that had taken up a poor herdsman of mount Sentis, and placed him in a preparatory school—now established him, mighty in word and in deed, in the face of all his nation, that he might become the instrument of its regeneration. Zurich was to become the focus of illumination for the whole of Switzerland.

To the inmates of Einsidlen, the day on which they received the tidings of Zwingle's nomination was a day of rejoicing and grief intermingled. The society which had been formed there, was about to be broken up by the removal of its most valuable member; and who could tell whether superstition might not again assert her sway over that ancient haunt of the pilgrim? The Council of Schwitz transmitted to Ulric an address, expressive of their sentiments, in which they styled him "their reverend, learned, and very gracious master and worthy friend."* "Choose for us at least a successor worthy of yourself," said Geroldsek to Zwingle. "I have a little *lion* for you," he replied, "who is both simple-hearted and wise; a man conversant with the mysteries of Holy Writ." "I will have him," said the administrator immediately. This was Leo Juda, that mild yet intrepid man, with whom Zwingle had contracted so close a fellowship at Bale. Leo Juda accepted a charge which brought him nearer to his beloved Ulrich. The latter, after embracing his friends, bade farewell to the solitude of Einsidlen, and pursued his journey to that delightful region, where the cheerful and goodly city of Zurich is seated, amid an amphitheatre of gentle hills, whose sides are clothed with vineyards, and their feet bedecked with meadows and orchards, while over their wooded crests are described the lofty summits of the distant Albis. Zurich, the political centre of Switzerland, where the leading men of the nation were frequently assembled, was a point from which the Helvetic territory might be acted on, and the seeds of truth scattered over the whole of the cantons. Accordingly the friends of literature and of the Gospel hailed the election of Zwingle with their heartiest acclamations. At Paris, especially, the Swiss students, who were a numerous body there, were transported with joy at the tidings.† But if at Zurich, Zwingle had the prospect of a mighty victory opened to him, he had also to expect an arduous conflict. Glareanus wrote to him from Paris: "I foresee that your learning will excite a bitter hostility against you; but take courage, and, like Hercules, you will overcome all the monsters you have to encounter."‡

It was on the 27th of December, 1518, that Zwingle arrived at Zurich; he alighted at the hotel of Einsidlen. His welcome was a cordial and honourable one.§ The chapter immediately assembled to receive him, and he was invited to take his place among his

colleagues. Felix Frey presided; the canons whether friendly or hostile to Zwingle, were seated indiscriminately round their principal. There was a general excitement throughout the assembly; every one felt, though probably he knew not why, that this new appointment was likely to have momentous results. As the innovating spirit of the young priest was regarded with apprehension, it was agreed that the most important of the duties attached to his new office should be distinctly pointed out to him. "You will use your utmost diligence," he was gravely admonished, "in collecting the revenues of the chapter—not overlooking the smallest item. You will exhort the faithful, both from the pulpit and in the confessional, to pay all dues and tithes, and to testify by their offerings the love which they bear to the Church. You will be careful to increase the income that arises from the sick, from masses, and in general from all ecclesiastical ordinances." The chapter added: "As to the administration of the sacraments, preaching and personally watching over the flock—these also are among the duties of the priest. But for the performance of these, you may employ a vicar to act in your stead—especially in preaching. You are to administer the sacraments only to persons of distinction, and when especially called upon—you are not allowed to administer them indiscriminately to people of all ranks."**

What regulations were these for Zwingle to subscribe to! Money! money! nothing but money! Was it then for this that Christ had appointed the ministry! Prudence, however, stepped in to moderate his zeal: he knew that it is impossible for the seed to be dropped into the earth, and the tree to grow up, and the fruit to be gathered all at once. Without offering any remarks on the charge that had been delivered to him, he modestly expressed the gratitude he felt for having been made the object of so honourable a choice, and then proceeded to explain what were his intentions. "The history of Jesus," said he, "has been too long kept out of the People's view. It is my purpose to lecture upon the whole of the Gospel according to St. Matthew, drawing from the fountains of Scripture alone,† sounding all its depths, comparing text with text, and putting up earnest and unceasing prayers, that I may be permitted to discover what is the mind of the Holy Spirit.‡ It is to the glory of God, to the praise of his only Son, to the salvation of souls, and their instruction in the true faith, that I desire to consecrate my ministry."§ Language so new to their ears made a deep impression on their chapter. Some heard it with joy; but the greater part signified their disapproval of it.¶ "This method of preaching is an innovation," cried they; "one innovation will soon lead to another;—and where can we stop?" The canon Hoffman, especially, thought it his duty to prevent the fatal effects of an appointment which he had himself promoted. "This expounding of the Scripture," said he, "Will do the people more harm than good."—"It is no new method," replied Zwingle, "it is the old one. Recollect St. Chrysostom's homilies upon Matthew, and St. Augustine upon John. Besides, I will be cautious in all that I say, and give no one cause to complain."

In abandoning the exclusive use of detached portions of the Gospels merely, Zwingle was departing

* Schuler's Zwingli's Bildung, p. 277.

† Absque humanis commentationibus, ex solis fontibus Scripturæ sacre. (Zw. Opp. i. 272.)

‡ Sed mente spiritus, quam diligenti Scripturarum collatione, precibusque ex corde fusis, se nacturum. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

§ Alles Gott und seinen einzigen Sohn zu Lob und Ehren und zu rechten Heil der Seelen, zur Underrichtung im rechten Glauben. (Bullinger, MS.)

¶ Quibus auditis, moror simul et lætitia. (Osw. Myc.)

* Reverende, perfecte, admodum gratiose domine ac bone amice. (Zw. Epp. p. 60)

† Omnes adeo quotquot ex Helvetiis adsunt juvenes fremere et gaudere. (Ibid. p. 64.)

‡ Quantum invidiæ tibi: inter istos eruditio tua conflabit. (Ibid. p. 64.)

§ Do er ehrlich und wol empfangen ward. (Bullinger, MS.)

from the practice that had prevailed since the days of Charlemagne, and restoring the Holy Scriptures to their ancient rights; he was connecting the Reformation, even in the beginning of his ministry, with the primitive times of Christianity, and preparing for future ages a deeper study of the Word of God. But more than this: the firm and independent posture which he assumed in relation to the Church, gave intimation that his aim was extraordinary: his character as a Reformer began now to manifest itself distinctly to the eyes of his countrymen; and the Reformation consequently moved a step onward.

Hoffman, having failed in the chapter, addressed a written request to the principal, that he would prohibit Zwingle from disturbing the people in their faith. The principal sent for the new preacher, and spoke to him in a very affectionate tone. But no human power could seal his lips. On the 31st of December, he wrote to the Council of Glaris, that he entirely relinquished the cure of souls, which, by their favour, he had hitherto retained; and, for the future, he dedicated himself entirely to Zurich, and the work which God was preparing for him in that city.

On Saturday, the first of January, 1519, Zwingle, having on that day completed his thirty-fifth year, ascended the pulpit of the cathedral. The church was filled by a numerous assemblage of persons desirous to see a man who had already acquired celebrity, and to hear that new Gospel of which every one was beginning to speak. "It is to Christ," said Zwingle, "that I wish to guide you—to Christ, the true spring of salvation. This divine word is the only food that I seek to minister to your hearts and souls." He then announced that, on the following day, the first Sunday of the year, he would begin to explain the Gospel according to Saint Matthew. On the morrow, accordingly, the preacher, and a still more numerous auditory, were assembled in their places. Zwingle opened the Gospel, the book that had so long been sealed, and read the first page. Passing under review the history of the Patriarchs and prophets (from the first chapter of Matthew,) he expounded it in such a manner, that all exclaimed, in astonishment and delight—"We never heard the like of this before!"*

He continued, in this way, to explain the whole of St. Matthew, according to the Greek original. He showed how the explanation and the application of the Bible were both to be found in the very nature of man. Setting forth the sublimest truths of the Gospel in familiar language, his preaching adapted itself to every class—to the wise and learned, as well as the ignorant and simple.† He magnified the infinite mercies of God the Father, while he besought his hearers to put their trust in Jesus Christ, as the only Saviour.‡ At the same time that he called them to repentance by the most persuasive appeals, he combated the errors which prevailed among his countrymen by the most vigorous reasoning. He raised a fearless voice against luxury, intemperance, extravagance in dress, injustice to the poor, idleness, mercenary service in war, and the acceptance of pensions from foreign princes. "In the pulpit," says one of his contemporaries, "he spared no one, neither pope, nor emperor, nor kings, nor dukes, nor princes, nor lords, not even the confederates. All the strength, and all the joy of his own heart were in God; therefore he exhorted the whole

city of Zurich to trust in none but Him."—"Never before had any man been heard to speak with so much authority," says Oswald Myconius, who watched the labours of his friend with joy and ardent hope.

It was impossible that the Gospel could be proclaimed in Zurich without effect. A great and continually increasing multitude of every class, but especially of the lower orders, flocked to hear it.† Many of the citizens of Zurich had ceased to attend public worship. "I derive no benefit from the discourses of these priests," was the frequent observation of Füsslin, a poet and historian, as well as a councillor of state;—"they do not preach the things pertaining to salvation; for they understand them not. Avarice and voluptuousness are the only qualities I discover in them." Henry Rauschlin, the state-treasurer, a diligent reader of the Scriptures, entertained the same sentiments. "The priests," said he, "gathered together by thousands, at the Council of Constance . . . to burn the best man among them all." These distinguished men, attracted by curiosity, came to hear Zwingle's first lecture. The emotions, which the preacher awakened in their minds, were successively depicted in their countenances. "Glory be to God," said they, as they left the Church; "this is a preacher of the truth. He will be our Moses to lead us forth from Egypt."‡—From that hour, they became the intimate friends of the Reformer. "Ye rulers of this world," said Füsslin, "cease to persecute the doctrine of Christ. After Christ, the Son of God, had been put to death, fishermen were raised up to publish his Gospel. And so now, if you destroy the preachers of the truth, you will see glass workers, and millers, and potters, and founders, and shoemakers, and tailors, starting up to teach in their stead."§

At first there was but one cry of admiration throughout Zurich, but when the first burst of enthusiasm had subsided, the enemy took heart again. Many well-meaning men, alarmed by the thought of a Reformation, gradually fell away from Zwingle. The violence of the monks, which for a brief space had been suppressed, now broke out anew, and the college of the canons resounded with complaints. Zwingle remained immovable. His friends, as they contemplated his courage, recognised in their teacher the true spirit of the apostolic age.¶ Among his enemies there were some who jeered and mocked at him, others who retorted to insulting threats; but he endured all with the patience of a Christian.¶ "If we would win souls to Christ," he often remarked, "we must learn to shut our eyes against many things that meet us in our way."** An admirable saying, which ought not to pass unnoted.

His character, and his habitual deportment toward his fellow-men, contributed as much as his public ministration to gain all hearts. He was at once a true Christian and a true republican. The equality of mankind was with him no unmeaning phrase; it was inscribed on his heart, and his life was in accordance with it. He had neither that pharisaical pride nor that monkish coarseness by which men of simple and of refined taste are alike disgusted; all acknowledged the

* All sein Trost stund allein mit frölichem Gemüth zu Gott . . . (B. Weise Füsslin Beytr. iv. 36.)

† Do ward bald ein gross gelauff von allerley menschen, Insonders von dem gemeinen Mann . . . (Bullinger, MS.)

‡ Und unser, Moses seyn der uns Egypten führt. (Bullinger, MS.)

§ Werden die Gläser, Müller, Hafner, Giesser, Schuhmacher und Schneider lehren. (Mull. Reliq. iii. 185.)

¶ Nobis apostolici illius sæculi virum representas. (Zw. Epp. p. 74.)

¶ Obganiunt quidam, rident, minantur, petulanter incessunt . . . at tu vere, Christianâ patientiâ, suffers omnia. (Zw. Epp. p. 74. 7th May, 1519.)

** Coanivendum ad multa ei qui velit malos Christo lucrifacere . . . Ibid.

* Desselichen wie jederman redt, nie gehört worden war. (B. Weise, a contemporary of Zwingle's. Füsslin Beytrage, iv. 36.)

† Nam ita simplices æqualiter cum prudentissimis et acutissimis quibusque proficiebant. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

‡ In welchem er Gott den vater prysset und alle Menschen allein off Jesum Christum, als den einigen Heiland verthrauten lehrte. (Bullinger, MS.)

attraction of his manner, and found themselves at ease in his society. Bold and energetic in the pulpit, he was affable to those whom he met in the streets or public walks; he was often seen in the places where the civic companies or trading bodies held their meetings, explaining to the burghers the leading articles of the Christian faith, or holding familiar conversation with them. He accosted peasants and patricians with the same cordiality. "He invited the country-folks to dinner," says one of his most violent enemies, "walked with them talked to them about God, and often put the devil into their hearts, and his own writings into their pockets." His example had such weight, that even the town-councillors of Zurich would visit those rustic strangers, supply them with refreshment, go about the city with them, and pay them all possible attention."

He continued to cultivate music, though "with moderation," as Bullinger assures us; nevertheless, the adversaries of the Gospel took advantage of this, and called him "the evangelical lute-player and piper."† Faber, on one occasion, reproved him for indulging in this recreation. "My dear Faber," replied Zwingle, with manly frankness, "thou knowest not what music is. I do not deny that I have learned to play the lute and the violin, and other instruments; and, at worst, they serve me to quiet little children when they cry;‡ but, as for thee, thou art too holy for music!—and dost thou not know, then, that David was a cunning player on the harp, and how he chased the evil spirit out of Saul! Oh! if thy ears were but awake to the notes of the celestial lute, the evil spirit of ambition and greediness of wealth, by which thou art possessed, would, in like manner, depart from thee." Perhaps there was something of weakness in Zwingle's attachment to music; yet, it was in a spirit of open-heartedness, and evangelical liberty, that he cultivated an art which religion has always connected with her loftiest exercises. He composed the music of several of his Christian lyrics, and was not ashamed sometimes to touch his lute for the amusement of the little ones of his flock. He displayed the same kindly disposition in his demeanour toward the poor. "He ate and drank," says one of his contemporaries, "with all who invited him, he treated no one with disdain—he was full of compassion for the poor, and always composed and cheerful in good or evil fortune. No calamity ever daunted him, his speech was ever hopeful—his heart ever steadfast."§ Thus did Zwingle continually enlarge the sphere of his influence—sitting alternately at the poor man's scanty board, and the banquet-table of the great, as his Master had done before him—and never, in any situation, omitting an opportunity to further the work with which God had entrusted him.

From the same motive he was indefatigable in study. From sun-rise until the hour of ten he employed himself in reading, writing, or translating; the Hebrew, especially, during that portion of the day, occupied much of his attention. After dinner he gave audience to those who had any communication to make to him, or stood in any need of his advice; he walked out in company with his friends, and visited his people. At two o'clock he resumed his walk. He took a short turn after supper, and then began writing letters, which often engaged him till midnight. He always read and wrote standing, and never allowed the customary allot-

ment of his time to be disturbed, except for some very important cause.*

But the efforts of one man were not enough. He received a visit about this time from a stranger named Lucian, who brought him some of the works of the German Reformer. Rhenanus, a scholar then resident at Bale, and an unwearied propagator of Luther's writings in Switzerland, had sent this man to Zwingle. It had occurred to Rhenanus that the hawking of books might be made a powerful means of spreading the doctrines of the Gospel. "Ascertain," said Rhenanus to Zwingle, "whether this Lucian possesses a sufficient share of discretion and address; if it shall appear that he does, let him go from city to city, from town to town, from village to village, nay from house to house—all over Switzerland, carrying with him the writings of Luther, and especially the exposition of the Lord's Prayer, written for the laity.† The more it is known, the more purchasers will it find. But be sure to let him take no other books in his pack, for if he have none but Luther's, he will sell them the faster." To this expedient was many a Swiss family indebted for the gleam of light that found an entrance into their humble dwelling. There was one book, however, which Zwingle should have caused to be circulated before any of Luther's—the Gospel of Jesus Christ.

An opportunity of displaying his zeal in a new field of service was soon afforded him. Samson, the famous dealer in indulgences, was journeying by slow stages toward Zurich. This vender of disreputable wares had arrived from Schwitz at Zug on the 20th of September, 1518, and had remained at Zug three days. An immense crowd had gathered about him in that town. Those of the poorest class were the most eager of the throng, and thus prevented the rich from making their way to him. This did not suit the monk's purpose, and accordingly one of his attendants kept crying out to the populace:—"Good people do not press forward so hard. Clear the way for those who have money. We will do our best afterward to satisfy those who have none." From Zug, Samson and his company went on to Lucerne—from Lucerne to Underwalden, and thence, passing through a cultivated region of the Alps, with its rich interjacent villages, skirting the everlasting snows of the Oberland, and displaying their Romish merchandise for sale in every inhabited spot of the loveliest district of Switzerland, they arrived at length in the neighbourhood of Berne. At first, the monk received an intimation that he would not be allowed to enter the city? but eventually, by the aid of some interested auxiliaries within, he succeeded in gaining admission, and spread out his stall in St. Vincent's church. He there began to cry up his wares more loudly than ever. "Here," said he to the rich, "are indulgences on parchment, for one crown! There," addressing himself to the poor, "are absolutions on common paper, for two batz only!" One day, a knight of high name, Jacob von Stein, presented himself before him, mounted on a prancing dapple-grey charger. "Give me," said the knight, "an indulgence for myself; for my troop, which is five hundred strong; for all the vassals on my domain of Belp; and for all my ancestors; and I will give you in return this dapple-gray horse of mine." It was a high price to ask for a horse. Nevertheless, the charger pleased the barefooted Carmelite. The bargain was struck, the beast was led into the monk's stable, and all those souls were duly declared to have been delivered for

* Dass der Rath gemeldete Bruern besucht . . . (Salat's Chronik. p. 165.)

† Der Lauthenschlager und evangelischer pffyer. (Bullinger. MS.)

‡ Dass kombt mir ja wol die kind zu geschweigen. (Ibid.)

§ War allwegen trostlichen Gemüths und tapferer Red. (B. Weisse Fussl. Beytr. iv. 36.)

* Certas studijs vindicans horas, quas etiam non omisit, nisi seriis coactus. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

† . . . Oppidatim, municipatim, vicatim imo domesticatim per Helvetios circumferat. (Zw. Epp. p. 81.)

ever from the pains of hell.* On another occasion, a burgher obtained from him for thirteen florins an indulgence, by virtue of which, his confessor was authorized to absolve him, among other things, from every kind of perjury.† Samson was held in such reverence, that the counsellor von May, an old man of enlightened mind, having dropped some expressions against him, was obliged to ask pardon of the haughty monk on his knees.

The last day of his stay had now arrived. A deafening clamour of bells gave warning to the inhabitants of Berne that the monk was about to take his departure. Samson was in the church, standing on the steps of the high altar. The canon, Henry Lupulus, Zwingle's former master, officiated as his interpreter. "When the wolf and the fox come abroad together," said the canon Anselm, addressing the Schultheiss von Wattenville, "the wisest plan for you, worshipful Sir, is to gather your sheep and your geese with all speed into a place of safety." But the monk cared little for such remarks as these, which, moreover, seldom reached his ears. "Fall on your knees," said he to the superstitious crowd; "repeat three *pater noster*, and three *ave marias*, and your souls will instantly be as pure as they were at the moment of your baptism." The multitude fell on their knees forthwith. Then determined to outdo himself, Samson cried out, "I deliver from the torments of purgatory and hell the souls of all the people of Berne who have departed this life, whatsoever may have been the manner or the place of their death." These mountebanks, like those who perform at fairs, always reserved their most astounding feat for the last.

Samson, now heavily laden with coin, directed his course toward Zurich, through the Argau and Baden. As he proceeded on his journey this Carmelite, who had made so sorry a figure when he first crossed the Alps, displayed an increasing pomp and pride of retinue. The bishop of Constance, having taken umbrage because he had not applied to him to legalize his bulls, had forbidden all the curates of his diocese to open their churches to him. At Baden, however, the curate did not venture to persevere in obstructing the holy traffic. The monk's effrontery rose to a higher pitch. Pacing round the church-yard at the head of a procession, he used to fix his eyes on some object in the air, while his acolytes were chanting the hymn for the dead, and pretending that he saw the liberated souls flying up from the church-yard toward heaven, to cry out: "*Ecce volant! Behold! they fly!*" One day a man, residing in the neighbourhood, found his way into the tower of the church and mounted to the belfry; presently a quantity of white feathers floated in the air, and fell thickly on the astonished procession: "*Behold! they fly!*" cried the waggish citizen of Baden, from his lofty perch, still shaking more feathers, out of a pillow that he had unripped. Many of the bystanders laughed heartily at the jest.‡ Samson, on the contrary, was greatly incensed—nor could he be appeased until assurances were given him that the man was at times disordered in his intellect. He left Baden quite crest-fallen.

Pursuing his journey, he arrived about the end of February, 1519, at Bremgarten, whither he had been invited by the Schultheiss, and the second curate of the town, both of whom had seen him at Baden. The dean of Bremgarten, Bullinger, was a man, than whom none, in all that country, stood higher in public estimation. He was but ill-informed, it is true, as to the errors of the Church, and imperfectly acquainted with

the word of God; but his frank disposition, his overflowing zeal, his eloquence, his liberality to the poor, his willingness to do kind offices for his humble neighbours, made him universally beloved. In his youth he had formed a connection of a conscientious kind with the daughter of a councillor of the same town. Such was the custom with those members of the priesthood, who wished to avoid a life of profligacy. Anna had brought him five children, and his numerous family had in no degree diminished the consideration in which the Dean was held. There was not in all Switzerland a more hospitable house than his. Being much addicted to the chase, he was often seen, surrounded by ten or a dozen dogs, and accompanied by the lords of Hallwyl, the abbot of Mury, and the patricians of Zurich, scouring the fields and forests in his vicinity. He kept open house, and not one among all his guests was a blither man than himself. When the deputies, who were sent to the Diet, passed through Bremgarten, on their way to Baden, they never failed to take their seats at the Dean's table. "Bullinger," said they "keeps court like some powerful baron."

Strangers, when they visited the house, were sure to remark a boy of intelligent aspect, whom they found among its inmates. This was Henry, one of the Dean's sons. The child in his earliest years had passed through many imminent perils. He had been seized with the plague, and reduced to such extremity, that he was thought to be dead—and preparations were making for his burial, when, to the joy of his parents, he gave signs that he was yet alive. At another time, a vagrant enticed him from the house, and was carrying him off, when some passers-by recognized and rescued him. At the age of three years, he already knew the Lord's prayer and the Apostles' creed; and would often steal into the church, mount his father's pulpit, gravely stand up there, and repeat at the full pitch of his voice, "*I believe in God the Father,*" &c. &c. When he was twelve years old, his parents sent him to the grammar school of Emmerich, not without feelings of strong apprehension, for those were dangerous times for an inexperienced boy. Instances were frequent of students, to whom the discipline of a university appeared too severe, absconding from their college in troops, carrying children along with them, and encamping in the woods—whence they sent out the youngest of their party to beg, or else, with arms in their hands attacked travellers, plundered them, and then consumed the fruit of their rapine in debauchery. Henry was happily preserved from evil in his new and distant abode. Like Luther he gained his subsistence by singing at the doors of houses, for his father was resolved that he should learn to depend on his own resources. He had reached the age of sixteen when he first opened a New Testament. "*I there found,*" said he, "*all that is necessary for man's salvation, and from that hour I came to the conclusion that we must follow the Holy Scriptures alone, and reject all human additions. I neither trust the Fathers, nor myself; but I explain Scripture by Scripture, adding nothing, and taking nothing away.*"* God was in this way training up the youth, who was afterward to be the successor of Zwingle. He is the author of that manuscript chronicle from which we so frequently quote.

It was about this time that Samson arrived at Bremgarten, with all his train. The stout-hearted dean, not in the least intimidated by this little army of Italians, gave notice to the monk that he must not vend his merchandise within his jurisdiction. The Schultheiss, the town-council, and the second pastor, all friends of Samson, were assembled in a room of the inn, where the latter had taken up his quarters, and

* Um einem Kuttgrowen Hengst. (Anshelm, v. 335: J. J. Hotting. Helv. K. Gesch. iii. 29.)

† A quovis perjurio. (Muller's Reliv. iv. 403.)

‡ Dessen viel luth gnug lachten. (Bullinger, MS.)

* Bulling. Epp. Franz's Merkw. Zuge, p. 19.

clustered in much perplexity round the irritated monk. The dean entered the chamber. "Here are the pope's bulls," said the monk, "open your church to me."

THE DEAN. "I will suffer no one, under colour of unauthenticated letters like these, (for the bishop has not authenticated them,) to squeeze the purses of my parishioners."

THE MONK—(in a solemn tone.) "The pope is above the bishop. I charge you not to deprive your flock of so marvellous a grace."

THE DEAN. "Were it to cost me my life, I will not open my church."

THE MONK—(in great anger.) "Rebellious priest! in the name of our most holy lord, the pope, I pronounce against thee the greater excommunication—nor will I grant thee absolution until thou hast paid a penalty of three hundred ducats for this unheard of presumption."

THE DEAN—(turning to go out again.) "I am prepared to answer for myself before my lawful judges; as for thee, and thy excommunication, I have nothing to do with either."

THE MONK—(transported with rage.) Headstrong beast that thou art! I am going straight to Zurich, and there I will lodge my complaint with the deputies of the confederation.*

THE DEAN. "I can show myself there as well as thou, and thither will I go."

While these things were passing at Bremgarten, Zwingle, who saw the enemy gradually draw nigh, was preaching with great vigour against indulgences.† The vicar, Faber, of Constance, encouraged him in this, and promised him the support of the bishop.‡ "I know," said Samson, on his road to Zurich, "that Zwingle will speak against me; but I will stop his mouth." Assuredly, Zwingle felt too deeply the sweetness of the pardoning grace of Christ, to refrain from attacking the paper pardons of these presumptuous men. Like Luther, he often trembled on account of sin; but in the Saviour he found deliverance from his fears. Humble, yet strong-minded, he was continually advancing in the knowledge of the Lord. "When Satan," said he, "attempts to terrify me, crying aloud: 'Lo! this and that thou hast left undone, though God has commanded it!'—the gentle voice of the Gospel brings me instant comfort, for it whispers: 'What thou canst not do, (and, of a truth, thou canst do nothing,) that Christ does for thee, and does it thoroughly.'" "Yes!" continued the pious evangelist, "when my heart is wrung with anguish, by reason of my impotence, and the weakness of the flesh, my spirit revives at the sound of these joyful words: 'Christ is thy sinlessness! Christ is thy righteousness! Christ is the Alpha and the Omega! Christ is the beginning and the end! Christ is all! he can do all! All created things will disappoint and deceive thee; but Christ—the sinless and the righteous—will accept thee. Yes! it is he!'" exclaimed Zwingle, "who is our righteousness, and the righteousness of all those who shall appear as righteous for ever before the throne of God!"

Confronted by truths like these, the indulgences could never stand. Zwingle, therefore, hesitated not to attack them. "No man," said he, "has power to remit sins, except Christ alone, who is very God and very man in one. Go, if thou wilt, and buy in-

dulgences; but be assured, that thou art in no wise absolved. They who sell the remission of sins for money, are but companions of Simon, the magician, the friends of Balaam, the ambassadors of Satan."

The worthy Dean Bullinger, still heated by his altercation with the monk, arrived before him at Zurich. He came to lay a complaint before the Diet, against the shameless trafficker and his fraudulent trade. Deputies sent by the bishop, on the same errand, were already on the spot, with whom he made common cause. Assurances of support were proffered him on all hands. The same spirit which animated Zwingle, was now breathing over the whole city. The council of state resolved to prohibit the monk from entering Zurich.

Samson had arrived in the suburbs, and alighted at an inn. Already he had his foot in the stirrup, to make his entry into the city, when he was accosted by messengers from the council, who offered him the honorary wine-cup, as an agent of the pope, and, at the same time, intimated to him that he might forego his intention of appearing in Zurich. "I have somewhat to communicate to the Diet, in the name of his Holiness," replied the monk. This was only a stratagem. It was determined, however, that he should be admitted; but as he spoke of nothing but his bulls, he was dismissed, after having been forced to withdraw the excommunication he had pronounced against the Dean of Bremgarten. He departed in high dudgeon; and soon after the pope recalled him into Italy. A cart, drawn by three horses, and loaded with coin, obtained under false pretences from the poor, rolled before him over those steep roads of the St. Gothard, along which he had passed eight months before, indigent, unattended, and encumbered by no burden save his papers.*

The Helvetic Diet showed more resolution at this time than the Diet of Germany. The reason was, that no bishops or cardinals had seats in it. And accordingly, the pope, unsupported by those auxiliaries, was more guarded in his proceedings toward Switzerland than toward Germany. Besides this, the affair of the indulgences, which occupies so prominent a place in the narrative of the German Reformation, forms but an episode in the history of the Reformation in Switzerland.

Zwingle's zeal overlooked all considerations of personal ease or health; but continued toil, at last, rendered relaxation necessary. He was ordered to repair to the baths of Pfeffers. "Oh!" said Herus, one of the pupils resident in his house, who in this parting salutation gave utterance to a feeling which was shared by all to whom Zwingle was known, "had I a hundred tongues, a hundred mouths, and a voice of iron, as Virgil says—or rather, had I the eloquence of Cicero, never could I express how much I owe you, or how much pain I feel from this separation."† Zwingle, however, was constrained to go. His journey to Pfeffers led him through the frightful gorge, formed by the impetuous torrent of the Jamina. He descended into that "infernal gulf," to use the phrase of Daniel the Hermit, and reached the baths of which he was in quest—a site continually shaken by the din of the tumbling torrent, and moistened by the cloud of spray that rises from its shattered waters. In the house in which Zwingle was lodged, it was necessary to burn torches at noon-day; and it was the belief of the neighbourhood, that fearful spectres might sometimes be descried gliding to and fro amidst the darkness; and yet, even here, he found an opportunity of serving his Master. His affability won the hearts of many of the invalids assem-

* Und führt mit ihm ein thespendiger Schatz an gelt den er armen liden abgelogen hat. (Bullinger, MS.)

† Etiam mihi sint lingue centum, sint oraque centum, ferrea vox, ut Virgilius ait, aut potius Ciceroniana eloquentia. (Zw. Ep. p. 81.)

* Du freche Bestie . . &c. (Bullinger, MS.)

† Ich predigte streng wider der Pabsts Ablass . . . (Zw. Opp. 2. 1st part. p. 7.)

‡ Und hat mich darin gestärkt: er welle mir mit aller trüw bystern. (Ibid.)

§ Christus est innocentia tua; Christus est justitia et puritas tua; Christus est salus tua; tu nihil es, tu nihil potes; Christus est A et; Christus est prora et puppis; Christus est omnia . . . (Zw. Opp. i. 207.)

¶ Nisi Christus Jesus, verus Deus et verus homo. (Ibid. 412.)

bled at the baths. Of this number was the celebrated poet, Philip Ingentinus, a professor of Friburg, in the Brisgau,* who, from that time, became a strenuous supporter of the Reformation.

God was watching over his work, and it was his will to hasten it. The defect of Zwingle consisted in his strength. Strong in bodily constitution, strong in character, strong in talent, he was destined to see all his strength laid low in the dust, that he might become such an instrument as God loves best to employ. There was a baptism with which he yet needed to be baptized—the baptism of adversity, infirmity, weakness, and pain. Luther had received it in that season of anguish, when piercing cries burst forth from his narrow cell, and echoed through the long corridors of the convent at Erfurth. Zwingle was to receive it by being brought into contact with sickness and death. In the history of the heroes of this world—of such men as Charles XII. or Napoleon—there is always a critical moment, which shapes their career, and insures their future glory. It is that in which a consciousness of their own strength is suddenly imparted to them. And a moment not less decisive than this—though stamped with an impress altogether different—is to be found in the life of every heroic servant of God; it is that moment in which he first recognises his absolute helplessness and nothingness; then it is that the strength of God is communicated to him from on high. A work such as that which Zwingle was called to perform, is never accomplished in the natural strength of man; it would, in that case, come to nought, just as a tree must wither which is planted in its full maturity and vigour. The plant must be weak, or its roots will never strike; the grain must die in the earth, or it cannot bring forth much fruit. God was about to lead Zwingle, and, with him, the work which seemed to be dependant on him for success, to the very gates of the grave. It is from amidst the dry bones, the darkness and the dust of death, that God delights to raise His instruments, when He designs to scatter light and regeneration and vitality over the face of the earth.

While Zwingle was buried among the stupendous rocks that overhang the headlong torrent of the Jamina, he suddenly received intelligence that the plague, or the “great death,”† as it was called, had visited Zurich. This terrible malady broke out in August, on St. Lawrence’s day, and lasted till Candlemas, sweeping away, during that period, no fewer than two thousand five hundred souls. The young people who resided under Zwingle’s roof, had immediately quitted it, according to the directions he had left behind him. His house was deserted, therefore; but it was his time to return to it. He set out from Pfeffers, in all haste, and appeared once more among his flock, which the disease had grievously thinned. His young brother, Andrew, who would gladly have stayed to attend upon him, he sent back at once to Wildhaus, and, from that moment, gave himself up entirely to the victims of that dreadful scourge. It was his daily task to testify of Christ and his consolations to the sick.‡ His friends, while they rejoiced to see him still unharmed, while the arrows of pestilence were flying thick around him,§ were visited, nevertheless, with many secret misgivings on his account. “Do good,”

was the language of a letter written to him from Bale, by Conrad Brunner, who himself died of the plague a few months afterward; “but, at the same time, be advised to take care of your own life.” The caution came too late; Zwingle had been seized by the plague. The great preacher of Switzerland was stretched on a bed from which it was probable he might never rise. He now turned his thoughts upon the state of his own soul, and lifted up his eyes to God. He knew that Christ had given him a sure inheritance; and, pouring forth the feelings of his heart, in a hymn full of uncton and simplicity, the sense and the rhythm of which we will endeavour to exhibit, though we should fail in the attempt to copy its natural and primitive cast of language, he cried aloud:

Lo! at my door
Gaunt death I spy;*
Hear, Lord of life,
Thy creature’s cry!

The arm that hung
Upon the tree,
Jesus, uplift,
And rescue me.

Yet, if to quench
My sun at noon
Be thy behest,†
Thy will be done!

In faith and hope
Faith I resign,
Secure of heaven—
For I am thine!

The disease, in the meantime, gained ground. His friends, in deep affliction, beheld the man on whom the hopes of Switzerland and of the church reposed, ready to be swallowed up by the grave. His bodily powers and natural faculties were forsaking him. His heart was smitten with dismay, yet he found strength sufficient left him to turn toward God, and to cry:

Fierce grow my pains;
Help, Lord, in haste!
For flesh and heart
Are failing fast.

Clouds wrap my sight,
My tongue is dumb,
Lord, tarry not,
The hour is come!‡

In Satan’s grasp,
On hell’s dark brink,
My spirit reels—
Ah! must I sink?

No! Jesus, no!
Him I defy,
While here beneath
Thy cross I lie.

The canon, Hoffman, sincerely attached to the creed which he professed, could not bear the idea of seeing Zwingle die in the errors which he had inculcated. He waited on the principal of the chapter. “Think,”

* Illic tum comitatem tuam à sinu uberrimo profluentem non injuccundè sum expertus. (Zw. Epp. p. 119.)

† Der Grosse Tod. (Bullinger, MS.)

‡ Ut in majori periculo sis quod in dies de novo exponas, dum invis agitris. (Bullinger, MS.) M. de Chateaubriand had forgotten this fact, and a thousand similar ones, when he remarked that “the Protestant pastor abandons the helpless on the bed of death, and is never seen rushing into the grasp of the pestilence.” (Essay on English Literature.)

§ Plurimum gaudeo te inter tot jactus telorum versantem illæsum hactenus evasisse. (Ibid.)

* Ich mein der Tod,
Syn an der Thür. (Zw. Opp. 2. 2d part, p. 270.)

† Willt du denn glych

Tod haben mich

In mits der Tagen min

So soll’s willig sin. (Ibid.)

‡ Nun ist es um

Min zung ist stumm

¶ Darum ist Zyt

Das du min stryrt.

said he, "of the peril of his soul. Has he not given the name of fantastical innovators to all the doctors who have taught for the last three hundred and eighty years, and upward—Alexander, of Hales; Saint Bonaventura; Albertus Magnus; Thomas Aquinas; and all the canonists? Does he not affirm that the doctrines they have broached are no better than dreams, into which they have fallen, with their hoods over their eyes, in the gloomy corners of their cloisters? Alas! it would have been better for the city of Zurich, had he ruined our vintages and harvests for many a year; and now, he is at death's-door! I beseech you, save his poor soul!" It would appear that the principal, more enlightened than the canon, did not think it necessary to convert Zwingle to St. Bonaventura and Albertus Magnus. He was left undisturbed.

Great was the consternation that prevailed throughout the city. The believers cried to God night and day, earnestly entreating that He would restore their faithful pastor.* The alarm had spread from Zurich to the mountains of Tockenbourg. Even in that elevated region the plague had made its appearance. Seven or eight persons had fallen a prey to it in the village; among these was a servant of Nicholas, Zwingle's brother.† No tidings were received from the Reformer. "Let me know," wrote young Andrew Zwingle, "what is thy state, my beloved brother! The abbot, and all our brothers salute thee."‡ It would seem that Zwingle's parents were already dead, since they are not mentioned here.

The news of Zwingle's illness, followed by a report of his death, was circulated throughout Switzerland and Germany. "Alas!" exclaimed Hedio, in tears, "the deliverer of our country, the trumpet of the Gospel, the magnanimous herald of the truth is stricken with death, in the flower and spring-tide of his age!‡ When the intelligence reached Bale that Zwingle was no more, the whole city resounded with lamentations.¶

But that glimmering spark of life, which had been left unquenched, began now to burn more brightly. Though labouring still under great bodily weakness, his soul was impressed with a deep persuasion, that God had called him to replace the candle of His word, on the deserted candlestick of the Church. The plague had relinquished its victim. With strong emotion Zwingle now exclaimed:—

My father God
Behold me whole!
Again on earth
A living soul!

Let sin no more
My heart annoy,
But fill it, Lord,
With holy joy

Though now delayed,
My hour must come,
Involved, perchance,
In deeper gloom ¶

It matters not;
Rejoicing yet
I'll bear my yoke
To heaven's bright gate.¶

* Alle glaubige rufften Gott treuwillich an, dass er ihren getreuen Hirten weider ufrichte. (Bullinger, MS.)

† Nicolas vero germano nostro etiam obiit servus suus, at tamen non in ædibus suis. (Zw. Epp. 88.)

‡ Quis enim non doleat publicam patrie salutem, tubam Evangelii, magnanimum veritatis bucinatorem languere, intercidere. . . (Ibid. 90.)

§ Heu quantum luctus fatis Zwinglium concessisse importunus ille rumor suo vehementi impetu divulgavit. (Ibid. 91.)

¶ These words were fulfilled in a remarkable manner twelve years afterwards, on the bloody field of Cappel.

¶ So will ich doch

Den trutz und poeh

As soon as he was able to hold a pen, (it was about the beginning of November,) he wrote to his family. Unspeakable was the joy which his letter imparted* to all his relatives, but especially to his younger brother, Andrew, who himself died of the plague in the course of the following year, leaving Ulrich, to lament his loss with tears and cries, surpassing the measure,—as he himself remarks—even of a woman's passion.† At Bale, Conrad Brunner, Zwingle's friend, and Bruno Amerbach, the celebrated printer—both young men—had been carried to the grave after three days' illness. It was believed in that city, that Zwingle also had perished. There was a general expression of grief throughout the university. "He whom God loves," said they, "is made perfect in the morning of life."‡ But what was their joy when tidings were brought first by Collinus, a student from Lucerne, and afterwards by a merchant of Zurich, that Zwingle had been snatched from the brink of the grave.§ The vicar of the Bishop of Constance, John Faber, that early friend of Zwingle who was afterwards his most violent opponent, wrote to him on this occasion: "Oh, my beloved Ulrich! what joy does it give me to learn that thou hast been delivered from the jaws of the cruel pestilence. When thy life is in jeopardy, the Christian commonwealth has cause to tremble. The Lord has seen it good by this trial to incite thee to a more earnest pursuit of eternal life."

This was indeed the end which the Lord had in view in subjecting Zwingle to trial, and the end was attained, but in another way than Faber contemplated. This pestilence of the year 1519, which committed such frightful ravage in the north of Switzerland, became an effectual agent in the hands of God for the conversion of many souls.¶ But on no one did it exercise so powerful an influence as on Zwingle. The Gospel which he had heretofore embraced as a mere doctrine, now became a great reality. He rose from the dark borders of the tomb with a new heart. His zeal became more ardent, his life more holy, his preaching more free, more Christian, more persuasive. This was the epoch of Zwingle's complete emancipation: henceforward he devoted himself entirely to God. But along with the Reformer, the Reformation, also, of Switzerland received new life. The scourge of God, "the great death," while it ranged over those mountains, and swept along those valleys, impressed a character of deeper holiness on the movement which was taking place within their bosom. The Reformation, as well as Zwingle, was immersed in the waters of sanctified affliction, and came forth endued with a purer and more vigorous vitality. It was a memorable season in the dispensations of God for the regeneration of the Swiss people.

Zwingle derived an accession of that strength, of which he stood so much in need, from his renewed communion with his friends. With Myconius especially, he was united by the bonds of a strong affection.

In diser welt
Tragen frolich
Um widergelt.

Although these three fragments of poetry have their respective dates attached to them, "at the beginning, in the middle, at the end, of the sickness," and truly represent the feelings of Zwingle at the different epochs, it is probable that they were not thrown into the form into which we now find them, until after his recovery. (See Bullinger, MS.)

* Inspecitis tuis litteris incredibilis quidam æstus lætitiæ pectus nentim subit. (Zw. Epp. p. 88.)

† Ejulatum et luctum plussquam fœmineum. (Ibid. 155.)

‡ Ουτε θεοί φέρουσιν νεανίσκος τέλει τῇ. (Zw. Epp. p. 90.)

§ E diris te mortis faucibus feliciter ereptum negotiator quidam tigurinus. (Ibid. 91.)

¶ Als die Pestilenz im Jahre 1519, in dieser Gegend grassirte, viele neigten sich zu einem bessern Leben. (Georg. Vogel. Rif. Hist. Fusslin. Beytr. iv. 174.)

They walked side by side, each supporting the other, like Luther and Melancthon. Oswald was happy at Zurich. His position there was a constrained one, it is true; but the virtues of his modest wife made him amends for all his discomforts. It was of her that Glareanus said: "Could I meet a young woman resembling her, I would prefer her to a king's daughter." The enjoyment which Zwingle and Myconius found in their reciprocal friendship was sometimes broken in upon, however, by the voice of a faithful monitor. That monitor was the canon, Xyloctect, who was continually calling on Myconius to return to Lucerne, the place of his birth. "Zurich is not thy country," said he, "but Lucerne. Thou sayest that the Zurichers are thy friends: I acknowledge it; but canst thou tell how it will fare with thee when the shadows of evening begin to fall on thy path? Remember thy duty to thy country.* such is my desire, my entreaty, and if I may so speak, my command!" Following up his words by acts, Xyloctect caused Myconius to be elected rector of the collegiate school of his native city. Oswald then hesitated no longer; he saw the finger of God in this nomination, and great as was the sacrifice demanded of him, he resolved to make it. Might it not be the will of the Lord to employ him as His instrument in publishing the doctrine of peace in the warlike canton of Lucerne? But how shall we describe the parting between Zwingle and Myconius? On either side, their farewell was accompanied with tears. "Thy departure," observed Ulrich, in a letter written to Oswald shortly afterwards, "has been such a discouragement to the cause which I defend, as can only be compared to that which would be felt by an army drawn up in order of battle, were it suddenly deprived of one of its wings,† Alas! now I feel the value of my Myconius and can perceive how often, when I dreamed not of it, he has upheld the cause of Christ!"

Zwingle felt the loss of his friend the more acutely, by reason of the debilitated state to which the plague had reduced him. "It has enfeebled my memory," he complains, in a letter, dated 30th of November, 1519, "and prostrated my spirits." While he was yet scarcely convalescent, he had resumed all his labours. "But," said he, "I often, in preaching, lose the thread of my discourse. My whole frame is oppressed with languor, and I am little better than a dead man." Beside this, Zwingle's opposition to indulgences had aroused the animosity of those who supported them. Oswald encouraged his friend by the letters he wrote to him from Lucerne. Was not the Lord at this moment, giving a pledge of his readiness to help, by the protection which he afforded, in Saxony, to the mighty champion who had gained such signal victories over Rome?—"What thinkest thou," said Myconius to Zwingle, "of the cause of Luther? For my part, I have no fear either for the Gospel or for him. If God does not protect his truth, by whom else shall it be protected? All that I ask of the Lord is, that he will not withdraw his hand from those who have nothing so dear to them as his Gospel. Go on as thou hast begun, and an abundant reward shall be bestowed upon thee in heaven."

The arrival of an old friend, at this time, brought some comfort to Zwingle, in his grief for the removal of Myconius. Bunzli, who had been Ulrich's master at Bale, and who had since succeeded the Dean of Wesen, the Reformer's uncle, arrived at Zurich, in the first week of the year, 1520, and Zwingle and he

formed the resolution of taking a journey to Bale, together, to see their common friends.* Zwingle's visit to Bale was not unproductive of good. "Oh, my dear Zwingle!" wrote John Glother, at a later period, "never shall I forget thee! My gratitude is thy due for the kindness displayed by thee, during thy stay at Bale, in visiting me as thou didst—me, a poor schoolmaster, a man, without name, without learning, without merit, and in a low condition. My affections thou hast won by that elegance of manners, that indescribable fascination, by which thou subduest all hearts—and, I might almost say, the very stones."† But Zwingle's earlier friends derived still greater benefit from his visit. Capito and Hedio, with many others, were electrified by his powerful discourses; and the former, adopting the same course at Bale which Zwingle had pursued at Zurich, began to expound St. Matthew's Gospel to an auditory which continually increased in numbers. The doctrine of Christ manifested its power in searching and warming the heart. The people received it with joy, and hailed the revival of Christianity with eager exclamations.‡ The Reformation had already dawned. A proof of this was soon seen in a conspiracy of priests and monks, which was formed against Capito. Albert, the young Cardinal-archbishop of Mentz, who was desirous to attach so learned a man to his person, took advantage of this circumstance, and invited him to his court. Capito, seeing the difficulties with which he was surrounded, accepted the invitation.§ The people thought themselves aggrieved, their indignation was roused against the priests, and the city was thrown into commotion.|| Hedio was spoken of as Capito's successor; but some objected to his youth, and others said:—"He is his disciple!" "The truth," said Hedio, "is of too pungent a quality. There are susceptible ears, which it cannot fail to wound, and which are not to be wounded with impunity."¶ No matter! I will not be turned aside from the straight road,"—The monks redoubled their efforts. "Beware," was their language in the pulpit, "of giving credence to those who tell you that the sum of Christian doctrine is to be found in the Gospels, and in the Epistles of St. Paul. Scotus has rendered greater service to Christianity than Paul himself. All the learning that has been preached and published has been stolen from Scotus. The utmost that certain persons have been able to achieve, in their attempts to gain a reputation for themselves, has been to mix up a few words of Greek and Hebrew with his matter, so as to perplex and darken the whole."**

The tumult continued to increase; there was reason to fear that, after Capito's departure, the opposition would become still more powerful. "I shall be left almost alone, weak and insignificant as I am," said Hedio, "to struggle with those formidable monsters."†† In this emergency, he betook himself to God for succour—and, in a letter to Zwingle expressed himself thus:—"Support my courage by frequent letters.—Learning and religion are now between the hammer and the anvil. Luther has been condemned by the universities of Louvain and Cologne. If ever the church was in imminent peril, she is so at this hour!"‡‡

* Zw. Epp. p. 108 and 111.

† *Morum tuorum elegantia, suavitatesque incredibiles, quæ omnes tibi devinctis, etiam lapides, ut sic dixerim.* (Ibid. 133.)

‡ *Renascens Christianismo mirum quam faveat.* (Ibid. 120.)

§ *Cardinalis illic invitavit amplissimis conditionibus.* (Ibid.)

|| *Tumultus exoritur et maxima indignatio vulgi erga*

lepes. (Ibid.)

¶ *Auricularas teneras mordaci radere vero non usque adeo tutum est.* (Zw. Epp. p. 120.)

** *Scotum plus profuisse rei Christianæ quam ipsum Paulum . . . quicquid eruditum furatum ex Scoto.*

†† *Cum pestilentissimis monstris.* (Ibid.)

‡‡ *Si unquam imminerebat periculum, jam imminet.* (Ibid.

17th March, 1520.)

* *Patriam cole, suadeo et obsecro, et si hoc possum jubeo.* (Xyloctect Myconio.)

† *Nam res mea, te abeunte, non sunt minus accisæ quam si exercitui in prociuctu stanti altare alarum abstergatur* (Zw. Epp. p. 98.)

Capito quitted Bale for Mentz on the 28th of April : and Hedio succeeded him. Not content with the public assemblies which were held in the church, where he continued the lectures on Saint Matthew, he resolved, as he wrote to Luther, to institute, in the ensuing month of June, private meetings in his own house, that he might impart more familiar instruction in the Gospel to such as should desire it. This powerful method of communicating religious knowledge, and awakening the concern and affection of believers for divine things, could not fail, on this, as on every occasion, to excite the concurrent opposition of worldly-minded laymen, and an arrogant priesthood—classes which are equally inimical, though on different grounds, to every attempt to worship God anywhere but within the enclosure of certain walls. But Hedio was not to be driven from his purpose.

About the period when he conceived this praiseworthy design at Bale, there arrived, at Zurich, one of those characters, who, in revolutionary times, are often thrown up, like a foul scum, upon the agitated surface of society.

The senator, Grebel, a man highly respected at Zurich, had a son, named Conrad, a young man of remarkable talents, a determined enemy to ignorance and superstition—which he assailed with the keenest satire; vehement and overbearing in his manners, sarcastic and acrimonious in his speech, destitute of natural affection, addicted to dissolute habits, frequent and loud in professions of his own integrity, and unable to discover anything but evil in the rest of mankind. We mention him here, because he was destined afterward to a melancholy celebrity. Just at this time, Vadianus contracted a marriage with one of Conrad's sisters. The latter, who was then a student at Paris, where his own misconduct prevented him from making any progress, having a desire to be present at the nuptials, suddenly appeared, about the beginning of June, in the midst of his family. The prodigal son was welcomed by his poor father with a gentle smile; by his tender mother with many tears. The tenderness of his parents could not change that unnatural heart.—Some time afterward, on the recovery of his worthy but unfortunate mother from an illness which had nearly proved fatal, Conrad wrote to his brother-in-law, Vadianus. "My mother is well again; and has taken the management of the house once more into her own hands. She sleeps, rises, begins to scold, breakfasts, scolds again, dines, resumes her scolding, and never ceases to torment us from morning to night. She bustles about, overlooking kettle and oven, gathering and strewing, toils continually, wearies herself to death, and will soon have a relapse!" Such was the man who subsequently attempted to lord it over Zwingle, and who acquired notoriety as the leader of the fanatical Anabaptists. Divine Providence may have permitted such characters to appear at the epoch of the Reformation, in order that the contrast furnished by their excesses might display more conspicuously the wise Christian, and moderate spirit of the Reformers.

Everything indicated that the struggle between the Gospel and the Papacy was about to commence. "Let us stir up the waverers," said Hedio, in a letter to Zwingle, "there is an end to peace; and let us fortify our own hearts, we have implacable enemies to encounter."† Myconius wrote in the same strain; but Ulric. replied to these warlike appeals with admirable mildness. "I could wish," said he, "to conciliate those stubborn men by kindness and gentleness

of demeanour, rather than to get the better of them in angry controversy.* For if they call our doctrine (though ours it is not) a doctrine of devils, that is not to be wondered at; I receive it as a token, that we are the ambassadors of God. The devils cannot remain silent in Christ's presence."

Desirous as he was to follow the path of peace, Zwingle was not idle. Since his illness his preaching had become more spiritual and more fervent. More than two thousand of the inhabitants of Zurich had received the word of God into their hearts, confessed the evangelical doctrine, and were qualified to assist in its propagation.

Zwingle's faith is the same as Luther's; but it rests more upon argument than his. Luther is carried forward by the internal impulse, Zwingle by the attraction of the light revealed to him.—In Luther's writings we find a deeply seated personal conviction of the preciousness of the cross of Christ to his own soul; and this earnest, unflinching conviction gives life and energy to all that he says. The same thing, undoubtedly, is found in the writings of Zwingle, but not in the same degree. His contemplations have been fixed rather on the christian system as a whole: he reveres it for its surpassing beauty, for the light which it sheds upon the soul of man, for the everlasting life which it brings into the world. In the one the affections are the moving power, in the other the understanding; and hence it happens that persons not experimentally acquainted with the faith which animated these two distinguished disciples of the Lord, have fallen into a gross error, and represented the one as a mystic, the other as a rationalist. The one is more pathetic, it may be, in exposition of his faith, the other is more philosophic; but the same truths are embraced by both. Secondary questions, perhaps, they do not always regard under the same aspect; but that faith which is one, that which renews and justifies all who possess it, that path of faith which no confession, no formula of doctrine, can ever adequately express; is the property of each alike. The opinions of Zwingle have often been so erroneously stated, that it seems necessary to give a summary of the doctrine which he then preached to the people who flocked in crowds to hear him in the cathedral of Zurich.

Zwingle beheld in the fall of the first man a key to the entire history of the human race. "Before the fall," said he, in one of his discourses, "man had been created with a free will, so that if he had been willing he might have fulfilled the law; his nature was pure, the disease of sin had not yet tainted it; his life was in his own hands. But, having desired to be 'as God,' he died—and not he alone, but all that are born of him. All men, then, being dead in Adam, must ever remain so, until the Spirit, which is of God himself, raises them out of death."†

The people of Zurich, who listened eagerly to the impressive preacher, were overwhelmed with sorrow when their eyes were first opened to the sinful condition of mankind; but the word of consolation was next administered, and they were taught the remedy by which the life of man is renewed. "Christ, very man, and very God,"‡ said the eloquent descendant of the

* Benevolentia honestoque obsequio potius ellici quam animosa appugnatione trahi. (Ibid. 103.)

† Quam ergo omnes homines in Adam mortui sunt . . . donec per Spiritum et gratiam Dei ad vitam que Deus est excitentur. (Zw. Opp. i. 203.) These expressions and others which we have already quoted, or shall proceed to quote, are extracted from a work published by Zwingle in 1523, in which he seduced into a compendium the doctrine which he had then been preaching for several years. "Hic recensere cept," he says, "quæ ex verbo Dei predicavi," (Ibid. 228.)

‡ Christus verus homo et verus Deus . . . (Ibid. 205.)

* Sic regiert das Haus, schläft, steht auf, zankt, frühstücket, kauft. . . (Simm. Samml. 4. Wirz. i. 76.)

† Armatus pectora nostra! pugandum erit contra teterimos hostes. (Zw. Epp. p. 101.)

shepherds of the Tockenburgh, "has purchased for us an everlasting deliverance. He who died for us, is the eternal God: his passion therefore, is an eternal sacrifice, and has a perpetual efficacy;* it satisfies the divine justice for ever upon behalf of all who rely upon it with a firm and unshaken faith." "Where *sin* is," said the Reformer again, "death must needs follow. But Christ had no sin, neither was there guile found in his mouth; nevertheless he suffered death. *Wherefore?* but because he suffered it in our stead. He was content to die, that he might restore us to life;† and forasmuch as he had no sins of his own, the Father, in his infinite mercy, laid upon him the iniquity of us all." "The will of man," argued the Christian orator, "had rebelled against the Most High; it was necessary, therefore, for the re-establishment of the eternal order of things, and the salvation of man, that the human will should, in Christ, give place to the divine."‡ It was a frequent remark of his that the expiatory death of Jesus Christ had taken place for the benefit of the faithful, or the people of God §

The souls that hungered after salvation in the city of Zurich found comfort in these good tidings; but there were some errors of ancient growth which their minds still harboured, and which it was needful to extirpate. Following but the great truth that salvation is the gift of God, Zwingle pleaded powerfully against the pretended merit of human works. "Since eternal salvation," said he, "proceeds solely from the merits and the death of Christ, the notion of merit in our works is no better than vanity and folly, not to call it senseless impiety.¶ If we could have been saved by our works, Christ's death would have been unnecessary. All who have ever come to God have come to him by the death of Jesus."¶¶

Zwingle was not ignorant of the objections which this doctrine excited amongst a portion of his auditory. There were some who waited on him for the purpose of stating those objections. He answered them from the pulpit thus: "Some persons, rather speculative than pious, perhaps, object that his doctrine makes men reckless and dissolute. But what need we care for the objections and plans that may be conjured up by the speculations of men. All who believe in Christ are assured that whatever comes from God is necessarily good. If then the gospel is of God, it is good.** And what other power is there that could bring in righteousness, truth, and love among the children of men?" "O God most merciful, most righteous, Father of all mercies!" cried he in a transport of devotion, "with what marvellous love hast thou embraced us, even us thy enemies.†† How great and how full is the hope thou hast imparted to us, who merited no other portion than despair! To what a height of glory hast thou vouchsafed, in thy beloved Son, to exalt our meanness and nothingness! Surely it is thy purpose by this unspeakable love, to constrain us to *love thee* in return."

Pursuing this idea, he next showed that love to the

* Deus enim æternus quum sit qui pro nobis moritur, passionem ejus æternam et perpetuo salutarem esse oportet. (Ibid.)

† Mori voluit ut nos vitæ restitueret. . (Ibid. 204.)

‡ Necesse fuit ut voluntas humana in Christo se divina submitteret. (Ibid.)

§ Hostia est et victima satisfaciens in æternum pro peccatis omnium fidelium. (Zw. Opp. i. 253.) Expurgata peccata multitudinis, hoc est, fiddia populi. (Ibid. 261.)

¶ Sequitur meritum nostrorum operum nihil esse quam vanitatem et stultitiam, ne dicam impietatem et ignorantem impudentiam. (Ibid. 290.)

¶ Quotquot ad Deum venerant unquam per mortem Christi ad Deum venisse. (Ibid.)

** Certum est quod quidquid ex Deo est bonum sit. Si ergo Evangelium ex Deo bonum est. (Ibid. 208.)

†† Quanta caritatenos fures et perduelles.

Redeemer was a law more powerful than the commandments. "The Christian," said he, "being delivered from the law, depends entirely on Christ. Christ is his reason, his counsel, his righteousness, his sanctification, his whole salvation. Christ lives and moves in him. Christ alone leads him on his way, and he needs no other guide."* Then making use of a comparison well adapted to the comprehension of his hearers, he added: "When a government forbids its citizens, under pain of death, to receive any pension or largess from the hands of foreigners, how gentle and easy is that law to those who, for the sake of their fatherland and liberty, would, of their own accord, abstain from so unworthy an act! But on the contrary, how harsh and oppressive does it appear to those who care for nothing but their selfish gains! Even so it is, that the righteous man lives free and joyful in his love of righteousness, while the unrighteous man walks painfully under the burthen of the law that condemns him."†

In the cathedral of Zurich, that day, there were many old soldiers who could appreciate the truth of these words—and can we deny that love is the most powerful of lawgivers? Are not all its requisitions immediately fulfilled? Does not the beloved object live in our hearts, and there enforce obedience to all that he had enjoined? Accordingly Zwingle assuming a still bolder tone as he proceeded, testified to the people of Zurich that love to the Redeemer was the only motive that could impel man to the performance of actions acceptable to God. "Works done out of Christ are worthless," said the Christian teacher, "since every good work is done by him—in him—and through him, what is there that we can lay claim to for ourselves! Wheresoever there is faith in God, there God himself abides—and wheresoever God is, there is awakened a zeal which urges and constrains men to good works.‡ See to it, only, that Christ be in thee, and thou in Christ—and fear not but He will work in thee. Of a truth the life of a Christian man is but one continual good work, begun and carried forward and brought to completion—by God alone."§

Deeply impressed with the greatness of that love of God which is from everlasting, the herald of grace adopted a strain of impassioned earnestness in the invitations which he addressed to the irresolute and fearful. "How is it," said he, "that you fear to draw nigh to that tender Father who has chosen us? Why has he chosen us of his free mercy? Why has he called us? Why has he drawn us to himself? to this end only, think you, that we should shrink from approaching him?"||

Such was the doctrine put forth by Zwingle. It was the doctrine preached by Jesus Christ himself. "If Luther preaches Christ, he does what I do," said the preacher of Zurich. "He has led to Christ many more souls than I—be it so. Yet will I bear no other name than that of *Christ*, whose soldier I am, and who alone is my head. Never has a single line been addressed by me to Luther, or by Luther to me. And why?—that it might be manifest to all how uniform is the testimony of the Spirit of God—since we, who

* Tum enim totus à Christo pendet. Christus est ei ratio, consilium, justitia, innocentia, et tota salus. Christus in eo agit. (Zw. Opp. ii. 233.)

† Bonus vir in amore justitiæ liber et lætus vivit. (Ibid. 284.)

‡ Ubi Deus, illic cura est et studium ad opera bona urgens est impellens. (Zw. Opp. i. 213.)

§ Vita ergo pii hominis nihil aliud est nisi perpetua quamdam et indefessa boni operatio quam Deus incipit, ducit et absolvit. (Ibid. 295.)

|| Quum ergo Deus pater nos elegit ex gratiâ suâ, traxitque et vocavit, cur ad eum accedere non auderemus? (Ibid. 287.)

have had no communication with each other, agree so closely in the doctrine of Jesus Christ.*

The success which attended on Zwingle's preaching corresponded to its fidelity.† The spacious cathedral was too small to contain the multitude of his hearers. All believers united in praising God for the new life which had begun to quicken the inanimate body of the Church. Many strangers from every canton, who came to Zurich, either to attend the Diet, or for other purposes, embraced the new doctrines, and carried the precious seeds of truth into all the valleys of Switzerland. From populous cities and from hamlets hidden in the glen, one cry of rejoicing gratitude arose to heaven. "Switzerland," said Nicholas Hageus, in a letter written from Lucerne, "has heretofore given birth to many a Cæsar, and Scipio, and Brutus; but scarcely could she number among her offspring one or two to whom Christ was truly known, and who had learned to nourish souls with the divine word instead of doubtful disputations. Now that Divine Providence has given to Switzerland Zwingle for a preacher, and Oswald Myconius for a professor, religion and sacred literature are reviving in the midst of us. O happy Helvetia, wouldst thou only rest from war, satisfied with the glory thou hast already won in arms, and cultivate in future that truer glory which follow in the train of righteousness and peace!"‡—"It was reported," said Myconius, in a letter to Zwingle, "that thy voice could not be heard at the distance of three paces. But we find now how false a tale it was; for thou art heard all over Switzerland."§—"It is a noble courage with which thou hast armed thyself," said Hedio, writing from Bale; "I will follow thee as far as I have strength."||—"I have listened to thy teaching," wrote Sebastian Hofmeister of Schaffhausen in a letter dated from Constance: "God grant that Zurich, the head of our confederacy, may be healed of its disease, that so the whole body may be restored to soundness."¶

But Zwingle met with adversaries as well as admirers. "Wherefore," said some, "does he concern himself with the political affairs of Switzerland?"—"Why," said others, "does he repeat the same thing so often in his religious instructions?" In the midst of these conflicting judgments, the soul of Zwingle was often overcome with dejection. It seemed to him that a general confusion was at hand, and that the fabric of society was on the point of being overturned.** He began to apprehend that it was impossible for good to make its appearance in one quarter, but evil must spring up to counteract it in another.†† If at one moment hope shone in his mind, it was instantly succeeded by fear. But he soon recovered from his depression. "The life of man here below is a warfare," said he; "he who would inherit glory must face the world as an enemy, and, like David, force the haughty Goliath, exulting in his strength, to bite the dust."—"The Church," said he, again, using the very expression which Luther had employed, "has been purchased by blood, and by blood must it be restored.‡‡ The more numerous are the stains that

defile it, the more numerous also must be the Herculean arms employed to cleanse away that Augean filth.* I fear little for Luther," added he, "though he be assailed by the thunderbolts of the Romish Jupiter."†

Zwingle had need of rest; he repaired to the waters of Baden. The curate of the place, who had been one of the Pope's body-guard, a man of good character, but destitute of learning, had earned his benefice by carrying the halberd. Tenacious of his military habits, he passed the day and a portion of the night in jovial company, while Stäheli, his vicar, was unwearied in performing all the duties of his calling.‡ Zwingle sent for this young minister. "I have need," said he, "of helpers in Switzerland;"—and from that moment Stäheli became his fellow-labourer. Zwingle, Stäheli, and Luti, who was afterwards a pastor at Winterthur, lived under the same roof.

Zwingle's self-devotion was not to miss its reward. The word of Christ, which he preached so diligently, was ordained to bring forth fruit. Many of the magistrates had been converted; they had found comfort and strength in God's holy word. Grieved to observe with what effrontery the priests, and especially the monks, in their addresses from the pulpit, uttered anything that came uppermost in their minds, the Council issued an ordinance by which they were enjoined to "deliver nothing in their discourses but what they should have drawn from the sacred fountains of the Old and New Testaments."§ It was in 1520 that the civil power thus interfered for the first time in the work of the Reformation, fulfilling the duty of the Christian magistrate, as some affirm; because the first duty of a magistrate is to uphold religion, and to protect the paramount and vital interests of the community; depriving the Church of its liberty, say others—bringing it under subjection to the secular power, and opening the way for that long train of calamities which has since been engendered by the union of Church and State. We will not here attempt to decide that great controversy by which more than one nation is agitated at the present day. Let it suffice us to have marked its origin at the epoch of the Reformation. But there is that in the fact itself which we must also mark; the act of those magistrates was itself an effect produced by the preaching of the word of God. The Reformation in Switzerland was now emerging from the sphere of individual conversions, and becoming a national work. It had first sprung up in the hearts of a few priests and scholars; it was now spreading abroad, and lifting itself on high, and assuming a station of publicity. Like the waters of the sea it rose by degrees, until it had overspread a wide expanse.

The monks were confounded—they were enjoined to preach only the word of God, and that word the majority of them had never read! Opposition provokes opposition. This ordinance became the signal for more violent attacks against the Reformation. Plots were now formed against the curate of Zurich, and his life was in danger. One evening, when Zwingle and his assistants were quietly conversing in their house, they were disturbed by the hasty entrance of some burghers, who inquired:—"Have you strong bolts on your doors?" and added, "Be on your guard to-night." "We often had alarms of this kind," adds

* *Quam concors sit spiritus Dei, dum nos tam procul dissiati nihil colludentes, tam concorditer Christi doctrinam docemus* (Zw. Opp. 276.)

† *Quam fortis sis in Christi prædicando.* (Zw. Epp. p. 160.)

‡ *O Helvetiam longe felicior, si tandem liceat te a bellis concrescere?* (Ibid. 129.)

§ *At video mendacium esse, cum audiaris per totam Helvetiam.* (Ibid. 135.)

|| *Sequar te quoad potero.* (Ibid. 134.)

¶ *Ut capite feliciis patribus nostræ a morbo erepto, sanitas tandem in reliqua membra recipiatur.* (Zw. Epp. p. 147.)

** *Omnia sursum deorsumque moventur.* (Ibid. 142.)

†† *Ut nihil proferre caput queat, cujus non contrarium è regione emergat.* (Ibid.)

‡‡ *Ecclesiam puto, ut sanguine parata est ita sanguine instaurari.* (Ibid. 143.)

* *Eo plures armibus Hercules qui fumum tot hactenus bonum efferauit.* (Ibid. 144.)

† *Et tiansi fulmine Jovis istius fulminetur.* (Ibid.)

‡ *Misc. Mig. iii. 679-696. Wirz. 79, 78.*

§ *Vetuit eos Senatus quicquam prædicare quod non ex sacrarum literarum utriusque Testamenti fontibus hausissent.* (Zw. Opp. iii. 28.)

Stäheli, "but we were well armed,* and there was a watch set in the street for our protection."

Elsewhere, however, measures of more atrocious violence were resorted to: an old inhabitant of Schaffhausen, named Gaster, a man distinguished for his piety, and for an arduous few, at his age, possess, having himself derived much comfort from the light which he had found in the Gospel, endeavoured to communicate it to his wife and children. In his zeal, which perhaps was not duly tempered with discretion, he openly attacked the relics, the priestcraft, and the superstition with which that canton abounded. He soon became an object of hatred and terror even to his own family. Perceiving at length that evil designs were entertained against him, the old man fled, broken-hearted, from his home, and betook himself to the shelter of the neighbouring forest. There he continued for some days, sustaining life upon such scanty food as the wilds afforded him, when suddenly, on the last night of the year, 1520, torches flashed through the whole extent of the forest, while yells of infuriated men, mingled with the cry of savage hounds, echoed fearfully through its deepest recesses. The Council had ordered the woods to be scoured to discover his retreat. The hounds caught scent of their prey, and seized him. The unfortunate old man was dragged before the magistrate, and summoned to abjure his faith; stedfastly refusing to do so, he was beheaded.†

But a little while after the New Year's day that witnessed this bloody execution, Zwingle was visited at Zurich, by a young man about twenty-eight years of age, tall of stature, and of an aspect which denoted candour, simplicity, and diffidence.‡ He introduced himself by the name of Berthold Haller. Zwingle immediately recognised the celebrated preacher of Berne, and embraced him with all that affability which rendered his address so fascinating. Haller, whose native place was Aldingen, in Wurtemberg,§ had studied first at Rotwell, under Rubellus, and subsequently at Pforzhheim, where he had Simler for his master, and Melancthon for a fellow-pupil. The Bernese about that time manifested a desire to make their republic the seat of letters, as it was already powerful in arms. Rubellus and Haller, the latter of whom was then twenty-one years of age, repaired to Berne accordingly. Haller soon became a canon there, and was afterward appointed preacher of the cathedral. The Gospel proclaimed by Zwingle had found its way to Berne. Haller believed: and from that time he felt a wish to have personal intercourse with the gifted man, whom he already revered as a father. His journey to Zurich, undertaken with this view, had been announced by Myconius. Such were the circumstances of the meeting between Haller and Zwingle. Haller whose characteristic was meekness of disposition, confided to Zwingle the trials with which he was beset; and Zwingle who was eminently endowed with fortitude, communicated to Haller a portion of his own courage. "My Spirit," said Berthold, "is overwhelmed. I cannot endure such harsh treatment. I am resolved to give up my pulpit, seek a retreat with Wittembach, at Bale, and employ myself for the future in the private study of the Scriptures." "Alas!" replied Zwingle, "a feeling of discouragement often takes possession of me likewise, when I am unjustly assailed. But Christ awakens my conscience by the powerful stimulus of his threatenings and promises. He rouses my fears by declaring:—*Whosoever shall be ashamed of me before men,*

of him will I be ashamed before my Father; and then he gives me comfort, by adding:—Whosoever shall confess me before men, him will I confess before my Father. O, my dear Berthold, be of good cheer! Our names are written above, in characters that can never be effaced, as citizens of the heavenly city. For my part I am ready to die for Christ.† Let those wild bears' cubs of yours," he added, "only once give ear to the doctrine of Jesus Christ, and you will see how gentle they will become.‡ But you must address yourself cautiously to the work, lest they turn and rend you." Haller's courage rose again. "My soul," said he to Zwingle, "has cast off her slumber. I must needs preach the Gospel. Christ must again be received within those walls from which he has so long been banished."§ Thus was Berthold's lamp kindled afresh by Ulric's—and the timid Haller could now unshrinkingly encounter the savage brood of bears "that gnashed their teeth," says Zwingle, "and longed to devour him."*

But it was in another quarter that the persecution was to begin in Switzerland. The warlike canton of Lucerne was about to take the field, like a champion sheathed in mail, and ready for the charge. The military spirit had full sway in this canton, which was much addicted to foreign alliances; and the great men of the city would knit their brows if they heard so much as a pacific whisper breathed to damp the martial ardour of their country. It happened, however, that some of Luther's writings found their way into the city, and there were certain citizens who set themselves to peruse them. With what horror were they seized as they read on! It seemed to them that none but an infernal hand could have traced those lines; their imagination was excited, their senses were bewildered, and they fancied that the room was filled with devils gathering thickly round them, and glaring on them with a sardonic leer.|| They shut the book, and cast it from them in affright. Oswald, who had heard these singular visions related, never spoke of Luther except to his most intimate friends; contenting himself with simply setting forth the Gospel of Christ. The cry nevertheless was raised through the whole city:—"To the stake with Luther and the schoolmaster (Myconius)!"¶—"I am assailed by my enemies," said Oswald to a friend of his, "as a ship is beaten by the tempest."*** One day, early in the year 1520, he was unexpectedly summoned to appear before the Council. "You are strictly enjoined," said the magistrates, "never to read Luther's writings to your pupils—never to mention his name in their hearing—never even to think of him yourself."†† The lords of Lucerne were disposed, we perceive, to confine their jurisdiction within no narrow bounds. Shortly after this, a preacher delivered a fierce philippic against heresy from the pulpit. A powerful effect was produced upon the auditory; all eyes were turned upon Oswald, for against whom else could the preacher have meant to direct his discourse? Oswald remained quiet in his seat, as if the matter had not concerned him. But when he and his friend, the

* Scripta tamen habeatur in fastis supernorum civium. (Zw. Epp. p. 186.)

† Ut mori pro Christo non usque adeo detrectem apud me. (Ibid. 187.)

‡ Ut ursi tui ferociusculi, auditâ Christi doctrinâ, mansuescere incipiant. (Ibid.) The reader is aware, that a bear is the armorial device of the Canton of Berne.

§ Donec Christum, cucullatis nugis longè à nobis exulem pro virili restituimus. (Ibid. 187.)

|| Dum Lutherum semel legerint, ut putarent stubellam suam plenam esse dæmonibus. . . (Zw. Epp. p. 137.)

¶ Clamatur hic per totam civitatem: Lutherum comburendum et ludi magistrum. (Ibid. 133.)

*** Non alter me impellunt quàm procellæ marinæ navem aliquam. (Ibid. 150.)

†† Imò ne in mentem eum admitterem. (Ibid.)

* Wir waren aber gut gerüstet. (Misc. Tig. ii. 631. Wirz. i. 334.)

† Wirz, i. 510. (Sebast. Wagner, von Kirchhofer, p. 18.)

‡ Animi tuî candorem simplicem et simplicitatem candidissimam, hua tuâ pusillâ quidem epistolâ. . . (Zw. Epp. p. 136.)

§ Ita ipse in literis manuscriptis. (J. J. Hott. iii. 54.)

canon, Xyloctect, among the rest of the congregation, were retiring from the church, one of the councillors came up to them, with an air that betrayed his internal discomposure, and said, in an angry tone:—"How now, ye disciples of Luther, why do ye not defend your Master?" They made no reply. "I live," said Myconius, "in the midst of savage wolves; but I have this consolation, that the greater part of them have lost their fangs. They would bite if they could, and since they cannot bite, they howl."

The Senate was now convened, for the tumult among the people was increasing. "He is a Lutheran!" said one of the councillors. "He broaches new doctrines!" said another. "He is a seducer of youth!" said a third. "Let him appear! let him appear!" The poor school-master appeared accordingly, and had to listen to fresh interdicts and threats. His guileless spirit was wounded and depressed. His gentle wife could only comfort him by the tears of sympathy which she shed. "Every one is against me," said he, in the anguish of his heart. "Whither shall I turn me in the storm, or how escape its fury? Were it not for the help that Christ gives me, I should long since have sunk under this persecution."—"What matters it," said Doctor Sebastiane Hofmeister, writing to him from Constance, "whether Lucerne will give you a home or not? The earth is the Lord's. The man whose heart is steadfast finds a home in every land. Were we even the vilest of men, our cause is righteous, for we teach the word of Christ."

While the truth was struggling against so much opposition at Lucerne, it was gaining ground at Zurich. Zwingle was unwearied in his labours. Desirous of studying the whole of the Scriptures in the original languages, he had applied himself diligently to the acquisition of the Hebrew under the direction of John Boscherstein, a disciple of Reuchlin. But in studying the Scriptures, his object was to make their contents known. The peasants who brought their produce on Fridays to the market of Zurich showed great eagerness to become acquainted with the word of God. To meet their desire, Zwingle, in December, 1520, had commenced the practice of expounding every Friday, a portion of the Psalms, previously making that portion the subject of his private meditations. The Reformers always connected deep study with laborious ministry;—the ministry was the end, the study was but the means. They were equally diligent in the closet and the public assembly. This union of learning with Christian love is one of the characteristics of the period. In his Sunday exercises, Zwingle, after having commented on St. Matthew's narrative of the life of our Saviour, proceeded to show in a course of lectures on the Acts of the Apostles, how the doctrine of Christ had been published to the world. He next explained the rules of the Christian life, as they are set forth in the Epistle to Timothy;—he drew arguments for the refutation of errors in the doctrine from the Epistle to the Galatians—and to this he joined the two Epistles of St. Peter, in order to prove to the despisers of St. Paul, that one and the same spirit animated both the apostles; he ended with the Epistle to the Hebrews, that he might exhibit in their full extent the benefits which flow from the gift of Jesus Christ, as great highpriest of believers.

But Zwingle devoted not his attention solely to men of mature age, he laboured also to kindle a holy fire in the bosom of the young. One day in the same year 1521, as he sat in his closet, occupied in studying the Fathers of the Church, the most striking passages of whose works he was collecting and carefully classing

them in a large volume—the door was opened by a young man, whose countenance and mine strongly prepossessed him in his favour.* This was Henry Bullinger, who had come to visit him on his way home from Germany, impelled by an earnest desire to form an acquaintance with a teacher of his native land, whose name was already celebrated in Christendom. The comely youth fixed his eyes by turns on the Reformer and his books; it seemed as though he felt an instant call to follow his example. Zwingle received him with the cordiality that won the hearts of all who accosted him. This first visit had a powerful influence on the whole life of the student after he returned to his father's roof. Another young man had also attracted Zwingle's regard; this was Gerold Meyer von Knonau. His mother, Anna Reinhardt, who afterwards filled an important part in Zwingle's history, had been greatly admired for her beauty, and was still distinguished for her virtues. A youth of noble family, John Meyer von Knonau, who had been brought up at the court of the Bishop of Constance, his kinsman, had conceived an ardent affection for Anna; but she was of plebeian birth. The elder Meyer von Knonau refused his consent to their union, and when he found that it had taken place, he disinherited his son. In 1513, Anna was left a widow with one son and two daughters, and the education of her poor orphans now became the sole object of her life. The grandfather was inexorable. One day, however, the widow's maid servant having taken out young Gerold, a graceful lively child, just three years old, and having stopped with him in the fish-market, old Meyer, who was sitting at the window,† happened to observe him, followed his movements with his eyes, and asked whose child it was, so fresh and beautiful and joyous. "It is your own son's child!" was the reply. The old man's heart was moved, its icy crust was melted in a moment—the past was forgotten, and he hastened to clasp in his arms the bereaved wife and children of his son. Zwingle felt a father's love for the young, the noble, and courageous Gerold, whose destiny it was to perish in his prime, at the Reformer's side, with his hand upon his sword, and surrounded, alas! by the dead bodies of his enemies. Thinking that Gerold could not pursue his studies with advantage at Zurich, Zwingle, in 1521, sent him to Bale.

The young Von Knonau did not find Zwingle's friend Hedio at the University. Capito, being obliged to attend the Archbishop, Albert, to the coronation of Charles V., had sent for Hedio to take his place at Mentz. Bale had thus within a brief space been deprived of its two most faithful preachers; the church in that city seemed to be left desolate; but other men now came forward. The church of William Roubli, the curate of Saint Albans, was thronged by an auditory of four thousand persons. He inveighed against the mass, purgatory, and the invocation of saints; but he was a man of a contentious spirit, greedy of popular admiration—the antagonist of error rather than the champion of truth. On Corpus Christi day, he joined the great procession; but instead of the relics which it was the practice to exhibit, a magnificently decorated copy of the Holy Scriptures was carried before him, bearing this inscription, in large letters, "THE BIBLE;

* Ich hab by Im eim gross Buch gesehen, *Locorum communium*, als ich by Ihm was, a°. 1521, dorinnen er *Sententias* und *dogmata Patrum*, flyssig jedes an seinem ort verzeichnet. (Bullinger. MS.)

† Lügt dess Kindts grossvater zum fänster uss, und ersach das kind in der fischer bränten (Kufe,) so fräch (frisch) und frölich sitzen . . . (Archives des Meyer von Knonau, quoted in a biographical notice of Anna Reinhardt, Erlangen, 1835, by M. Gerold Meyer von Knonau.) I am indebted to the kindness of this friend for the elucidation of several obscure passages in Zwingle's history.

* Si Christus non esset, jam olim defecissem. (Zw. Epp. p. 160.)

this is the true relic ; all the rest are but dead men's bones."—Courage adorns the servant of God, but ostentation ill befits him. The work of an Evangelist is to preach the Bible—not to make a pompous parade of it. The irritated priests laid a charge against Roubli before the Council. A crowd immediately assembled in the square of the Cordeliers. "Protect our preacher," was the cry of the burghers, addressing the Council. Fifty ladies of distinction interceded in his behalf ; but Roubli was compelled to quit Bale. At a later period he was implicated, like Grebel, in the disorders of the Anabaptists. The Reformation, in the course of its development, never failed to cast out the chaff that was mingled with the good grain.

But now, in the lowliest of chapels, a humble voice was heard that distinctly proclaimed the truths of the Gospel. It was the voice of the youthful Wolfgang Wissemburger, the son of a counsellor of State, and chaplain to the hospital. Those of the inhabitants of Bale, whose eyes were opened to their own spiritual necessities, were induced to gather round the meek-tempered chaplain, rather than the arrogant Roubli. Wolfgang began to read the mass in German. The monks renewed their clamours ; but this time they failed, and Wissemburger was left free to preach the Gospel ;—"because," says an old chronicler, "he was a burgher, and his father was a counsellor."* These early advantages, gained by the Reformation at Bale, gave token of greater success to follow. Moreover, they were of the utmost importance, as they affected the progress of the work throughout the whole of the confederated cantons. Zurich no longer stood alone. The enlightened city of Bale had begun to listen to the new doctrine with delight. The foundations of the renovated temple were widening. The Reformation in Switzerland had reached another stage of its growth.

Zurich, however, was still the centre of the movement. But in the course of the year, 1521, events of political importance occurred, which brought bitter grief to the heart of Zwingle, and in a measure distracted the attention of his countrymen from the preaching of the Gospel. Leo X.—who had proffered his alliance simultaneously to Charles V. and to Francis I.—had at length determined in favour of the Emperor. The war between the two rivals was about to break out in Italy. "We shall leave the Pope nothing but his ears,"† said the French general, Lautrec. This sorry jest increased the anger of the Pontiff. The King of France claimed the assistance of the Swiss Cantons, which, with the exception of Zurich, were all in alliance with him ;—it was afforded at his call. The Pope conceived the hope of engaging Zurich on his side ; and the Cardinal of Sion, ever ready for intrigue, and relying on his own dexterity and eloquence, immediately visited the city, to procure a levy of soldiers for his master. But he had to encounter a vigorous opposition from his old friend, Zwingle. The latter was indignant at the thought of the Swiss selling their blood to foreigners ; his imagination pictured to him the Zurichers on the plains of Italy, under the standard of the Pope and the Emperor, rushing with levelled pikes against the other confederates, who were gathered under the banners of France ; and in the contemplation of that fratricidal scene, his patriotic and Christian soul was filled with horror. He lifted up his admonitory voice in the pulpit. "Will you rend asunder and de-

stroy the confederation ?"‡ cried he. "We give chase to the wolves who ravage our flocks ; but we set no guard against such as prowl around us to devour our brethren ! Oh ! there is good reason why their robes and hats are red, if you only twitch those garments of theirs, ducats and crowns will fall out : but if you grasp them tightly, you will find them dripping with the blood of your brothers, your fathers, your sons, your dearest friends !"† In vain did Zwingle record his energetic protest. The Cardinal with his red hat prevailed, and two thousand seven hundred Zurichers marched out under the command of George Bergerer. Zwingle was deeply afflicted. His efforts, however, were not wholly unproductive of good. A long period was to elapse before the banners of Zurich should again be unfurled, and carried through the city gates at the call of a foreign prince.

Mortified by the ill success of the cause which he had espoused as a citizen, Zwingle devoted himself with renewed zeal to the diffusion of the Gospel. He preached with greater energy than ever. "I will never desist," said he, "from my labours to restore the primitive unity of the church of Christ."‡ He opened the year, 1522, with the first of a series of discourses, in which he pointed out the difference between the precepts of the Gospel and those of men. When the season of Lent arrived, his exhortations assumed a still more impressive tone. Having laid the foundations of the new edifice, he was solicitous to clear away the ruins of the old one. "For the space of four years," said he to the crowd assembled in the Cathedral, "ye have gladly received the holy doctrines of the Gospel. The love of God has glowed within your bosoms : ye have tasted the sweetness of the heavenly manna ; it is impossible that ye should now find savour or sustenance in human traditions."§ He proceeded to argue against the obligation to abstain from flesh at particular seasons. "There are some," he cried, in a strain of unstudied eloquence, "who pretend that to eat flesh is a fault, nay, a heinous sin, though God has never forbidden it ; but who yet regard it as no sin at all to sell human flesh to the foreigner, and deliver their brethren to be butchered !"¶ This bold language could not fail to awaken the indignation and anger of those among his auditory who supported the military compacts with foreign states ; they inwardly vowed that they would never forget it.

While he preached thus fearlessly, Zwingle still continued to say mass ; he observed the rules established by the church, and even abstained from flesh on the appointed days. He recognised the necessity of enlightening the minds of the people in the first place. But there were some turbulent spirits who acted with less prudence. Roubli, who had found an asylum at Zurich, allowed himself to be hurried blindly along by the impulse of an overcharged zeal. He, but lately, the curate of St. Albans, a Bernese captain, and Conrad Huber, a member of the great council, were accustomed to meet together at Huber's house, for the express purpose of eating flesh on Fridays and Saturdays, an exploit in which they greatly prided themselves. The question of abstinence began to engross the public attention. A native of Lucerne, who was

* Sagt wie es ein fromme Eidtgnossechaft zertrennen und umbkehren würde. (Bullinger, MS.)

† Sie tragen billig rothe hüt und mäntel, dan schüte man sie, so fallen cronen und Duggaten heraus—winde man sie, so rönt deines Bruders, Vaters, Sohns und guten Freunds Blut heraus. (Ibid.)

‡ Ego veterem Christi ecclesiæ unitatem instaurare non desinam. (Zw. Opp. iii. 47.)

§ Gustum non aliquis humanarum traditionum cibus vobis aridire poterit. (Ibid. i. 2.)

¶ Abner menscheneisch verkaufen un ze Tod schlagen. (Ibid. ii. 2d part, 301.)

* Diewell er ein Burger war und sein Vater des Raths. (Fridolin Ryff's Chronik.)

† Disse che M. di Lutrech et M. de l'Escu havia ditto che l' voleva che le recchia del Papa fusse la major parte restasse di la so persona. (Gradenigo, the Venetian Ambassador at Rome, MS. 1523.)

on a visit in Zurich, said to a citizen, with whom he was familiar: "You do wrong, you worthy confederates of Zurich, to eat flesh during Lent." The Zurichers: "But you, also, good folks of Lucerne, take the liberty of eating it on days when it is forbidden." The Lucernese: "We purchased our license from the pope." The Zurichers: "And we ours from the butcher* . . . If it is an affair of money, the one, surely, is as good as the other." The council having been called upon to punish those who transgressed the ecclesiastical ordinances, requested the opinion of the curates on this matter. Zwingle replied, that the practice of eating flesh on all days alike, was in itself harmless; but that it was right to abstain from adopting it, until the question should have been decided by some competent authority. The other members of the clerical body concurred in the same opinion.

The enemies of the truth took advantage of this fortunate circumstance. Their influence was fast declining—Zwingle's ascendancy becoming paramount—it was necessary to strike a prompt and vigorous blow. They addressed an urgent appeal to the Bishop of Constance, "Zwingle," cried they, is the destroyer, not the pastor of the Lord's flock."†

The ambitious Faber, Zwingle's former friend, had recently undertaken a journey to Rome, and returned full of zeal for the papacy. To the notions which he had imbibed during his sojourn in that imperious court, we must ascribe the first outbreak of the religious troubles in Switzerland. The time had now arrived for a decisive struggle between Gospel truth and the retainers of the Roman pontiff. Until the truth has been exposed to hostile efforts, its innate power is never fully elicited. It was under the cold shadow of opposition and persecution that Christianity, in its earliest growth, acquired the strength by which its enemies were eventually discomfited. And at the epoch of the great revival, which forms the subject of this history, it was the will of God that His truth should march onward in the same rugged and thorny track. The high-priests then, as in the days of the Apostles, set themselves against the new doctrine. But for these assaults, it might, perhaps, have remained concealed in the secret chamber of a few believing hearts. But God's purpose was to manifest it to the world. Opposition had the effect of clearing new avenues for its passage, launching it on a new career, and fixing on it the eyes of the entire nation. It operated like the gust of wind, that scatters the seed to a distance, which otherwise, perhaps, might have laid inert and unprofitable in the spot where it fell. The tree, under whose salutary foliage the tribes of Helvetia were to find rest and shelter, had been planted, indeed, in the depths of her valleys; but the storm was needed to give its roots a firmer hold of the soil, and to enlarge the covert of its branches. The partisans of the papacy no sooner caught a glimpse of the flame that had been kindled at Zurich, than they hastened, while it was yet smouldering, to stifle it; but their efforts served only to fan it into vigour.

On the 7th of April, 1523, in the after part of the day, three ecclesiastics, intrusted with a mission from the Bishop of Constance, entered the walls of Zurich. Two of them had an austere and angry cast of countenance, the third was of gentler aspect. These persons were Melchior Battli, the bishop's coadjutor, Doctor Brendi, lastly, John Vanner, the preacher, of the cathedral, a man of evangelical piety, who was silent throughout the whole affair.‡ It was already late

in the evening, when Luti ran to Zwingle to tell him the news. "Officers have arrived from the bishop," said he, "some great blow is to be struck; all who favour the old customs are in commotion. A notary is now going round to give notice of an assembly of the clergy, to be held at an early hour to-morrow, in the chapter-house."

The assembly was held accordingly on the following morning; when the coadjutor rose, and delivered a speech, which his opponents characterised as violent and arrogant;* he studiously refrained, however, from mentioning Zwingle by name. Some priests, who had lately been won over to the Gospel, and who were yet weak in the faith, were over-awed—their paleness, their silence, their sighs, testified that they had lost all courage.† Zwingle stood up and delivered a speech, which his adversaries made no attempt to answer. At Zurich, as in the other cantons, the most violent enemies of the new doctrine were to be found in the smaller council. The deputies having been baffled in the meeting of the clergy, now carried their complaint before the magistrates. Zwingle was absent; they had, therefore, no reply to fear. The result appeared decisive. The Gospel and its champion were on the point of being condemned without a hearing. Never was the Reformation in Switzerland in more imminent peril. It seemed destined to be smothered in its cradle. In this emergency, the councillors who were friendly to Zwingle, appealed to the jurisdiction of the great council; it was their only remaining resource, and God was pleased to make it availing for the preservation of the Gospel. The two hundred were convened. The partisans of the papacy used every endeavour to exclude Zwingle from that assembly. Zwingle struggled hard to obtain admission. He knocked at every door, as he himself tells us, and left not a stone unturned;‡ but all in vain. "It is impossible!" said the burgomasters; "the council has signed an order to the contrary." "Thereupon," says Zwingle, "I desisted, and with heavy sighs laid the matter before Him who hears the groanings of the prisoner, beseeching him to succour his Gospel."§ The patient and submissive expectation of a servant of God is never disappointed.

On the ninth of April, the two hundred were assembled. "We must have our pastors here," said those members at once who were friendly to the Reformation. The smaller council objected; but the great council determined that the pastors should be present at the accusation, and might even reply to it, if they should think fit. The deputies from Constance were ushered in first, and then the three curates of Zurich, Zwingle, Engelhard, and the aged Roeschli.

After the adverse parties, who were thus brought face to face, had regarded each other for a while, with scrutinizing glances, the coadjutor rose to speak. "If his heart and his head had only been matched with his voice," says Zwingle, "he would have excelled Apollo and Orpheus in sweetness, and the Gracchi and Demosthenes in power."

"The civil constitution," said the champion of the papacy, "and the Christian religion itself, are threatened with ruin. Men have appeared among us teach-

2d edition,) and others say that Faber was at the head of the depuration. Zwingle gives the names of the three deputies, and makes no mention of Faber. The authors first cited have, no doubt, confounded two distinct offices of the Roman hierarchy—the coadjutor and the vicar-general.

* *Erat tota oratio vehemens et stomachi supercilique plena.* (Zw. Opp. iii. 8.)

† *Infirmos quosdam nuper Christum lucrifactos sacerdotes offensus ead. sententiam ex tactis palloribus ac suspiriis.* (Ibid. 9.)

‡ *Frustra diu movi omnem lapidem.* (Ibid.)

§ *Ibi ego quiescere ac suspiriis rem agere cœpi apud eum qui audit gemitum compeditorum.* (Zw. Opp. iii. 9.)

* So haben wirs von dem Zetzer Erkauft. . . (Bulling. MS.)
† *Ovis ille populi pastor esse, non custos aut pastor.* (Zw. Opp. iii.)

‡ (Zw. Opp. p. 8.)—J. J. Hotinger, (iii. 77.)—Ruchat, (i. 134.)

ing newly-invented doctrines, that are equally abominable and seditious." He went on for some time in the same strain, and then, fixing his eyes on the assembled senators, before whom he stood : Continue in the church," said he "continue in the church. Out of the church none can be saved. The ceremonies of the church alone can bring unlearned Christians to the knowledge of salvation ;* and the pastors of the flock have nothing to do but to explain the signification of these ceremonies to the people."

When the coadjutor had finished his speech, and resumed his seat for a moment, he again rose, and was preparing with his colleagues to leave the council-hall, when Zwingle earnestly addressed him.—"Reverend Coadjutor!" said he, "and you, Sirs, who bear him company ! I beseech you to stay, until I have answered this charge."

THE COADJUTOR. "It is not our commission to dispute with any one."

ZWINGLE. "I wish not to dispute, but to state, unreservedly, what my doctrine has been, up to this hour."

THE BURGOMASTER, ROUST—(addressing the deputies from Constance.) "I pray you listen to what the curate has to say in reply."

THE COADJUTOR. "I know too well the man I have to deal with. Ulrich Zwingle is too violent for any discussion to be held with him."

ZWINGLE. "Was there ever an instance before of an innocent man being so vehemently attacked, and then denied a hearing ? In the name of that faith which we all profess ; in the name of the baptism which each of us has received ; in the name of Christ, the author of salvation and eternal life ; I adjure you to listen to me !† If you cannot, as deputies, do so, at least, as Christians."

After having discharged her idle volley, Rome was hastily retreating from the field of battle. The Reformer was anxious only to be heard ; the papal envoys thought but of escaping. A cause thus advocated was already gained by the one party, and lost by the other. The two hundred could no longer contain their indignation ; a murmur‡ ran through the whole assembly ; again the burgomaster remonstrated with the deputies. At last, abashed and silenced, they returned to their seats. Then Zwingle spoke as follows :

"The Reverend coadjutor talks of doctrines that are seditious and subversive of civil authority. Let him learn that Zurich is more tranquil and more obedient to the laws, than any city in Switzerland—a blessing which all good Christians attribute to the Gospel. What influence so powerful as that of Christianity, to maintain good order in a community !§ As for ceremonies, what purpose do they serve, but to disfigure the lineaments of Christ and his followers ?|| No—it is not by vain observances like these that the unlearned multitude can be brought to the knowledge of the truth. There is another and a better way. It is the way that Christ and his apostles have marked out for us—even the Gospel itself. Let us not be told that the people cannot understand the Gospel. Whosoever believes, must needs understand. The people can believe ; therefore, they can understand. This is an operation of the Holy Spirit—not of the human intellect.¶ With re-

gard to abstinence, let him who thinks forty days insufficient, fast, if he will, all the year round. It concerns not me ! All that I contend for is, that no one should be compelled to fast ; and that the Zurichers ought not, for the neglect of this petty observance, to be accused of withdrawing themselves from the communion of Christians"

"I never said that !" cried the coadjutor. "No !" said his colleague, Doctor Brendi, "he did not say that." But the senate unanimously confirmed the assertion of Zwingle.

"Worthy fellow citizens," continued Zwingle, "let not this accusation move you. The foundation of the church is the same rock, the same Christ, that gave Peter his name, because he confessed him faithfully. In every nation, whosoever believes, with all his heart, in the Lord Jesus, is accepted of God. Here, truly, is the church, out of which no one can be saved.* To explain the Gospel, and to obey it—such is the sum of our duty as the ministers of Christ.

"Let those who live upon ceremonies make it their business to explain them !" This was probing the wound to the quick.

A flush passed over the Coadjutor's face, but he remained silent. The assembly of the Two Hundred broke up. On the same day they came to the resolution, that the pope and the cardinals should be requested to explain the controverted point, and that in the mean time abstinence from flesh should be observed during Lent. This was leaving the matter as it stood, and meeting the bishop by an expedient to gain time.

The effect of this controversy was to forward the work of the Reformation. The champions of Rome, and those of the new doctrines, had encountered each other, in the presence, it might be said, of the whole people, and the issue had not been to the advantage of the former. This was the first conflict in a warfare which was destined to be long and difficult, and marked by many vicissitudes of humiliation and rejoicing. But victory won at the commencement of a contest inspires an army with courage, and strikes terror into the enemy. The Reformation had gained a vantage-ground, from which it was not to be dislodged. The Council indeed, found it necessary to proceed with caution ; but the people loudly proclaimed the defeat of Rome. "Never," said they, in the exultation of the moment, "never again can she rally her scattered forces."† "You have shown the spirit of St. Paul himself," said one of Zwingle's correspondents, "in this manful attack on those whited walls—those false apostles and their Ananias. The servants of Antichrist can now only gnash their teeth against you !"‡—From the heart of Germany there came voices that hailed him—"the glory of regenerated theology !"§

But in the mean time the enemies of the truth were collecting all their strength. If the Gospel was to be suppressed at all, there was no time to be lost, for it would soon bid defiance to their efforts. Hoffman impeached the Reformer in a written discourse of great length, which he addressed to the chapter. "Even though the curate," said he, "could bring forward witnesses to prove that certain offences or disorders had been committed by ecclesiastics in such and such a convent, or street, or tavern, it would be a breach of duty to name the delinquents ! Why does he insinuate—(it is true I have scarcely ever heard him myself,) that he alone derives his doctrine from the fountain-head, while others draw theirs from puddles

* Extra illam neminem salvavi. (Ibid. iii. 15.)

† Ut, vulgo jactatum sit, nunquam ultra copias sarturos. (Zw. Opp. 203.)

‡ Vale renascentis Theologiæ decus. (Letter of Urban Regius. Sw. Opp. 205.)

* Unicus esse per quas simplices Christiani ad agnitionem salutis inducerentur. (Ibid. 10.)

† Ob communem fidem, ob communem baptismum, ob Christum vitæ salutisque auctorem. (Zw. Opp. iii. 11.)

‡ Cœpit murmur audiri civium indignantium. (Ibid.)

§ Imo Christianismus ad communem justitiam servandam esse potentissimum. (Zw. Opp. iii. 13.)

¶ Cœnemonias hand quicquam aliud agere quam et Christo et ejus fidelibus oblinere. (Ibid.)

¶ Quiddid hic agitur divino fit afflata, non humano ratione. (Ibid.)

and kennels? * Is it not impossible—seeing the difference of men's minds—that all preachers should preach alike? †

Zwingle defended himself in a full assembly of the chapter, scattering his adversaries' charges, "as a bull with his horns scatters a whisp of straw to the wind." ‡ The affair which had appeared so serious, ended in a peal of laughter at the canon's expense. But Zwingle did not stop here—on the 16th of April he published a treatise "*on the free use of meats*." §

The Reformer's unconquerable firmness was a cause of rejoicing to all who loved the truth, and particularly to the evangelical Christians of Germany, afflicted as they were by the long imprisonment at Wartburg, of that eminent apostle who had first appeared in the bosom of the Church. Already there were instances of pastors and believing laymen who had been driven into exile by the rigorous edict which Charles, under the influence of the Papacy, had issued at Worms—and who had found an asylum at Zurich. "Oh, how it gladdens my heart!" was the language of a letter written to Zwingle by Nesse, the professor of Frankfurt, whom Luther had visited on his way to the Diet—"how it gladdens my heart to hear with what boldness you are preaching Christ Jesus! Strengthen by your exhortations, I beseech you, those whom the cruelty of unworthy prelates has banished from our bereaved churches." ¶

But it was not in Germany alone that the friends of the Reformation were exposed to the deadly machinations of their adversaries. Not a day passed but secret meetings were held at Zurich, to devise some method of getting rid of Zwingle. || One day he received an anonymous letter, which he immediately communicated to his two vicars. "You are beset with snares on every side," said the writer, "a potent poison has been prepared to deprive you of life. ¶ Partake of no food but in your own house; eat no bread but what your own cook has baked. There are those within the walls of Zurich who are leagued for your destruction. The oracle which has revealed this to me, is better entitled to credit than that of Delphi. I am your friend; my name you shall know hereafter." **

On the morning following the day on which Zwingle received this mysterious epistle, just as Stäheli was entering the Water-church, a chaplain stopped him and said—"Leave Zwingle's house with all speed; a catastrophe is at hand! † Some unknown fanatics, who despaired of seeing the Reformation checked by words, had betaken themselves to the dagger. When mighty revolutions are in progress, and the foul dregs of society are heaved upon its agitated surface, we often see the assassin playing a conspicuous part. Zwingle was preserved, however, for God watched over him.

But, while the plots of the murderers were baffled, the legitimate engines of the Papacy were again put in motion. The bishop and his counsellors were determined to renew the war. Tidings to this effect reached Zwingle from every quarter. The Reformer, still leaning on the word of God, replied, with high-minded intrepidity—"I fear them as a lofty crag fears the roaring waves that dash against the base" ‡† *οὐκ ἔσθ' ὅρα*. "God being my helper," added he.

* Die andern aber aus Rinnen und Pfützen. (Simml. Sam. Wirz. I. 244.)

† Ut coram vehemens taurus aristas. (Zw. Epp. p. 203.)

‡ De delictis et libero ciborum usu. (Zw. Opp. i. 1.)

§ Et ut iis qui ob malorum episcoporum savitiam à nobis submoventur prodesset velis. (Zw. Epp. p. 203.)

¶ Nulla præterit hora, in qua non herent . . . consultationes insidiosissimæ. (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

† *Ερωμα φάρμακα λυπητά*. (Ibid. 199.)

** *Σὺς εἶμι*; agnosces me postea. (Ibid.)

‡ Quos ita metue ut litus altum fluctuum undas minacium. (Zw. Epp. 203.)

On the 2d of May, the Bishop of Constance issued a mandate, in which, without any mention of Zurich, or of Zwingle, he complained that evil-disposed persons were reviving doctrines which had long since been condemned, and that learned and unlearned men were alike every where irreverently discussing the most exalted mysteries. John Vanner, preacher of the cathedral of Constance, was the first who was individually attacked. "I choose," said he, "rather to be a Christian, though I incur the hatred of many, than to purchase the friendship of the world by forsaking Christ!" *

But it was at Zurich that the death-blow must be dealt against the infant heresy. Faber and the bishop knew that Zwingle had many enemies among the canons. They resolved to take advantage of this circumstance. Toward the end of May a letter from the bishop was received at Zurich addressed to the principal and chapter. "Sons of the Church," said the prelate, "let those perish who will perish! but let none entice you to abandon the Church." † At the same time, the bishops charged the canons to prevent those pernicious doctrines which were giving birth to dangerous sects from being preached among them, or made the subject of discussion either in private or in public. When this letter was read in the chapter, all eyes were turned upon Zwingle. He could not but know what that look implied. "You think," said he, "I perceive that this letter has reference to me; be pleased to deliver it to me then, and, by God's help, I will answer it."

Zwingle's answer was embodied in a work, bearing the title of *Archeteles*, which signifies the "beginning and the end;" "for," said he, "I hope that this my first reply will also be my last." In this production, he speaks in a very respectful manner of the bishop, and describes all the hostility of which he had to complain to the malevolence of a few designing men. "What, after all, is my offence?" he asks, "I have endeavoured to open men's eyes to the peril of their souls; I have laboured to bring them to the knowledge of the only true God, and Christ Jesus his Son. To this end I have employed no subtle argument, but the word of truth and soberness, such as my brethren of Switzerland could understand." ‡ Then exchanging his defensive posture for that of an assailant, he significantly adds:—"Julius Cæsar, when he felt that he had received a mortal wound, exerted his remaining strength to gather his robe around him, that he might fall with dignity. The downfall of your ceremonies is at hand; be it your care to give their fate what decency you may—and to speed the inevitable transition from darkness to light." §

This was all the effect produced by the bishop's letter to the chapter of Zurich. Since every milder expedient proved ineffectual, it became necessary now to strike a vigorous blow. Faber and Landenberg, cast their eyes around them, and fixed them at last on the Diet, the Council of the Helvetic nation. ¶ Deputies from the bishop presented themselves before that assembly; they stated that their master had issued a mandate forbidding the priests of his diocese to attempt any innovation in matters of doctrine; that his injunction had been set at nought, and that he consequently appealed to the heads of the confederation

* *Malo esse Christianum cum multorum invidiâ quam relinquere Christum propter mundanorum amicitiam*. (Ibid. 200. 22 May.)

† *Nemo vos filios ecclesiæ de ecclesia tollat*. (Zw. Opp. iii. 35.)

‡ *In umbrarum locum lux quam occisimè inducatur*. (Zw. Opp. 3. 69.)

§ *Nam ero in anderen Weg an die Hand; schike seine Boten . . . &c.* (Bullinger, MS.)

to bid him in reducing the rebels to obedience, and in maintaining the true and ancient faith.* The enemies of the Reformation had the ascendancy in this supreme assembly of the nation. But a little before, it had issued a decree by which all the priests were required to desist from preaching; on the ground that their discourses tended to stir up dissensions among the people. This decree of the Diet, its first act of interference with the Reformation, had not hitherto been enforced; but now, being bent on rigorous measures, the assembly summoned before it Urban Weiss, the pastor of Flisliapach, near Baden, who was accused by public report of preaching the new doctrine, and rejecting the old. The proceedings against Weiss were suspended for a while at the intercession of a numerous body of citizens, security having first been exacted from him to the amount of a hundred florins, which were collected by his parishioners.

But the Diet had taken a side in the contest; this was evident, and the monks and priests began to recover their courage. At Zurich they had assumed a haughtier aspect immediately on the promulgation of the first decree. Several members of the Council were accustomed to visit the three convents every morning and evening, and even to take their meals there. The monks lectured their well-meaning guests, and urged them to procure an ordinance from the government in their favour. "If Zwingle will not hold his peace," said they, "we will cry out louder than he!" The Diet had openly espoused the cause of the oppressors: the Council of Zurich knew not how to act. On the 7th of June, it published an ordinance forbidding any one to preach against the monks; but no sooner had this ordinance been voted, than a sudden noise was heard in the council-chamber," says Bullinger's Chronicle, "so that all present looked at each other in dismay."† Tranquillity was not restored; on the contrary, the contest which was carried on in the pulpits grew warmer every day. The Council appointed a committee, before whom the pastors of Zurich, and the readers and preachers of the convents, were respectively summoned to appear in the Principal's dwelling-house. After a keen debate, the Burgomaster enjoined both parties to refrain from preaching any thing that might breed discord. "I cannot submit to this injunction," said Zwingle; "I claim the right of preaching the Gospel freely, without any condition whatsoever, agreeably to the former ordinance. I am bishop and pastor of Zurich: it is to me that the care of souls has been confided. I am under the obligation of an oath, from which the monks are exempt. They are the party who ought to give way, not I. If they preach what is false, I will contradict them, were it even in the pulpit of their own convent. If I myself preach any doctrine contrary to the Holy Gospel, then I desire to be rebuked, not only by the chapter, but by any private citizen,‡ and moreover to be punished by the Council." "And we," said the monks, "on our part, demand permission to preach the doctrines of St. Thomas." The committee of the Council, after mature deliberation, determined "that Thomas Aquinas, Scotus, and the other doctors should be laid aside, and that preachers should confine themselves to the Holy Gospel." Again, therefore, the truth was triumphant. But the anger of those who supported the Papacy was inflamed to a higher pitch. The Italian canons could not conceal their fury. They cast insulting glances at Zwingle in the chapter, and seemed to be thirsting for his blood.§

These tokens of hostility could not intimidate Zwingle. There was one place in Zurich where, thanks to the Dominicans, no ray of light had hitherto entered; this was the nunnery of Oetenbach. The daughters of the first families of Zurich were accustomed to take the veil there. It seemed unjust that these poor females, shut up within the walls of their convent, should alone be debarred from hearing the word of God. The Great Council ordered Zwingle to visit them. The Reformer accordingly mounted the pulpit, which none but the Dominicans had hitherto occupied, and delivered a sermon, "On the clearness and certainty of the word of God."* He afterward published this remarkable discourse, which produced a great effect, and still further contributed to exasperate the monks.

An event now occurred which enlarged the sphere of this religious animosity, and communicated it to many a heart which had as yet been a stranger to its influence. The Swiss, under the command of Stein and Winkelried, had suffered a bloody defeat at Bicocca. They had made a gallant attack on the enemy; but the artillery of Pescara, and the lanzknechts of that same Freundsberg whom Luther had encountered at the door of the Council-hall at Worms, had overthrown officers and standards, and whole companies at once had been mowed down and exterminated. Winkelried and Stein, with many inferior chiefs who bore the illustrious names of Mulinen and Diesbach and Bonstetten and Tschudi and Pflyffer, had been left on the field of battle. Schwitz, in particular, had been bereft of the bravest of her sons. The mangled remnant of that disastrous conflict returned to Switzerland, carrying mourning in their train. A cry of unmingled lamentation resounded from the Alps to the Jura, from the Rhone even to the Rhine.

But no one felt this calamity more keenly than Zwingle. He immediately addressed a letter to the canton of Schwitz to dissuade the citizens of that state from engaging again in foreign service. "Your ancestor," said he, with all the warmth of a true-hearted Switzer, "contended with their enemies in defence of their liberties; but never did they imbrue their hands in Christian blood. These foreign wars bring upon our country incalculable evils. The anger of God descends upon the States, and Swiss liberty is almost lost between the interested caresses and mortal hatred of foreign Princes."† Zwingle gave the right hand to Nicholas Von Flue, and supported the appeal of that friend of peace. This remonstrance being presented at a general assembly of the people of Schwitz, produced such an impression, that it was decreed, that provisionally the state would decline any alliance for the next twenty-five years. But it was not long before the French party procured the revocation of this noble resolution; and from that time Schwitz was, of all the cantons, the most opposed to Zwingle and his efforts. Even the disgraces that the same party drew upon their country served but to increase their hatred of the bold preacher who was striving to avert them. A violent opposition was formed against Zurich and Zwingle. The usages of the Church, and the recruiting services, attacked at the same moment, mutually supported each other against the rising wind which threatened both with downfall. Meanwhile enemies were multiplying from without. It was no longer the Pope alone, but the other foreign princes, who vowed irreconcilable hatred to the Reformation. Its effect went to deprive them of those Swiss halberds which had added so many triumphs to their ambition. On the side of the Gospel there

* Und den wahren alten Glauben erhalten. (Ibid.)

† Liess die Rathstuben einen grossen Knall. (Bullinger, MS.)

‡ Sondern von einem jedem Bürger wysen. (Bullinger, MS.)

§ Oculos in me procacius torquent, ut cujus eput peti gauderent. (Zw. Opp. iii. 29.)

* De claritate et certitudine verbi Dei. (Ibid. i. 66.)

† Ein göttlich Vermahnung an die ortsamen, &c. eidgenossen at Schwyz. (Zw. Opp. ii. 2d part, 206.)

remained—God—and the excellent of the earth: it was more than enough. Divine Providence was besides bringing to its support men of different countries who were persecuted for their faith.

On Saturday, the 12th of July, the inhabitants of Zurich witnessed the arrival, in their streets, of a monk, of tall, thin, and gaunt stature, habited in the grey frock of the Cordeliers, of foreign appearance, and mounted on an ass; his bare feet almost touching the ground.* In this manner he arrived from the road leading to Avignon, not knowing a word of German. However, by means of Latin, he contrived to make himself understood. Francis Lambert, (for that was his name,) inquired for Zwingle, and handed to him a letter from Berthold Haller: "The Franciscan father, who is the bearer of this," wrote the Bernese curate, "is no other than apostolic preacher to the convent-general at Avignon. For the last five years, he has been teaching the true Christian doctrine; he has preached in Latin to our clergy at Geneva, at Lausanne, before the bishop, at Friburg, and latterly at Berne, touching the church, the priesthood, the sacrament of the mass, the traditions of the Roman bishops, and the superstitions of religious orders. To me, such teaching from a Cordelier, and a Frenchman, (both characters that, as you know, suppose a host of superstitions,) seemed a thing unprecedented."† The Frenchman himself recounted to Zwingle, that the writings of Luther having been discovered in his cell, he had been obliged to leave Avignon at a moment's warning; how he had first preached the Gospel in the city of Geneva, and afterward at Lausanne, on the banks of the same lake. Zwingle, quite overjoyed, threw open to him the church of our Lady—assigning him a seat in the choir, before the high altar. There Lambert delivered four sermons, in which he attacked with vigour the errors of Rome; but, in his fourth discourse, he defended the invocation of the saints and of Mary.

"Brother! brother! you are mistaken,"‡ exclaimed a loud voice. It was Zwingle's. Canons and chaplains leaped for joy on seeing a dispute arising between the Frenchman and the heretical curate: "He has publicly attacked you," said they to Lambert, "require of him a public discussion." The monk of Avignon did so;—and, on the 22d of July, at ten o'clock, the two disputants met in the conference-hall of the canons. Zwingle opened the Old and New Testament in Greek and Latin. He discussed and expounded until two o'clock, when the Frenchman, clasping his hands together, and raising them toward heaven,§ broke forth in these words. "I thank thee, O God, that, by this thy gifted minister, thou hast granted to me so clear a discovery of the truth."—"Henceforth," he added, turning to the assembly, "in all my trials, I will invoke none but God alone, and throw aside my beads. Tomorrow, I purpose to continue my journey. I am going to Bale to see Erasmus, of Rotterdam, and thence to Wittenberg to see the Augustine, Martin Luther." And, accordingly, he took his departure on his ass. We shall meet with him again. This man was the first who went forth from France, for the sake of the Gospel, into Switzerland and Germany: the humble forerunner of many thousands.

Myconius had no such consolations. On the contrary, it was his lot to see Sebastian Hofmeister, who had come from Constance to Lucerne, and had there preached the Gospel boldly—compelled to quit the city. On this, Oswald's melancholy increased:—a fever con-

sumed him; the physicians gave their opinion, that if he did not remove, he would die:—"Nowhere do I more wish to be than with you," wrote he to Zwingle, "and nowhere have I less wish to be than at Lucerne. Men torment me, and the climate destroys me. People say that my disease is the punishment of my iniquity. It is in vain to speak or do anything, they turn everything to poison. . . . There is One above, on whom alone my hope rests."*

This hope was not delusive.—It was about the end of March, and Annunciation-day was approaching. The day before its eve, a solemn fast was observed, in memory of a conflagration that, in 1340, had reduced to ashes the greater part of the city. A crowd of people, from the environs, were collected together at Lucerne, and several hundred priests were assembled. A noted preacher usually preached; and, on this occasion, Conrad Schmid, of Kusnacht, commander of the Johannites, arrived to take the duty. A great crowd filled the church—but what was their astonishment, when the commander, abandoning the customary Latin oration, spoke in plain German,† that all could understand; declared, with authority and holy zeal, the love of God in sending His Son into the world, and eloquently showed that our works cannot save us, and that God's promises are, in truth, the essence of the Gospel. "God forbid," cried the commander, in the hearing of the astonished congregation, "that we should recognize a head so full of sin as the Roman bishop, and thereby reject Jesus Christ.‡ If the Bishop of Rome dispenses the bread of the Gospel, let us acknowledge him as a pastor—not as our head; and, if he does not dispense it, let us, in no way whatever, recognize him." Oswald could not restrain his joy.

"What a man!" he exclaimed—"What a discourse!—what majesty and authority!—how full of the spirit of Christ!" The effect was almost universal. To the agitation which pervaded the town succeeded a solemn silence; but all this was transient—if a nation closes the ear to God's call, his calls are every day less frequent, and, ere long, they are altogether withdrawn. This was the fate of Lucerne.

While truth was there proclaimed from the pulpit—at Berne, the Papacy was assailed in the festive meetings of the people. A layman of reputation, Nicolas Manuel, famed for his talents, and afterward promoted to high office in the State, indignant at seeing his countrymen mercilessly plundered by Samson, composed some carnival dramas, in which he keenly satirized the extortion, haughtiness, and pomp, of the pope and clergy. . . . On the *mardi gras*, or Shrove Tuesday of their lordships, (their lordships were then the clergy, and the clergy usually began their Lent eight days before other people,) nothing was talked of in Berne but a drama or *mystery*, called—the *Feeders upon the Dead*, which some young folks were to act in the rue de la Croix. The people flocked to the spot. As literary productions, these dramatic sketches of the early part of the sixteenth century possess some interest—but it is in a very different point of view that we recal them: we would prefer doubtless not to have to adduce, on the part of the Reformation, attacks of this nature; as truth triumphs by far different weapons: history, however, does not create, but faithfully transmits what she finds.

And now the acting begins, much to the satisfaction of the impatient crowd gathered together in the rue de la Croix. The pope appears, attired in splendid habi-

* . . . Kam ein langer, gerader, barfüsser Mönch . . . ritte auf einer Eselin. (Füsslin Beyträge, iv. 39.)

† A tali Franciscano, Gallo, que omnia mære superstitionum confluere faciunt, inaudita. (Zw. Epp. p. 207.)

‡ Bruder da irrst du. (Füsslin Beytr. iv. 40.)

§ Dass er beyde Hände zusammen hob. (Ibid.)

* Quicquid facio venenum est illis. Sed est in quem omnis spes meo reclinat. (Zw. Epp. 192.)

† Wolt er keine praecht tryben mit latein schwätzen, sondern gut teutschreden. (Bullinger, MSC.)

‡ Absit a grege Christiano, ut caput tam lutulentum et peccatis plenum acceptans, Christum agiciat. (Zw. Epp. p. 196.)

liments, and seated on a throne. Around him stand his courtiers and body-guard, and a mixed assemblage of dignified and inferior clergy:—beyond them are nobles, laymen, and beggars. Shortly after, a funeral procession appears:—it is a wealthy farmer whom they are carrying to his grave. Two of his kinsmen walk slowly in front of the coffin, with handkerchiefs in their hands. The procession being arrived in the pope's presence, the bier is lowered, the acting begins:

FIRST RELATIVE.

The noble army of saints,
Take pity on our lot;
Alas! our cousin is dead,
In the prime of his life.

ANOTHER RELATIVE.

No cost will we spare
For priests, friars, or nuns,
Tho' a hundred crowns we should drain;
Determined are we,
His spirit to free,
From dire purgatorial pain.*

The SACRISTAN coming out of the crowd near the pope, and hurrying to the curate, Robert Ne'er-Enough:—

My lord curate, let me drink your health;
A rich farmer is just dead!

THE CURATE.

One, say you. One is not enough.
One dead! 'tis for ten that I call:
The more die off, the more blithely we live,†
This death is the best trick of all!

THE SACRISTAN.

Ah! if I had but my heart's desire,
I'd pass my time in tolling of knells.
For unlike field labour, the dead never tire,
But pay well, and tell no tales.

THE CURATE.

If tolling a bell opes the gate of heaven,
I know not—but what does that matter?
It brings me in barbel, pike, salmon, and trout;
And my larder grows, day by day, fatter

THE CURATE'S NIECE.

'Tis all very well—but I put in my claim,
And this soul must to-day me provide
With a comely new gown of white, black, pink or
green,
And a neat pretty kerchief beside.

Cardinal LOFTYLOOK—wearing the red hat, and standing near the Pope:—

Did we not love the bloody prize of Death,
Would we have led to slaughter, in their prime,
Those armed trains,
On battle plains,
In wars, our pride has kindled in our time!‡
The blood of Christians yields to Rome her wealth!
Hence do I wear a hat of sanguine red,
Made fat with pomp and riches by the dead!

BISHOP WOLF'S-BELLY.

By papal right I mean to live and die.
I wear rich silks and spend luxuriously;
I lead in battle, or I hunt at will!

* Kein kosten soll uns dauern dran,
Wo wir Mönch und Priester mögen ha'an,
Und soll'tes kosten hundert kronen . . .

(Bern. Mausol. iv. Wirz, K. Gesch. i. 383.)

† Je mehr je besser! Kamen doch noch Zehn! (Ibid.)

‡ In the German, the term is more gross, *Pfaffenmetze*.

§ Wenn mir nicht wär mit Todten wohl,

So lüg nicht mancher Acker voll, etc.

(Bern. Mausol. iv. Wirz, K. Gesch. i. 383.)

If we, in the first church, were living still,
My cloak were what a peasant round him flings,*
But we were shepherds then, and now, we're kings.
Yet 'mongst the shepherds I to pass intend.

A VOICE.

How so?

BISHOP WOLF'S-BELLY.

At the sheep-shearing time, my friend!
Shepherds and wolves are we to our fat flocks;
They must feed us, or fall beneath hard knocks.
Marriage to curates doth the Pope deny:
'Tis well:—but who among them will comply?
Not e'en the best of them. That's better still!
What matter scandals?—Bribes my coffers fill.
Thus shall I better sport a princely train:
The smallest coin indeed I ne'er disdain.
A priest with money takes a wife discreetly:
Four florins yearly . . . seal my eyes completely
Brings she him children—he must bleed again! . . .
Two thousand florins in a year I gain:
If they were virtuous I should starve, be sure.†
Thanks to the Pope! him kneeling I adore.
'Tis in his faith I'll live, his church defend,
And ask no other God till life shall end!

THE POPE.

Men think that to a haughty priest 'tis given
To uncloze or shut at will the gate of heaven.
—Preach well the conclave's chosen one's decree
And we are kings—and laymen slaves shall be:
But if the Gospel standard be displayed,
All's over with us!—for 'tis nowhere said
That men should give their money to the priest.
Perhaps too, if the Gospel were obeyed,
We should pass life in poverty and shade . . .
Instead of these caparisoned proud steeds,
With these rich carriages my household needs,
My holiness would ride a duller beast.‡
No—We'll find means to guard the goodly gains
Our predecessors left—and quell rash aims.
'Tis ours to will, and the world's part to bow;
To me as to a God its nations vow;
Crushed by my weight when I ascend its throne,
I give its good things to my pack alone.
And unclean layman must not touch our treasure;
Three drops of holy water 'll fill his measure!

We will not follow out this literal rendering of Manuel's dramatic effusion. The vexation of the clergy on learning these efforts of the Reformers, their anger against those who would thus put a stop to these disorders—is painted in vivid colours. The dissoluteness the mystery brought prominently forward was too general for each one not to be struck by the truth of the picture. The people were in commotion. Many were the satirical jests of the spectators as they broke up from the *spectacle* in the rue de la Croix; but some were more gravely affected, and these spoke of the liberty of the Christian, and the Pope's despotism, contrasting the simplicity of the Gospel with Romish pageantry. Rapidly the popular contempt broke forth in the public streets. On Ash Wednesday the people paraded the indulgences through the city, accompanying them with satirical songs. A heavy blow had been struck, in Berne, and throughout Switzerland, at the ancient edifice of Popery.

Shortly after this dramatic representation, another comedy took place at Berne; but in this last, invention had no share. The clergy, the council, and the burghers, had assembled before the upper gate, expecting the skull of St. Ann, which the celebrated knight, Al-

* Wenn es stünd, wie im Anfang der Kilchen,

Ich trüge vielleicht grobes Tuch und Zwilchen. (Ibid.)

† The German is very expressive. So bin Ich auf gut Deutsch em Hurenwirth. (Bern. Mausol. iv. Wirz, K. Gesch. i. 383.)

‡ Wir möchten fast kaum ein Eselein ha'n. (Ibid.)

bert von Stein, had gone to fetch from Lyons. After waiting some time, Stein arrived, bearing the precious relic, wrapped in a covering of silken stuff. On its passage through Lausanne, the bishop of that place had fallen on his knees before it. The holy trophy was carried in procession to the church of the Dominicans. Bells were rung—the procession entered, and the skull of the Virgin's mother was solemnly deposited on the altar dedicated to her, beneath a screen of costly lattice-work. But in the height of the rejoicing, came a letter from the Abbot of the convent at Lyons, (where the remains of the saint were preserved,) announcing that the monks had tricked the knight, by imposing on him an unclean skull picked up from among the bones of the cemetery. This imposition on the celebrated city of Berne deeply offended its inhabitants.

The Reformation was making progress in other parts of Switzerland. In 1521, Walter Klarer, a young man of Appenzel, returned from the university of Paris to his own canton. The writings of Luther fell into his hands, and, in 1522, he preached the Gospel with all the fervour of a young Christian. An innkeeper, named Rausberg, a member of the Council of Appenzel, threw open his house to the friends of truth. A famous captain, Bartholomew Berweger, who had fought in the ranks for Julius II., and Leo X., being lately returned from Rome, instantly set about persecuting the new doctrine. But recollecting one day that he had seen much that was wrong at Rome, he began to read his Bible and hear the preachers; his eyes were opened, and he embraced the Gospel. Observing that the crowds that came could no longer find room in the churches: "Why not preach in the open fields and in the public squares?" said he—in spite of much opposition, the hills, meadows, and mountains of Appenzel, from that time often resounded with the tidings of salvation.

This doctrine, ascending the course of the Rhine, even reached as far as ancient Rhetia. One day, a stranger, coming from Zurich, passed the river, and presented himself at the door of a saddler of Flasch, the first town in the Grisons. Christian Anhorn listened with amazement to the conversation of his guest. "Preach, then," said the whole village to the stranger, whose name was James Burkli; and Burkli took his stand before the altar. A body of armed men, with Anhorn at their head, surrounded him to protect him from any sudden attack; and thus he proclaimed the Gospel. The report of his preaching spread abroad, and on the next Sunday an immense crowd assembled. Very soon a great number of the inhabitants of that country desired to partake of the Lord's supper, according to Christ's appointment. But one day the tocsin was suddenly heard in Mayenfeld; the people ran together in alarm, the priests depicted the dangers that threatened the Church, and—followed by this fanatic population—hurried to Flasch. Anhorn, who was working in the fields, surprised by the ringing of bells at so unusual an hour, returned home in haste, and secreted Burkli in a deep pit that had been dug in his cellar. The house was already surrounded; the doors were burst open, and strict search made for the heretical preacher; but in vain. At length they left the place.*

The word of God had spread through the ten jurisdictions of the league. The curate of Mayenfeld, on returning from Rome, (whither he had fled in indignation at the progress of the Gospel,) exclaimed—"Rome has made an evangelist of me!" and became from that time a zealous Reformer. Ere long, the Reformation extended itself in the league of what was called "the

house of God." "Oh, if you could but see how the inhabitants of the Rhetian Alps cast away from them the yoke of Babylon!" wrote Salandronius to Vadian.

Revolting disorders hastened the day when Zurich and its neighbouring country should finally throw off the yoke. A married schoolmaster desiring to take priest's orders, obtained his wife's consent, and was separated from her. The new curate finding himself unable to fulfil his vow of celibacy quitted the place of his wife's residence, from regard to her, and settling himself in the diocese of Constance, there formed a criminal connection. His wife hearing of it went to him. The poor priest was melted at the sight of her, and dismissing the woman who had usurped her rights, took home his lawful wife. Instantly the procurator-fiscal made out his report, the Vicar-general was in motion—the councillors of the consistory met in deliberation, and . . . enjoined the curate to renounce his wife, or his benefice! The poor wife left her husband's house in tears; her rival resumed her place in triumph. The church was satisfied, and from that moment left the adulterous priest undisturbed.*

Shortly after a curate of Lucerne seduced a married woman, and cohabited with her. The husband repairing to Lucerne, availed himself of the opportunity afforded by the priest's absence to recover his wife. As he was returning, the seducer met them in the way; he instantly fell upon the injured husband, and inflicted a wound, of which the latter died.† All good men saw the necessity of re-establishing the law of God, which declares marriage "honourable to all." (Heb. xiii. 4.) The ministers of the Gospel had discovered that the law of celibacy was altogether of human authority, imposed by the Popes, contrary to God's word, which, in describing a faithful bishop, represents him as a husband and a father. (1 Tim. iii. 2—4.) They also saw that all of the corruptions which had gained a footing in the church, not one had led to more profligacy and scandals. Hence they not only thought it lawful, but even a part of their duty to God to reject it. Several among them at this period returned to the apostolic usage. Xyloctet was already a husband. Zwingle also married about this time. Among the women of Zurich none was more respected than Anna Reinhardt, widow of Meyer von Knonau, mother of Gerold. From Zwingle's coming among them, she had been constant in her attendance on his ministry; she lived near him, and he had remarked her piety, modesty, and maternal tenderness. Young Gerold, who had become almost like a son to him, contributed further to bring about an intimacy with his mother. The trials that had already befallen this Christian woman—whose fate it was to be, one day, more severely tried than any woman whose history is on record—had formed her to a seriousness which gave prominence to her Christian virtues.‡ She was then about thirty-five, and her whole fortune consisted of 400 florins. It was on her that Zwingle fixed his eyes for a companion for life. He felt the sacredness and intimate sympathy of the marriage tie; and termed it "a most holy alliance."§ "As Christ," said he, "died for those who are His, and gave himself entirely for them, so should those who are united together by marriage, do and suffer all things one for the other." But Zwingle, when he took Anna Reinhardt to wife, did not make his marriage public. This was beyond doubt a blameable weakness in one who was in other things so resolute. The light he and his friends possessed on the

* Simml. Samml. vi.—Wirz, K. Gesch. i. 275.

† Hinc cum aorto redeuntem in itinere deprehendit, adgreditur, lethiferoque vulnere cedit et tandem moritur. (Zw. Epp. p. 306.)

‡ Anna Reinhardt, von Gerold Meyer von Knonau, p. 25.

§ Ein hochheiliges Bündniss. (Ibid. 25.)

* Anhorn, Wiedergeburt der Ev. Kirchen in den 3 Bünden. Chur. 1680. Wirz. i. 557.

subject of celibacy was by no means general. The weak might have been stumbled. He feared lest his usefulness in the church might be destroyed by making known his marriage,* and he sacrificed much of his happiness to these fears, excusable, perhaps, but such as he ought to have disregarded.†

Meanwhile, interests of a higher kind were engaging the thoughts of the friends of truth. The Diet, as we have seen, urged on by the enemies of the Reformation, had enjoined the preachers of the Gospel to abstain for the future from preaching doctrines that disturbed the people. Zwingle felt that the moment for action had arrived, and with characteristic energy he invited such ministers of the Lord as were favourable to the Gospel to meet him at Einsidlen. The strength of Christians is neither in force of arms, flames, scaffold, party policy, or man's power. It is found in a simple but unanimous and courageous confession of the truth which must one day prevail over the world. Those who serve God are specially called on to hold up these heavenly truths in presence of all the people, unawed by the clamours of enemies. These truths carry in themselves the assurance of their triumph, and idols fall before them as before the ark of God. The time had come when God would have the great doctrine of salvation thus confessed in Switzerland; it was fit that the gospel standard should be placed on an elevated spot. Providence was on the point of drawing forth from their unknown seclusion humble but intrepid men, and causing them to give a noble testimony in the face of the whole nation.

Toward the end of June and beginning of July, 1522, pious ministers were seen from every side journeying to the famous chapel of Einsidlen, on a new pilgrimage.‡ From Art, in the canton of Schwitz, came its curate, Balthasar Trachsel; from Weiningen, near Baden, the curate Stäheli; from Zug, Werner Steiner; from Lucerne, the canon Kilchmeyer; from Ulster, the curate Pfister; from Hongg, near Zurich, the curate Stumpf; from Zurich itself, the canon, Fabricius, the chaplain, Schmid, the preacher of the hospital, Grosman, and Zwingle. Leo Juda, curate of Einsidlen, joyfully received these ministers of Christ into the ancient abbey. Since Zwingle's residence, the place had become a kind of citadel of truth—a refuge for the righteous.§ So in the solitary field of

Grutli, two hundred and fifteen years before, had gathered together three-and-thirty patriots, fearlessly determined to burst asunder the yoke of Austria. At Einsidlen, the great aim was to cast away the yoke of man's authority in the things of God! Zwingle proposed to his friends to address an urgent petition to the cantons and the bishop: claiming a free preaching of the Gospel, and also the abolition of compulsory celibacy, the source of so many disorders. All agreed in his suggestion.* Ulrie had himself prepared addresses. That to the bishop was first read. It was on the 2d of July, 1522. All signed it. A hearty affection united the preachers of the Gospel. Many others there were who sympathized with those who had met at Einsidlen; such were Haller, Myconius, Hedio, Capito, Ecclampadius, Sebastian Meyer, Hoffmeister, and Vanner. This brotherly unity is one of the loveliest features of the Swiss Reformation. The excellent men we have mentioned ever acted with one heart, and their mutual affection lasted till death.

The men assembled at Einsidlen saw plainly that nothing but the energy of faith could combine in one work the members of the confederation divided by the foreign capitulations. But their views rose above this. "The heavenly teaching," said they to their ecclesiastical superior, in their address, dated 2d July, "that truth which God the Creator has made known in his Son to mankind immersed in sin, has long been veiled from our eyes by the ignorance, not to say the evil intentions of a handful of men. But Almighty God has decreed to reinstate it in its primitive purity. Join then with those who desire that the great body of Christians should return to their Head, that is Christ.† For our parts we are resolved to proclaim his Gospel with unwearied perseverance, and yet with a prudence that shall leave no ground of complaint against us.‡ Favour this undertaking; startling perhaps, but not rash. Take your stand like Moses, in the way, at the head of the people getting up out of Egypt, and by your own hands overturn all obstacles to the triumphant march of truth."

After this spirit-stirring appeal, the ministers of the Gospel assembled at Einsidlen came to the subject of celibacy. Zwingle had for himself nothing to seek on that head:—he had as his partner such a minister's wife as Saint Paul has sketched, "grave, sober, faithful in all things." (1 Tim. iii. 2.) But his thoughts were for those of his brethren whose consciences were not, as his set free from human ordinances. He longed for that time when those servants of God might live openly and without fear in the circle of their families, "having their children in subjection with all gravity."—"You are not ignorant," said the men of Einsidlen, "how deplorably hitherto the laws of chastity have been violated by the clergy. When in the consecration of ministers to the Lord, the question is put to him who speaks on behalf of the rest:—Are the persons you present to us righteous men?—he answers:—They are righteous. Are they well instructed?—They are well instructed. But when he is asked: are they chaste? His answer is: As far as man's weakness permits."§—"The New Testament everywhere condemns illicit intercourse, while

und dort zu wohnen. (J. J. Hottinger *Helv. K. Gesch.* iii. 86.)

* Und wurden eins an den Bischoff zu Constantz und gemein Eidtgenossen ein Supplication zu stellen. (Bullinger, *MSC.*)

† Et universa Christianorum multitudo ad caput suum, quod Christus est, redeat. Supplicatio quorundam apud Helvetios Evangelistarum, (Zw. *Opp.* iii. 18.)

‡ Evangelium irremisso tenore promulgare statimus . . . (Zw. *Opp.* iii. 18.)

§ Suntque casti? redditur: Quatenus humana imbecillitas permittit. (*Ibid.* i. iii. 21.)

* Qui veritus sis, te marito non tam feliciter usurum Christum in negotio verbi sui. (Zw. *Epp.* p. 335.)

† The most respectable of biographers, and those who have followed them, place Zwingle's marriage two years later, namely, in April, 1524. Without intending here to state all the reasons which have satisfied me that this is an error, I will notice the most conclusive. A letter from Zwingle's intimate friend, Myconius, bearing date 22d July, 1522, has these words: *Vale cum uxore quam felicissime*. Another letter from the same friend, written toward the end of that year, has likewise the words: *Vale cum uxore*. That the date of these letters is quite correct is proved by the very contents of them. But what is still stronger, a letter written from Strasburg, by Bucer, at the moment when Zwingle's marriage was made public, the 14th of April, 1524, (the date of the year is wanting, but it is evident that this letter is of that year,) contains several passages which show Zwingle to have been married a considerable time before; the following are some of those, beside what is cited in the preceding note. *Professum palam te maritum legi. Unum hoc desiderabam in te. Quæ multo facilius quam convulsi tui confessionem Antichristi posset ferre:—Avoqui, ab eo, quod cum fratribus . . . episcopo Constantiensis congressus es, nullus credidi. Quæ ratione id tam diu celares . . . non dubitavi, rationibus huc adductum, quæ apud virum evangelicum non queant omnino repudiari . . . &c.* (Zw. *Epp.* 335.) Zwingle, then, did not marry in 1524, but he then made public his marriage contracted two years before. The learned editors of Zwingle's letters observe—*Num forte jam Zwinglium Annam Reinhardam clandestino in matrimonio habebat?* (p. 216), which appears to me to be not a doubtful point, but a fact sufficiently established.

‡ Thaten sich zusammen etliche priester. (Bullinger, *MS.*)

§ Zu Einsidlen hatten sie alle Sicherheit dahin zu gehen

it everywhere sanctions marriage." Here follow a great number of citations from Scripture.—"It is for this reason we entreat you, by the love of Christ, by the liberty he has obtained for us, by the distress of weak and unstable souls, by the wounds of so many ulcerated consciences—by every motive, divine and human, to consent, that what has been enacted in presumption, may be annulled in wisdom; lest the noble fabric of the Church crumble into dust with frightful crash, spreading ruin far and wide.* Look around you. Behold how many storms threaten society. If prudence does not come to our rescue, the fate of the clergy is decided."

The petition addressed to the Confederation was at greater length.† "Worthy Sirs!" thus spoke the allies of Einsidlen: "We are all Swiss, and acknowledge you as our fathers. Some among us have given proof of our fidelity in the field of battle, in pestilence, and other calamities. It is in the name of chastity that we address you. Which of you does not know that we should better consult the lust of the flesh by declining to subject ourselves to the conditions of lawful wedlock. But it is indispensable to put an end to the scandals which inflict the Church of Christ. If the tyranny of the Roman Pontiff should persist in oppressing us—O! noble heroes, fear nothing! The authority of God's word, the rights of Christian liberty, and the sovereign power of grace, will encompass and protect us.‡ We are of one land and of one faith; we are Swiss; and the virtue of our race has ever displayed its power in unflinching defence of all who are unjustly oppressed."

Thus did Zwingle and his friends boldly uplift the standard of the truth and freedom in Einsidlen itself, that ancient bulwark of superstition, which even in our days is still one of the most noted sanctuaries of Roman observances. They appealed to the chiefs of the State and of the Church. Like Luther, they publicly placarded their theses—but it was at the doors of the episcopal palace and of the council of the nation. The friends at Einsidlen separated; calm, joyous, and full of confidence in that God to whom they had committed their cause; and passing some by the way of the field of battle of Morgarten, others over the chain of the Albis, and the rest by other valleys or mountain paths, they returned each one to his post. "Truly there was something sublime for those times," says Henry Bullinger,* "that these men should have thus dared to step forward, and taking their stand around the Gospel expose themselves to every kind of danger. But God has preserved them all, so that no evil has happened unto them, for God ever protects those who are his." And in truth there *was* a sublimity in this proceeding. It was a decisive step in the progress of the Reformation, one of the most brilliant days of the religious regeneration of Switzerland. A holy bond was compacted at Einsidlen. Humble and brave men had taken 'the sword of the Spirit, which is the word of God, and the shield of faith.' The gauntlet had been thrown down—and the challenge given, not by one man only—but by men of different cantons—prepared to peril their lives on the issue.

The battle was evidently approaching. Everything betokened that it would be vigorously contested. As

* Ne quando moles ista non ex patris celestis sententia constructa, cum fragore longe perniciosiore corruiat. (Zw. Opp. iii. 24.)

† Amica et pia paranesis ad communem Helvetiorem civitatem scripta ne evangelicæ doctrinæ cursum impediatur, &c. (Ibid. i. 39.)

‡ Divini enim verbi auctoritatem, libertatis christianæ et divinæ gratiæ præsidium nobis audentes conspicietis. (Ibid. 63.)

§ Es wass zwahren gross zu denen Zytten . . . (Bullinger, MSC.)

early as the 7th of July, the magistrate of Zurich, willing to do the Romanists a pleasure, summoned before him Conrad Grebel, and Claus Hottinger, two intemperate men, who seemed desirous to overpass the limit of a prudent reformation. "We prohibit you," said the burgomaster, Roust, "from speaking against the monks, or on the points in controversy." At that moment a loud clap was heard in the room, says an old chronicle. The work of God was so manifest in events, that men saw in everything, the sign of His intervention. Every one, in astonishment, looked round the apartment, without being able to discover the cause of the mysterious sound.*

But it was in the convents that indignation was at its height. Every meeting held therein, for discussion or amusement, witnessed some new attack. One day, on occasion of a grand festivity, in the convent of Fraubrunn, the wine mounting to the heads of the guests, they began to break out in bitter speeches against the Gospel.† That which chiefly irritated these friars and priests was, the evangelical doctrine that, in the Christian church, there can properly be no priestly caste, raised above other believers. Among the guests, there was but one who was a favourer of the Reformation, and he was a layman, named Macrin, schoolmaster of Soleure. At first, he took no part in the discourse, but changed his seat from one table to another. At length, unable to endure the shouts of the guests, he arose, and said aloud: "Well, all true Christians are priests and sacrificers, according to that word of St. Peter: (1 Pet. ii. 9; Rev. i. 6.)—ye are kings and priests." At this speech, the Dean of Burgdorf, one of the loudest in the company, a huge man, of powerful lungs and sonorous voice, burst into a loud laugh, and, mingling jest with insult: "So then," said he, "you Greeklings and accident-mongers are the royal priesthood? . . . Noble sacrificers! beggar kings! . . . priests without prebends or livings!" All, with one accord, turned against the presumptuous layman.

It was, however, at Lucerne, that the bold measure of the men of Einsidlen was to produce the greatest sensation. The Diet had met in that town, and from all sides came complaints against the over-zealous preachers who obstructed the regular sale of Swiss blood to foreign nations. On the 22d of July, 1522, as Oswald Myconius sat at dinner in his house, in company with the canon, Kilchmeyer, and several favourers of the Gospel, a young lad, sent by Zwingle, came to the door.‡ He was the bearer of the two famous petitions of Einsidlen, together with a letter from Zwingle, in which he desired Oswald to circulate them in Lucerne. "My advice is," added the Reformer, "that it should be done quietly and gradually, rather than all at once, for we need to learn to give up everything, even our wives, for Christ's sake."

The critical moment for Lucerne was approaching; the bomb had fallen; the shell was about to burst. The friends read the petitions, "May God bless this beginning!"§ exclaimed Oswald, raising his eyes to heaven. He then added: "This prayer should, from this moment, be the constant burthen of our hearts." The petitions were forthwith circulated, perhaps more actively than Zwingle desired. But the moment was without example. Eleven men, the *élite* of the clergy,

* Da liess die Stube einen grossen Knall. (Fusslin Beytr. iv. 39.)

† Cum invalscentem Baccho, disputationes, imo verius jurgia. (Zw. Epp. 230.)

‡ Estote ergo Græculi ac Donatista, regale sacerdotium . . . (Zw. Epp. 230.) Donatista, from Donatus, the author of the Latin grammar then in use in the schools.

§ Venit puer, quem misisti, inter prandendum . . . (Ibid. 209.)

|| Deus cœpta fortunet! (Zw. Epp. p. 209.)

had placed themselves in the breach; it was requisite to enlighten men's minds, to decide the wavering, and carry with them the co-operation of the most influential members of the Diet.

Oswald, in the midst of his exertions, did not forget his friend. The young messenger had told of the attacks that Zwingle had to endure from the monks of Zurich. "The words of the Holy Ghost are invincible," wrote Myconius, in reply, the same day. "Armed with the shield of the holy Scriptures, you have overcome, not in one conflict only, or in two, but in three, and now a fourth is commencing. Hold fast those mighty weapons, whose edge is harder than a diamond. Christ needs, for the defence of those who are his, nothing but his Word. Your conflicts communicate unconquerable courage to all who have devoted themselves to Jesus Christ."*

The two petitions did not produce the effect expected from them in Lucerne. Some men of piety approved them, but they were few in number. Many, fearing to compromise themselves, would neither commend nor blame them.† Others said, "These people will make nothing of it." The priests murmured against them, and the populace broke forth, in open hostility. The passion for military adventure had again shown itself in Lucerne, after the bloody defeat of Bicocca, and nothing but war was thought of.‡ Oswald, who attentively watched these varying impressions, felt his resolution fail. The reign of Gospel light, in Lucerne and Switzerland, which his hopes had dwelt upon with joy, seemed to vanish. "Our countrymen are blind, as to heavenly things," said he, fetching a deep sigh, "there is nothing to be hoped from the Swiss, for the glory of Christ."§

In the council and at the Diet, exasperation was at its height. The pope, France, England, the empire, were all in motion round Switzerland, since the defeat of Bicocca, and the retreat of the French, under command of Lautrec, from Lombardy. Was it because the political interests of the moment were not sufficiently complicated, that these eleven men must bring forward their petitions, thereby adding controversies of religion? The deputies of Zurich alone inclined to favour the Gospel. The canon, Xyloctect, trembling for the safety of himself and his wife—for he had married into one of the chief families of the neighbourhood—had, with tears, declined the invitation to Einsidlen, to sign the address. The canon, Kilchmeyer, had evinced more courage, and, ere long, he had need of it. "Sentence is impending over me," he wrote, on the 13th of August, to Zwingle. "I await it with firmness." As he was writing, the officer of the council entered his apartment, and delivered him a summons to appear on the following morning.¶ "If I am cast into prison," said he, continuing his letter, "I claim your help; but it will be easier to transport a rock from our Alps, than to move me as much as a hand's-breadth from the word of Jesus Christ." Regard to his family, and the resolution that had been come to, that the storm should be directed against Oswald, saved the canon.

Berthold Haller had not signed the petitions, perhaps because he was not a Swiss by birth. But, without flinching, he, as Zwingle had done, expounded the Gospel of St. Matthew. A great crowd thronged the cathedral church of Berne. The word of God

wrought more mightily than Manuel's dramas had done on the people. Haller was summoned to the townhall; the people escorted him thither, and continued collected in the great square. Opinions were divided in the council. "It is a matter that concerns the bishops," said the most influential persons; "we must hand over the preacher to my Lord Bishop of Lausanne." Haller's friends were alarmed at these words, and sent him word to retire with all possible despatch. The people gathered round, and bore him company; and a considerable number of burghers remained in arms, in front of his dwelling, ready to form a rampart for their humble pastor, with their bodies. The bishop and council drew back, at the aspect of this bold demonstration, and Haller was saved. But he was not the only champion of truth at Berne. Sebastian Meyer refuted the Bishop of Constance's pastoral letter, and more especially the charge that the disciples of the Gospel taught a new doctrine, and that the ancient only is the true. "To have gone wrong for a thousand years," said he, "cannot make us right for a single hour; otherwise, it would have been the duty of the heathen to continue in their religion. And if the most ancient doctrines are to be preferred, then, fifteen hundred years are more than five centuries—and the Gospel is more ancient than the decrees of the popes."*

At this time, the magistrates of Friburg intercepted certain letters, addressed to Haller and Meyer, by a canon of Friburg, named John Hollard, a native of Orbe. They proceeded to throw him into prison; stripped him of his appointment; and finally banished him. One John Vannius, a chorister of the cathedral, shortly after declared himself in favour of the Gospel; for, in this war, as soon as one soldier falls, another steps forward to occupy his place in the ranks. "How is it possible," asked Vannius, "that the muddy water of the Tiber, should flow side by side with the pure stream that Luther has drawn from St. Paul's source?" But the chorister, also, had his mouth shut. "Among all the Swiss," said Myconius, writing to Zwingle, there are hardly any more averse from sound doctrine than the people of Friburg."†

There was, nevertheless, one exception, namely, Lucerne, and Myconius experienced this. He had not signed the celebrated petitions; but if not he, his friends did so, and a victim was required. The ancient literature of Greece and Rome, thanks to his efforts, was beginning to shine upon Lucerne. From various quarters, people resorted thither, to hear the learned professor; and the peacefully-disposed listened with delight, to softer sounds than those of halberds, swords, and cuirasses, which, previous to this time, had been the only sounds in that warlike city. Oswald had sacrificed everything for his country, he had quitted Zurich and Zwingle; he had injured his health; his wife was infirm,‡ and his son of tender years—if Lucerne should reject him, nowhere could he hope for an asylum! But these considerations had no power over the merciless spirit of party, and the things that should have moved them to compassion, inflamed their anger. Hurtenstein, burgomaster of Lucerne, an old and brave soldier, who had acquired distinction in the wars of Suabia and Burgundy, urged the council to dismiss the schoolmaster from his post—and wished, together with the master, to expel his Greek and Latin, and his preaching, from the canton. He succeeded. On leaving the council, in which it had been decided to dismiss Myconius, Hurtenstein encountered Berger, the Deputy of Zurich: "We send you back your schoolmaster," said he, ironically; "get ready a

* Simml. Samml. vi.

† Hoc audia vix alios esse per Helvetiam, qui pejus velint sada doctrina. (Zw. Epp. p. 326.)

‡ Conjux infirma. (Ibid. 192.)

* Is permanens, qui es, in Christo Jesu . . . (Ibid. 210.)

† Boni qui pauci sunt, commendando libellos vestros; alii non laudant nec vituperant. (Ibid.)

‡ Belli furor occupat omnia. (Zw. Epp. p. 210.)

§ Nihil ob id apud Helvetios agendum, de iis rebus quæ Christi gloriam possunt augere. (Ibid.)

¶ Tu vero audi. Hæc dum scriberem, irruit præco, a Senatoribus missus . . . (Ibid. 213.)

comfortable lodging for him." "We will not let him lie in the streets,"* instantly replied the courageous deputy. But Berguer promised more than he could perform.

The words dropped by the burgomaster were too true, and they were soon confirmed to the distressed Myconius. He is deprived of his occupation—banished:—and the only crime laid to his charge is that he is a disciple of Luther.† He turns his eyes on the right hand and on the left, and nowhere does he discern shelter. He beholds himself, and his wife and child—weak and ailing—driven from their home—and all around him, his country rocked by a violent tempest that is rendering and destroying whatever ventures to stand against it—"Here," said he to Zwingle, "is your poor Myconius discharged by the Council of Lucerne‡. Where shall I go? . . . I know not . . . Assailed as you yourself are, how can you shelter me? . . . I look, therefore, in my tribulation to God, as my only hope. Ever abounding, ever merciful, he suffers none who make their prayer to Him to go empty away.—May he supply my wants!"

So spake Oswald.—He waited not long before a word of consolation came to him. There was one man in Switzerland who had been schooled in trials of faith. Zwingle hastened to raise and cheer his friend. "So rude are the blows by which the enemy would level God's house," said Zwingle, "and so repeated the assaults, that it is no longer the rains descending, and the wind blowing, according to the Lord's prediction, (Matt. vii. 27.) but hail and thunder storm.§ If I did not discern the Lord keeping the vessel, I should long since have let go the helm;—but I see him in the height of the tempest, strengthening the cordage, shifting the yards, spreading the sails, nay, more, commanding the very winds. Would it not then be the action of a faint heart, and unworthy of a man, were I to abandon my post and seek in flight a death of shame? I commit myself entirely to his sovereign goodness. Let him govern all—let him remove impediments—let him appear or delay, hasten or stay—rend, swallow up, or plunge us to the bottom of the deep; we will not fear.|| We are vessels that belong to Him. He can make us to honour or to dishonour, according to his pleasure!" After these breathings of lively faith, Zwingle continued:—"My advice to you is to present yourself before the Council, and there pronounce a speech worthy of Christ, and of yourself—that is to say, suited to melt and not to irritate the hearers. Deny that you are a Lutheran, but profess yourself a disciple of Jesus Christ. Let your pupils accompany you, and speak for you:—and if this does not prevail, come to your friend, come to Zwingle, and look upon our city as your own hearth."

Oswald, emboldened by these words, followed the noble counsel, of the Reformer; but all his efforts were fruitless. The witness for truth was doomed to quit his country, and they of Lucerne were so active in decrying him, that everywhere the magistrates opposed the offering him an asylum: "Nothing remains for me," said the confessor of Jesus Christ, heart-broken at the aspect of so much enmity, "but to beg the support of my miserable existence from door to door."¶ The day soon arrived when the friend of Zwingle, and his most effective fellow-labourer, the first among the

Swiss who united the office of instructor in learning with the love of the Gospel, the Reformer of Lucerne, and afterwards one of the chiefs of the Helvetic church, was compelled, with his feeble partner, and infant child, to leave that ungrateful city where, out of all his family, only one of his sisters had received the love of the Gospel. He passed its ancient bridge. He caught sight of those mountains which seemed to rise from the bosom of lake Waldstetten to the clouds. The canons, Xyloctect and Kilchmeyer, the only friends the Reformation could as yet number among his countrymen, followed close behind him. And in the moment when this poor man, in company with the helpless sufferers dependant upon him for support, turned towards the lake, and, shedding tears for his infatuated country, bade adieu to the sublime natural grandeur of his birth-place—the Gospel itself departed from Lucerne, and there Rome reigns unto this day.

The Diet itself, then sitting at Baden, stimulated by the severity resorted to against Myconius—irritated by the petitions from Einsieden, which, being printed and circulated, produced everywhere a strong sensation—and persuaded by the bishop of Constance, who urged them to strike a final blow at their innovators, had recourse to persecution, enjoined the authorities of the bailages to "give information against all, whether priests or laymen, who should impugn the established faith," and in blind haste proceeded to arrest the preacher who happened to be nearest, namely, Urban Weiss, pastor of Fislispach (who had before this been released on bail) and sent him to Constance, to the Bishop, who kept him a long while in confinement. "In this manner," says Bullinger's Chronicle, "began the confederate states' persecution of the Gospel, and all this happened at the instigation of the clergy, who in all ages have dragged Jesus Christ before the judgment seats of Herod and Pilate."**

Zwingle was not destined to escape trial—and he was at this time wounded in the tenderest point. A rumour of his doctrine and his struggles had passed the Santis, penetrated the Tockenbug, and reached the height of Wildhaus. The family of herdsmen from which he sprang, were deeply moved by what they heard. Of Zwingle's five brothers some had not ceased to follow their mountain occupations; while others, to the great grief of their brother, had at times taken up arms, left their flocks, and served foreign princes. All were in consternation at the reports brought to their chalets. In imagination they beheld their brother seized, dragged before his bishop at Constance, and a pile of faggots lighted for his destruction, on the spot where John Huss had perished. The high-spirited shepherds could ill brook the thought of being called the brothers of a heretic. They wrote to Ulric, communicating their distress and alarm; Zwingle answered them. "As long as God shall enable me, I will perform the task that he has assigned me, without fearing the world and its proud tyrants. I know all that may befall me. There is no danger, no evil, that I have not long and carefully considered. My strength is weakness itself, and I know the power of my enemies; but I likewise know that I can do all things through Christ, that strengtheneth me. Were I to hold my peace, another would be raised up and constrained to do what God is doing by my means—while I should be judged by God! O, my dear brethren, banish far from your thoughts all these apprehensions. If I have a fear it is that I have been more gentle and tractable than suits the times we live in.†. What shame," say you, "will fall upon all

* Veniat! efficiemus enim ne dormiendum sit ei sub dio (Ibid. 216.)

† Nil exprobarunt nisi quod sim Lutheranus. (Zw. Epp. p. 216.)

‡ Expellitur ecce miser Myconius a Senatu Lucernano. (Ibid. 215.)

§ Nec ventos esse, nec imbres, sed grandines et fulmina. (Ibid. 217.)

¶ Regat, vehat, festinet, maneat, acceleret, moretur, mergat. (Zw. Epp. p. 217.)

¶ Quidam querere quod edam. (Ibid. 245.)

* Uss anstiften der geistlichen, Die zu allen Zytten, Cristum Pilate und Herodi vstellen. (MSC.)

† Plus enim metuo ne forte lenior mitiorque fuerim. (De semper casta Virgine Maria, Zw. Opp. i. 104.)

our family, if you are burnt, or in any other way put to death!*" O, my beloved brethren, the Gospel derives from the blood of Christ this wondrous property, that the fiercest persecutions, far from arresting its progress, do but hasten its triumph! They alone are faithful soldiers of Christ who are not afraid to bear in their own bodies the wounds of their Master. All my efforts have no other end than to make known to men the treasures of blessedness that Christ has purchased for us; that all men may turn to the Father, through the death of his Son. If this doctrine should offend you, your anger cannot stop my testimony. You are my brothers, yes, my own brothers, sons of my father, who have hung on the same breasts . . . but if you were not my brethren in Christ, and in the work of faith, then would my grief be so overpowering that nothing would exceed it. Farewell. I will never cease to be your attached brother, if you will not cease to be the brethren of Jesus Christ."†

The confederated Swiss seemed to rise as one man against the Gospel. The petitions from Einsiden had been the signal of that movement. Zwingle, affected at the fate of his beloved Myconius, saw, in his misfortunes, but the beginning of sorrows. Enemies within and without the city—a man's foes, 'those of his own house,' furious opposition from monks and priests—strong measures of repression by the Diet, and Councils—riotous, perhaps murderous assaults, from partisans of the foreign service—the upper valleys of Swit-

* Si vel ignis vel alio quodam supplicii genere tollaris e medio. (Ibid.)

† Frater vester germanus nunquam, desinam, si modo vos fratres Christi esse perrexeritis. (Zw. Opp. i. 107.)

zerland, the cradle of the Confederation, pouring forth phalanxes of invincible soldiers, to reinstate Rome, and quench the nascent revival of faith at the risk of their lives! Such was the prospect the prophetic mind of the Reformer beheld with trembling. And what a prospect! was indeed this revival to be crushed in its very beginning! Then it was that Zwingle, anxious and troubled in mind, spread before his God the deep anguish of his soul. "O Jesus," he exclaimed, "thou seest how the wicked and the blasphemers stun thy people's ears with their clamours.* Thou knowest how from my youth up I have abhorred controversy, and yet, against my will, thou hast never ceased to impel me to the conflict. Therefore, do I call upon Thee with confidence to finish what thou hast begun! If in anything I have builded unwisely, let thy hand of power cast it down. If I have laid any other foundation beside Thee, let thy mighty arm overturn it.† O thou vine full of all sweetness to whom the Father is the husbandman—and we are branches, abandon not thy suckers.‡ Hast thou not promised to be with us unto the end of the world?"

It was on the 22d of August, 1522, that Ulric Zwingle, the Swiss Reformer, beholding the thunder-cloud descending from the mountains on the frail bark of the Faith, thus poured forth to God the troubles and desires of his soul.

* Vides enim, plissime Jesu, aures eorum septas esse nequissimis susurronibus, sycophantis, lucronibus . . . (Ibid. iii. 74.)

† Si fundamentum aliud præter te jecero, demoliaris! (Ibid. 74.)

‡ O suavissima vitis, cujus vinitor Pater, palmites vere nos sumus; sationem tuam ne deseras.

BOOK IX.

It was now four years since the Church had heard again proclaimed a truth which had formed part of her earliest teaching. The mighty word of a salvation by *Grace*, once 'fully preached' throughout Asia, Greece, and Italy, by Paul and his companions, and discovered many ages after, in the pages of the Bible, by a monk of Wittenberg, had resounded from the plains of Saxony, as far as Italy, France, and England; and the lofty mountains of Switzerland had echoed its inspiring accents. The springs of truth, liberty, and life were again opened: multitudes had drunk gladly of the waters; but those who had freely partaken of them had retained the same external appearance, and while all *within* was new, every thing *without* remained unchanged.

The constitution of the Church, its ritual, and its discipline had undergone no alteration. In Saxony, even at Wittenberg, and wherever the new opinions had spread, the papal ceremonies held on their accustomed course; the priest before the altar offering the host to God was believed to effect a mysterious transubstantiation; friars and nuns continued to present themselves at the convents to take upon them the monastic vows; pastors lived single; religious brotherhoods herded together; pilgrimages were undertaken; the faithful suspended their motive offerings on the pillars of the chapels; and all the accustomed ceremonies, down to the minutest observances, were celebrated as before. A voice had been heard in the

world, but as yet it was not embodied forth in action. The language of the priest accordingly presented the most striking contrast with his ministrations. From his pulpit he might be heard to thunder against the mass as idolatrous, and then he might be seen to come down to the altar, and go scrupulously through the prescribed form of the service. On every side, the recently recovered Gospel sounded in the midst of the ancient rites. The officiating priest himself was unconscious of his inconsistency, and the populace, who listened with avidity to the bold discourses of the new preachers, continued devoutly observant of their long-established customs, as though they never were to abandon them. All things continued unchanged at the domestic hearth, and in the social circle, as in the house of God. A new faith was abroad, but new works were not yet seen. The vernal sun had risen, but winter still bound the earth; neither flower, nor leaf, nor any sign of vegetation was visible. But this aspect of things was deceptive: a vigorous sap was secretly circulating beneath the surface, and was about to change the face of the world.

To this wisely-ordered progress, the Reformation may be indebted for its triumphs. Every revolution should be wrought out in men's minds before it takes the shape of action. The contrast we have remarked did not at first fix Luther's attention. He seemed to expect that while men received his writings with enthusiasm, they should continue devout observers of the

corruptions those writings exposed. One might be tempted to believe that he had planned his course beforehand, and was resolved to change the opinions of men before he ventured to remodel their forms of worship. But this would be ascribing to Luther a wisdom, the honour of which is due to a higher Intelligence. He was the appointed instrument for a purpose he had no power to conceive. At a later period he could discern and comprehend these things, but he did not devise or arrange them. God led the way: the part assigned to Luther was to follow.

If Luther had begun by external reformation—if he had followed up his words by an attempt to abolish monastic vows, the mass, confession, the prescribed form of worship—assuredly he would have encountered the most formidable resistance. Mankind need time to accommodate themselves to great changes. But Luther was not the imprudent and daring innovator that some historians* have depicted. The people, seeing no change in their daily devotions, followed undoubtedly their new leader, wondering at the assaults directed against a man who left unquestioned their mass, their beads, and their confessor; and disposed to ascribe such enmity to the petty jealousy of secret rivals, or to the hard injustice of powerful enemies. And yet the opinions that Luther put forth, fermented in the minds of men, moulded their thoughts, and so undermined the strong hold of prejudice, that it ere long fell without being attacked. Such influence is, indeed, gradual. Opinions make their silent progress, like the waters which trickle behind our rocks, and loosen them from the mountains on which they rest: suddenly the hidden operation is revealed, and a single day suffices to lay bare the work of years, if not of centuries.

A new era had dawned upon the Reformation: already truth was recovered in its teaching; henceforward the teaching of the truth in the Church and in society. The agitation was too great to allow of men's minds remaining at their then point of attainment; on the general faith in the dogmas so extensively undermined, customs had been established which now began to be disregarded, and were destined with them to pass away.

There was a courage and vitality in that age, which prevented its continuing silent in presence of proved error. The sacraments, public worship, the hierarchy, vows, constitutional forms, domestic and public life, all were on the eve of undergoing modification. The bark, slowly and laboriously constructed, was on the point of being lowered from the stocks, and launched on the open sea. It is for us to follow its progress through many shoals.

The captivity of Luther in the castle of Wartburg, separates these two periods. That Divine Providence, which was about to give a mighty impulse to the Reformation, had prepared the means of its progress, by leading apart into profound seclusion, the man chosen to effect it. For a while, the work was as much lost sight of as the instrument of it: but the seed must be committed to the earth, if it is to bring forth fruit; and from this captivity, which might have seemed to close the Reformer's career, the Reformation was destined to go forth to new conquests, and spread rapidly through the world.

Until this period, the Reformation had indeed centered in the person of Luther. His appearance before the Diet of Worms was unquestionably the sublimest hour of his life. His character at that time seemed almost without a blemish; and this it is that has led some to the remark, that if God, who hid the Reformer for ten months within the walls of the castle of

Wartburg, had at that moment forever removed him from the eyes of men, his end would have resembled an apotheosis. But God designs no apotheosis for His servants, and Luther was preserved to the Church, that in him, and by his errors, the Church might learn that the faith of Christians should rest only on the word of God. He was hurried away and placed at a distance from the stage on which the great revolution of the sixteenth century was going on. The truth which he had for four years so energetically proclaimed, continued to produce its effect upon Christendom; and the work of which he had been the weak instrument, bore thenceforward the impress, not of man—but of God himself.

All Germany was moved by the news of Luther's captivity. Rumours, the most contradictory, were circulated in the provinces. Men's minds were more agitated by the absence of the Reformer, than they could possibly have been by his presence. On one side it was affirmed that some of his friends, passing from the French territory, had carried him off, and lodged him in safety beyond the Rhine.* In another place, it was said that assassins had taken his life. Even in the smallest villages, inquiries were heard concerning Luther. Travellers were questioned, and groups of the curious assembled in the market places. Sometimes a stranger, passing through, recounted how the Reformer had been carried off; depicting the brutal horsemen hastily tying their prisoner's hands behind him, dragging him after them on foot, till his strength was spent, and deaf to his cries, though the blood forced its way from his fingers.† His body, said some, has been seen pierced through and through.‡ Such narratives drew forth exclamations of grief and horror. 'Never more shall we behold him!' said the gathered crowds; 'never again shall we hear that bold man whose voice stirred the depths of our hearts!' Luther's partisans, moved with indignation, swore to avenge his death. Women and children, men of peace, and aged people, foreboded new disturbances. The alarm of the Romish party was altogether unexampled. The priests and friars who had been at first unable to conceal their joy, believing their own triumph secured by the death of one man, and had carried themselves haughtily, would now willingly have hid themselves from the threatening anger of the populace.§ Those who had given free vent to their rage, so long as Luther was at large, now trembled with alarm, though Luther was in captivity.¶ Aleander, especially, was as if thunderstruck. "The only way of extricating ourselves," wrote a Roman Catholic to the Archbishop of Mentz, "is to light our torches, and go searching through the earth for Luther, till we can restore him to the nation that *will* have him."‡ It might have been thought that the pallid ghost of the Reformer, dragging his chain, was spreading terror around, and calling for vengeance. Luther's death, it was predicted, would occasion the effusion of torrents of human blood.**

Nowhere was there a stronger feeling displayed than in Worms itself. Bold remonstrances were heard both

* *Hic . . . invalescit opinio, me esse ab amicis captum e Francia missis.* (L. Epp. ii. 5.)

† *Et iter festinantes cursu equit eis ipsum pedestrem raptim tactum misse ut sanguis e digitis erumperet.* (Cochleus, p. 39.)

‡ *Fuit qui testatus sit visum a se Lutheri cadaver transform. . . .* (Pallavicini Hist. Conc. Trid. i. p. 122.)

§ *Molestem vulgum imminens ferre non possunt.* (L. Epp. ii. p. 13.)

¶ *Qui me libero insanierunt, nunc me captivo ita formidant ut incipient mitigare.* (Ibid.)

** *Nos vitam vix redempturos, nisi accensis candelis undique eum requiramus.* (L. Epp. ii. p. 13.)

** *Gerbelii Ep. in M. S. C. Heckelianis. Lindner, Leb. Luth. p. 244.*

from nobles and people. Ulric Hütten and Hermann Busch filled the air with their plaintive lamentations and calls to war. Loud accusations were brought against Charles V. and the Nuncios. The entire nation had espoused the cause of the monk whose energy of faith had made him its leader.

At Wittenberg, his colleagues and friends, and especially Melancthon, were at first lost in sadness. Luther had been the means of communicating to the young student the treasures of that divine knowledge which from that hour had taken possession of his whole soul. It was Luther who had given substance and life to that intellectual culture which Melancthon brought with him to Wittenberg. The depth of the Reformer's doctrine had impressed the young Grecian, and his bold advocacy of the claims of the unchanging Word against human traditions had called forth his enthusiasm. He had associated himself with him in his labours, and taking up the pen, with that finished style which he had imbibed in the study of ancient literature, he had made the authority of Fathers and of Councils to bend before the sovereignty of God's Word.

The prompt decision that Luther displayed in the trying occasions of life, Melancthon manifested in his pursuit of learning. Never were two men more strongly marked with diversity and agreement. "Scripture," said Melancthon, "satisfies the soul with holy and wondrous delight—it is a heavenly ambrosia!"* "The word of God," exclaimed Luther, "is a sword—an instrument of war and destruction—it falls on the children of Ephraim like the lioness that darts from the forest."† Thus one saw in Scripture chiefly its power to comfort; and the other, a mighty energy opposed to the corruption of the world. But to both it was the sublimest of themes. In so far, there was a perfect agreement in their judgment. "Melancthon," observed Luther, "is a miracle in the estimation of all who know him. He is the most dreaded enemy of Satan and the schoolmen, for he knows all their foolishness, and he knows Christ as the rock. That young Grecian goes beyond me even in divine learning—he will do you more good than many Luthers!"‡ And he went on to say he was ready to give up an opinion if Philip disapproved it. Melancthon, on his part, full of admiration for Luther's knowledge of Scripture, ranked him far above the Fathers. He took pleasure in excusing the jesting which Luther was reproached for resorting to, and would, on such occasions, compare him to an earthen vase which holds a precious treasure in an unsightly vessel. "I would be careful how I blame him," said he †

But behold the two friends so intimately united in affection, now parted one from the other. The two fellow-soldiers no longer march side by side to the rescue of the Church. Luther is absent—and lost perhaps for ever! The consternation at Wittenberg was extreme: as that of an army, gloomy and dejected, at sight of the bleeding corpse of the general who was leading it on to victory.

Suddenly news arrived of a more cheering character. "Our well-beloved father still lives,"‡ exclaimed Philip, exultingly, "take courage and stand firm." But ere long melancholy prognostications returned. Luther was indeed living, but in close imprisonment. The edict of Worms, with its menacing proscriptions,§ was circulated by thousands throughout the empire,

and even in the Tyrolean mountains.* Was not the Reformation on the very eve of destruction by the iron hand impending over it? The gentle spirit of Melancthon recoiled with a thrill of horror.

But above the hand of man's power, a mightier hand was making itself felt, and God was rendering powerless that dreaded edict. The German princes, who had long sought occasion to reduce the authority which Rome exercised in the empire, took alarm at the alliance between the Emperor and the Pope, lest it should work the ruin of their liberty. Whilst, therefore, Charles, in journeying in the Low Countries, might see with a smile of irony the bonfires in which flatterers and fanatics consumed the writings of Luther in the public squares—those writings were read in Germany with continually increasing eagerness, and numerous pamphlets in favour of the Reformation every day attacked the papal authority.

The Nuncios could not control themselves when they found that the edict, which it had cost them so much to obtain, produced so feeble an effect. "The ink of the signature," said they, "has scarcely had time to dry, when, behold, on all sides, the imperial decree is torn to pieces." The populace were more and more won to the cause of the extraordinary man who, without heeding the thunderbolts of Charles and of the Pope, had made confession of his faith with the courage of a martyr. It was said, "Has he not offered to retract if refuted, and no one has had the hardihood to undertake to refute him. Does not that show that he has spoken the truth?" Thus it was that the first emotions of fear were followed at Wittenberg and throughout the empire by a movement of enthusiasm. Even the archbishop of Mentz, beholding the burst of national sympathy, durst not give permission to the cordeliers to preach against the Reformer. The University, which might have been expected to yield to the storm, raised its head. The new doctrines had taken too deep root to suffer by Luther's absence, and the halls of the academies were crowded with auditors.†

Meanwhile, the Knight George, for this was the name of Luther, so long as he was in the Wartburg, was living solitary and unknown. "If you were to see me," wrote he to Melancthon, "truly you would take me for a knight; even you would scarcely know me again."‡ Luther, on his arrival, passed a short time in repose, enjoying a leisure which had not yet been allowed him. He was at large within the fortress; but he was not permitted to pass outside it.§ All his wishes were complied with, and he had never been better treated.|| Many were the thoughts that occupied his mind, but none of them had power to disturb him. By turns he looked down upon the forests that surrounded him, and raised his eyes to heaven—"Strange captivity!" he exclaimed—"a prisoner by consent, and yet against my will."¶ "Pray for me," he wrote to Spalatin:—"I want nothing save your prayers: don't disturb me by what is said or thought of me in the world. At last I am quiet."*** This letter, like many of that period, is dated from the island of *Palmos*. Luther compared the Wartburg to the island

* *Dicuntur signatæ chartæ proscriptionis bis mille missæ quæque ad Insbruck.* (Ibid.)

† *Scholastici quorum supra millia ibi tunc fuerunt.* (Spalatinus Annales, 1521, October.)

‡ *Equitem videres ac ipse vix agnosceres.* (L. Epp. ii. 11.)

§ *Nunc sum hic otiosus, sicut inter captivos liber.* (Ibid. p. 3, 12 May.)

¶ *Quamquam et hilariter et libenter omnia mihi ministret.* (Ibid. p. 13, 15 August.)

¶ *Ego mirabilis captivus qui et volens et nolens hic sedeo.* (L. Epp. ii. p. 4, 12 May.)

*** *Tu fac ut pro me ores: hac unâ re opus mihi est. Quicquid de me fit in publico, nihil moror; ego in quiete tandem sedeo.* (L. Epp. ii. p. 4, 10 June, 1521.)

* *Mirabilis in iis voluptas, immo ambrosia quædam cœlestis.* (Corp. Ref. i. 123.)

† *Spiritus Martini nolim temere in hac causâ interpellare.* (Ibid. p. 211.)

‡ *Pater noster charissimus vivit.* (Ibid. p. 389.)

§ *Dicitur parari proscriptio horrenda.* (Corp. Ref. i. p. 399.)

celebrated as the scene of the banishment of St. John by the emperor Domitian.

After the stirring contest that had agitated his soul, the Reformer enjoyed repose in the heart of the gloomy forests of Thuringen. There he studied evangelical truth—not for disputation, but as the means of regeneration and of life. The Reformation, in its beginning, was of necessity polemic—other circumstances required new labours. After eradicating with the hoe the thorns and brambles, the time was arrived for peaceably sowing the word of God in men's hearts. If Luther had been all his life called to wage conflicts—he would not have effected a lasting work in the Church. By his captivity he escaped a danger which might have ruined the cause of the Reformation—that of always attacking and demolishing, without ever defending or building up.

This secluded retreat had one effect perhaps still more beneficial. Lifted by his nation like one raised upon a shield, he was but a hand's breadth from the abyss beyond, and the least degree of intoxication might have precipitated him headlong. Some of the foremost promoters of the Reformation in Germany, as well as in Switzerland, had made shipwreck on the shoals of spiritual pride and fanaticism. Luther was a man very subject to the weaknesses of our nature; and, as it was, he did not entirely escape these besetting dangers. Meanwhile, the hand of the Almighty, for a while preserved him from them, by suddenly removing him from the intoxication of success, and plunging him in the depth of a retirement unknown to the world! There his soul gathered up itself to God—there it was again tempered by adversity—his sufferings, his humiliation, obliged him to walk, at least for a time, with the humble—and the principles of the Christian life thenceforward developed themselves in his soul with fresh energy and freedom.

Luther's tranquillity was not of long duration. Seated in solitude on the walls of the Wartburg, he passed whole days lost in meditation. At times, the Church rose before his vision, and spread out all her wretchedness;* at other times, lifting his eyes to heaven, he would say, "Canst Thou have made all men in vain?" Then letting go his confidence, he would add, dejectedly, "Alas! there is no one in this closing day of wrath to stand as a wall before the Lord, and save Israel!"

Then recurring to his own lot, he dreaded being charged with having deserted the field of battle;† the thought was insupportable. "Rather," exclaimed he, "would I be stretched on burning coals than stagnate here half dead."‡ Transported in thought to Worms—to Wittenberg—into the midst of his adversaries—he regretted that, yielding to his friends' entreaties, he had withdrawn himself from the world.§ "Ah," said he, "nothing on earth do I more desire than to face my cruel enemies."||

Some gentler thoughts, however, brought a truce to such complainings. Luther's state of mind was not all tempest; his agitated spirit recovered at times a degree of calm and comfort. Next to the assurance of the Divine protection, one thing consoled him in his grief—it was the recollection of Melancthon. "If I perish," he wrote, "the Gospel will lose nothing¶—you will succeed me as Elisha succeeded Elijah, with a double portion of my spirit." But calling to mind the timidity of Melancthon, he ejaculated—"Minister

of the Word! keep the walls and towers of Jerusalem till our enemies shall strike you down. We stand alone on the plain of battle; after me they will strike you down."*

This thought of the final onset of Rome on the infant Church, threw him into renewed anxieties. The poor monk—a prisoner and alone—had many a struggle to pass through in his solitude; but suddenly he seemed to get a glimpse of his deliverance. He thought he could foresee that the assaults of the papal power would rouse the nations of Germany; and that the soldiers of the Gospel, victorious over its enemies, and gathered under the walls of the Wartburg, would give liberty to its captive. "If the Pope," said he, "should stretch forth his hand against all who are on my side, there will be a violent commotion; the more he urges on our ruin, the sooner shall we see an end of him and his adherents! And as for me . . . I shall be restored to your arms.† God is awakening many, and He it is who impels the nations. Only let our enemies take up our affair and try to stifle it in their arms—and it will grow by their pressure, and come forth more formidable than ever!"

But sickness brought him down from these lofty heights to which his courage and faith would at times rise. He had already, when at Worms, suffered much; and his disorder had increased in solitude.‡ The food of the Wartburg was altogether unsuited to him; it was rather less ordinary in quality than that of his convent, and it was found needful to give him the poor diet to which he had been accustomed. He passed whole nights without sleep—anxieties of mind were added to pain of body. No great work is accomplished without struggle and suffering. Luther, alone on his rock, endured in his vigorous frame a suffering that was needed, in order to the emancipation of mankind. "Sitting, at night, in my apartment," says he, "I uttered cries like a woman in travail."§ Then ceasing to complain, and touched with the thought that what he was undergoing was sent in mercy from God, he broke forth in accents of love: "Thanks to thee, O Christ, that thou wilt not leave me without the precious relics of thy holy cross!"|| But soon feeling indignation against himself wrought in his soul, he exclaimed, "Hardenéd fool that I am; woe is me! my prayers are few; I wrestle but little with the Lord; I bewail not the state of the Church of God;¶ instead of being fervent in spirit, my passions take fire: I sink in sloth, in sleep, and indolence." Then, not knowing to what to ascribe his feelings, and accustomed to expect blessing through the affectionate remembrance of his friends, he exclaimed, in the bitterness of his soul, "O, my friends, do you then forget to pray for me? that God can thus leave me to myself."

Those who were about him, as also his Wittenberg friends, and those at the Elector's court, were anxious and alarmed at his mental suffering. They trembled in the prospect of the life that had been snatched from the fires of the Pope, and the sword of Charles, so sadly sinking and expiring. The Wartburg then would be Luther's tomb! "I fear," said Melancthon, "lest his grief for the condition of the Church should bring him down to the grave. He has lighted a candle in Israel; if he dies, what hope is left us? Would that

* Nos soli adhuc stamus in acie: te quærent post me. (Ibid. p. 2.)

† Quo citius id tentaverit hoc citius et ipse et sui peribunt, et ego revertar. (L. Epp. ii. p. 10.)

‡ Auctum est malum, quo Wormatiæ laborabam. (Ibid. p. 17.)

§ Sedeo dolens, sicut puerbera, lacer et saucius et cruentus. (Ibid. p. 60. 9 Sept.)

|| Gratiâ Christo, qui me sine relinquis sanctæ Crucis dare linquit. (Ibid.)

¶ Nihil gemens pro ecclesiâ Dei. (L. Epp. ii. p. 22, 13 July.)

* Ego hic seden stota die faciem Ecclesiæ ante me constituo. (L. Epp. ii. 1.)

† Verebar ego ne aciem desere viderem. (L. Epp. ii. 1.)

‡ Mallem inter carbones vivos ardere, quam solus semivivus, atque utinam non mortuus putare. (Ibid. 10.)

§ Cervicem esse objectandam publico furori. (Ibid. 89.)

|| Nihil magis opto, quam furoribus adversariorum occurrere, obiecto jugulo. (Ibid. 1.)

¶ Etiam si peream, nihil peribit Evangelio. (Ibid. p. 10.)

by the sacrifice of my worthless life, I could retain in this world one who is surely its brightest ornament.* O, what a man!" he exclaimed, (as if already standing beside his grave,) "surely we never valued him as we ought."

What Luther termed the shameful indolence of his prison-life, was in reality, diligence beyond the strength of ordinary mortals. "Here am I," said he, on the 14th of May, "lapped in indolence and pleasures. [He doubtless refers to the quality of his food, which was at first less coarse than what he had been used to.] I am going through the Bible in Hebrew and Greek. I mean to write a discourse in German touching auricular confession; also to continue the translation of the Psalms, and to compose a collection of sermons, as soon as I have received what I want from Wittenberg. My pen is never idle."† Even this was but a part of Luther's labours.

His enemies thought that, if not dead, at least he was effectually silenced; but their exultation was short, and, ere long, no doubt could exist that he still lived. A multitude of tracts, composed in the Wartburg, followed each other in rapid succession; and everywhere the well-known voice of the Reformer was enthusiastically responded to. Luther, at the same moment, put forth such writings as were adapted to build up the church, and controversial tracts which disturbed his opponents in their fancied security. For nearly a whole year, he, by turns, instructed, exhorted, rebuked, and thundered from his mountain height, and his astonished adversaries might well inquire whether indeed there was not something supernatural in so prodigious an activity—"He could not have allowed himself any rest,"‡ says Cochläus. But the solution of the whole mystery was to be found in the rashness of the Romish party. They were in haste to profit by the decree of Worms, to put an end to the Reformation; and Luther, sentenced—placed under the ban of the empire, and a prisoner in the Wartburg, stood up in the cause of sound doctrine, as if he were still at large and triumphant. It was especially at the tribunal of penance that the priests strove to rivet the fetters of their deluded parishioners; hence it is the Confessional that Luther first assails. "They allege," says he, "that passage in St. James, 'confess your sins to one another;' a strange confessor this—his name is 'one another!' Whence it would follow that the confessors ought also to confess to their penitents; that every Christian should in his turn be pope, bishop, and priest, and that the pope himself should make confession before all."§

Scarcely had Luther finished this tract, when he commenced another. A divine of Louvain, named Latomus, already known by his opposition to Reuchlin and Erasmus, had impugned the Reformer's statements. Twelve days after, Luther's answer was ready, and it is one of his masterpieces. He first defends himself against the charge of want of moderation. "The moderation of this age," says he, "consists in bending the knee before sacrilegious pontiffs and impious sophists, and saying, 'Gracious Lord, most worthy master.' Then, having so done, you may persecute who you will to the death; you may convulse the world—all that, shall not hinder your being a man of moderation!" Away with such moderation, say I. Let me speak out, and delude no one. The shell may be rough, perhaps, but the nut is soft and tender."||

The health of Luther continued to decline; he began to think of leaving the Wartburg. But what to do; to appear in open day at the risk of his life? In the rear of the mountain on which the fortress was built, the country was intersected by numerous foot-paths, bordered by tufts of wild strawberries. The massive gate of the castle was unclosed, and the prisoner ventured, not without fear, to gather some of the fruit.* Gradually, he became more venturesome, and, clothed in his knight's disguise, and attended by a rough-mannered but faithful guard from the castle, he extended his excursions in the neighbourhood. One day, stopping to rest at an inn, Luther laid aside his sword, which encumbered him, and took up some books that lay near. His natural disposition got the better of his prudence. His attendant took the alarm lest an action so unusual in a man of arms, should excite a suspicion that the doctor was not really a knight. Another time, the two companions descended the mountain, and entered the convent of Reichardsbrunn, in which, but a few months before, Luther had rested for a night, on his way to Worms.† Suddenly, one of the lay-brothers uttered an exclamation of surprise—Luther had been recognised. His keeper, seeing how the matter stood, hurried him away, and it was not till they were galloping far from the cloisters, that the monk recovered from his astonishment.

The life of the Doctor of Wittenberg, in his assumed character of a knight, had, indeed, at times, a something about it truly theological. One day, the snares were made ready—the fortress gates thrown open—the sporting dogs let loose. Luther had expressed a wish to partake of the pleasures of the chase. The huntsmen were in high spirits; the dogs scoured the hills, driving the hares from the brushwood; but, as the tumult swelled around him, the Knight, George, motionless in the midst of it, felt his soul fill with solemn thoughts. Looking round him, his heart heaved with sorrow.‡ "Is it not," said he, "the very picture of the Devil, setting his dogs, the bishops, those messengers of antichrist, and sending them out to hunt down poor souls?"§ A young leveret had been snared: rejoicing to liberate it, Luther wrapped it in his mantle, and deposited it in the midst of a thicket; but scarcely had he left the spot, when the dogs scented it, and killed it. Drawn to the place by its cry, Luther uttered an exclamation of grief—"O, Pope! and thou, too, O Satan! it is thus that ye would compass the destruction of the souls that have been rescued from death!"||

While the Doctor of Wittenberg, dead to the world, was seeking to recruit his spirits by these occupations in the vicinity of the Wartburg, the great work was progressing, as if by its own power. The Reformation, in fact, was beginning to take effect. It was no longer limited to teaching; it now began to affect and mould the life.

Bernard Feldkirchen, the pastor of Kemberg, and the first, under Luther's direction, to expose the errors of Rome,¶ was also the first to throw off the yoke of her institutions: he married!

There is, in the German character, a strong love of family and domestic enjoyments—hence, of all the injunctions of the papal authority, none had had more lamentable results than the imposition of celibacy. Made obligatory on the heads of the clergy, this prac-

* Utinam hac vili anima mea ipsius vitam emere queam. (Corp. Ref. 415, 6 July.)

† Sine intermissione scribo. (L. Epp. ii. 6, and 16.)

‡ Cum quiescere non posset. (Cochläus, Acta Lutheri, p. 39.)

§ Und der Papst müsse ihm beichten. (L. Opp. xvi. p. 701.)

|| Cortex meus esse potest durior, sed nucleus meus mollis et dulcis est. (L. Opp. xvii. Lat. ii. p. 213.)

* Zu zeiten gehet er inn die Erdbeer am Schlossberg. (Mathesius, p. 33.) See Vol. ii. p. 214.

† Theologice ab imi ibi inter retia et canes... tantum misericordie et doloris miscuit mysterium. (L. Epp. ii. p. 43.)

‡ Quid enim ista imago, nisi Diabolum significat per insidias suas et impios magistros canes suos... (Ibid.)

|| Sic servit Papa et Satan ut servat etiam animas perdat. (L. Epp. ii. p. 44.) See Vol. i. p. 189.

tice had prevented the fiefs of the church from passing into hereditary possessions. But extended, by Gregory VII., to the inferior orders, its effects had been indeed deplorable. Many of the priests, in evading the obligation imposed upon them, by shameful disorders, had drawn down hatred and contempt on their profession; while those who had submitted to Hildebrand's law, were indignant that the church, which lavished power, riches, and earthly possessions on its higher dignitaries, should impose on its humble ministers, who were ever its most useful supporters, a denial so opposed to the Gospel.

"Neither the pope nor the councils," said Feldkirchen, and another pastor, named Seidler, who followed his example, "can have a right to impose on the church a command that endangers soul and body. The obligation to observe God's law compels us to throw aside traditions of men."* The re-establishment of marriage was, in the sixteenth century, an homage paid to the moral law. The ecclesiastical power, in alarm, instantly issued its mandates against the two priests. Seidler, who lived in the territory of Duke George, was given up to his superiors, and died in prison. But the elector, Frederic, refused to surrender Feldkirchen to the Archbishop of Magdeburg. "His Highness," said Spalatin, "declines to act the part of a police-officer." Feldkirchen, therefore, continued to preside over his flock, though a husband and a father!

The first emotion of the Reformer, on receiving intelligence of these events, was one of joy. "I am all admiration," says he, "of the new bridegroom of Kemberg, who moves on fearlessly, in the midst of all this hubbub."† Luther was satisfied that priests ought to marry. But this question led directly to another—the marriage of friars—and, on this point, Luther had to pass through one of those internal struggles, of which his life was full; for every reform was, of necessity, to be wrought out by a mental conflict. Melancthon and Carlstadt—the one a layman, the other in priest's orders—thought that the liberty of contracting the marriage-bond ought to be as free to the friars as to the priests. Luther, himself a monk, did not, at first, agree with them in judgment. One day, when the commandant of the Wartburg had brought him some theses of Carlstadt, touching celibacy, "Good Heaven!" he exclaimed, "will our Wittenberg friends allow wives even to monks?" The thought overwhelmed him, and disturbed his spirit. For himself, he put far from him the liberty he claimed for others: "Ah!" said he, indignantly, "at least, they will not make me take a wife."‡ This expression is doubtless unknown to those who assert that Luther's object in the Reformation was that he might marry. Bent upon the truth, not from any desire of self-pleasing, but with upright intentions, he undertook the defence of that which appeared to him to be right, although it might be at variance with the general tendency of his doctrine. He worked his way through a mingled crowd of truths and errors, until the errors had altogether fallen, and truth alone remained standing in his mind.

There was, indeed, a broad distinction discernible between the two questions. The marriage of priests, did not draw after it the downfall of the priesthood; on the contrary, it was of itself likely to win back popular respect to the secular clergy. But the marriage of friars involved the breaking up of the monastic institutions. The question, then, really was, whether it was right to disband the army that acknowledged themselves the soldiery of the pope. "The priests," said Luther, writing to Melancthon, "are ordained by God,

and, therefore, they are set above the commandments of men; but the friars have of their own accord chosen a life of celibacy—they, therefore, are not at liberty to withdraw from the obligation they have laid themselves under."**

The Reformer was destined to advance a step farther, and, by a new struggle, to carry also this part of the enemy. Already he had trampled under his feet many Romish corruptions: nay, even the authority of Rome herself. But monkery was still standing—monkery, which had, in early times, carried the spark of life to many a desert spot, and, passing through successive generations, now filled so many cloisters with sloth and luxury—seemed to find a voice and advocate in the castle of Thuringen, and to depend, for life or death, on the agitated conscience of one man. Luther struggled for a while, at one moment on the point of rejecting it, at another disposed to acknowledge it. At last, no longer able to support the contest, he threw himself, in prayer, at the feet of Christ, exclaiming: "Do thou teach us—do thou deliver us—establish us with thy free Spirit, in the liberty thou hast given us—for surely we are thy people!"†

And, truly, there was no long tarrying; a great change took place in the Reformer's thoughts, and again it was the great doctrine of *Justification by Faith* which gave victory.

This weapon, which had put down indulgences, baffled Romish intrigues, and humbled the pope himself, dethroned monkery, also, from the place it held in the mind of Luther, and of all Christendom. Luther was led to see that the monastic institutions were in flagrant opposition to the doctrines of Free Grace, and that the life led by the monks was entirely grounded on the assertion of human merit. Convinced, from that instant, that the glory of Christ was at stake, his conscience incessantly repeated—"Monkery must yield." So long as Justification by Faith is clearly held by the church, not one of her members will become a monk.‡ This persuasion continued to gain strength in his mind, and, as early as the beginning of December, he addressed to the bishops and deacons of the church of Wittenberg, the following theses—his declaration of war against monkery:—

"Whoever is not of faith, is sin.—Rom. xiv. 23.

"Whoever binds himself by a vow of celibacy, of chastity, of service to God—without *faith*—vows, profanely and idolatrously, a vow to the devil himself.

"To make such vows, is worse than to be priests of Cybele, or vestals of pagan worship; for the monks make their vows in the thought that they shall be justified and saved by them; and that which should be ascribed to the mercy of God alone, is thus ascribed to human deservings. Such convents ought to be razed to the foundation, as being abodes of the devil. There is but one order that is holy, and makes men holy, and that is, Christianity, or Faith.¶

"To make the religious houses really useful, they should be converted into schools, wherein children might be brought up to manhood; instead of which, they are establishments where grown men are reduced to second childhood for the rest of their lives."

We see that Luther, at this period, would have tolerated the convents as houses of education; but, ere long, his attack upon them became more unsparring.

* Me enim vehementer movet, quod sacerdotum ordo, a Deo institutus, est liber. non autem monachorum qui sua sponte statum eligerunt. (L. Epp. ii. p. 34.)

† Dominus Jesus erudiat et liberet nos, per misericordiam suam, in libertatem nostram. (Melancthon on Celibacy, 6th Aug. 1521 ibid. p. 40.)

‡ L. Opp. (W. xxii. p. 1466.)

§ Es ist nicht mehr denn eine enigige Geistlichkeit, die da heilig ist, und heilig macht. . . . (L. Opp. xvii. p. 718.)

* Coegit me ergo ut humanas traditiones violarem, necessitas servandi juris divini. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 441.)

† At mihi non obtrudent uxorem. (L. Epp. ii. p. 40.)

The immorality and shameful practices that disgraced the cloisters, recurred forcibly to his thoughts. "It is my great aim," he wrote to Spalatin, on the 11th of November, "to rescue the young from the hellish fires of celibacy;"* and he proceeded to compose a tract against monastic vows, which he dedicated to his father. "Do you desire," said he, in his dedication, to the old man at Mansfield, "do you still feel a desire to extricate me from a monk's life? You have the right to do so, for you are still my father, and I am still your son. But it is not needed. God has been beforehand with you, and has himself delivered me from it, by his mighty arm. What does it matter if I should lay aside the tonsure or the cowl? Is it the cowl—is it the tonsure, that constitutes a monk? "All things are yours," said St. Paul, "and you are Christ's." I belong not to the cowl, but the cowl to me. I am a monk, and yet no monk. I am a new creature, not of the pope, but of Jesus Christ! Christ alone, and no mere go-between, is my bishop, my abbot, my prior, my Lord, my master—and I acknowledge no other. What matters it to me if the pope should sentence and put me to death? He cannot summon me from the grave, and take my life a second time. That great day is nigh, when the kingdom of abominations shall be overthrown. Would to God the pope would do his worst, and put us all to death; our blood would cry to heaven against him, and bring down swift destruction on him and his adherents."†

Luther himself was already transformed; he felt himself no longer a friar. It was no outward circumstances, no human passions, no haste of the flesh, that had brought about the change. A struggle had been gone through. Luther had, at first, sided with monkery, but truth had descended into the arena, and monkery was overthrown. The triumphs of human passion are short-lived, but those of truth are decisive and durable.

While Luther was thus preparing the way for one of the greatest changes which the church was destined to pass through, and the Reformation was beginning to manifest its effects on the lives of Christians—the partisans of Rome, with that blind infatuation common to those who have long held power, were pleasing themselves with the thought, that because Luther was in the Wartburg, the Reformation was for ever at an end. They thought, therefore, quietly to resume their former practices, which had been for an instant interrupted by the monk of Wittenberg. Albert, the Archbishop and Elector of Mentz, was one of those weak persons who, when things are nearly balanced, are found on the side of truth; but whenever their own interest is concerned, are quite willing to take up with error. His great aim was, that his court should equal in splendour that of any of the German princes; that his equipages should be as rich, and his table as well-served. The trade in indulgences was to him an admirable resource for the promotion of his favourite object. Accordingly, no sooner was the decree against Luther issued from the imperial chancellor's court, than Albert, who was then at Halle, attended by his courtiers, called together the venders of indulgences, whose activity had been paralysed by the Reformer's preaching, and endeavoured to encourage them by such words as these:—"Do not fear, we have silenced him; go shear the flock in peace. The monk is in prison, under bolts and bars, and this time he will be clever indeed if he disturbs us at our work." The

market was again opened, the wares spread out for sale, and again the churches of Halle resounded with the harangues of the mountebanks.

But Luther still lived; and his voice had power to pass beyond the walls and gratings behind which he was concealed. Nothing could have roused him to a higher pitch of indignation. "What!" thought he, "violent discussions have taken place, I have braved every danger, the truth has triumphed, and now they dare to trample it in the dust, as if it had been refuted. They shall again hear that voice which arrested their guilty traffic." "I will take no rest," wrote Luther to Spalatin, "till I have attacked the idol of Mentz, and its whoredoms at Halle."‡ He went instantly to work, caring little for the mystery in which some sought to envelope his seclusion in the Wartburg. He was like Elijah in the desert, forging new thunderbolts to hurl against the impious Ahab. On the 1st of November, he completed a tract "Against the new Idol of Halle."

The archbishop had received information of Luther's intentions. Urged by his apprehensions, he, toward the middle of December, despatched two of his attendants, Capito and Auerbach, to Wittenberg, to ward off the blow. "It is indispensable," said they to Melancthon, who received them courteously, "it is quite indispensable that Luther should moderate his impetuosity." But Melancthon, though himself of gentler spirit, was not of the number of those who imagine wisdom to consist in perpetual concession, retracting, and silence. "God is making use of him," he replied, "and this age requires a bitter and pungent salt."§ On this, Capito, addressing himself to Jonas, endeavoured, through him, to influence the elector's councils.

The report of Luther's design had already spread thither, and produced great consternation. "What!" said the courtiers, "rekindle the flame that it cost so much trouble to subdue! The only safety for Luther is to withdraw into the shade; and see how he exalts himself against the greatest prince in the empire." "I will not suffer Luther to write against the Archbishop of Mentz, to the disturbance of the public tranquillity,"‡ said the elector.

When these words were reported to Luther, he was indignant. It is not enough, then, to confine his body, they would enchain his spirit, and the truth itself. Do they imagine he hides himself from fear? or that his retreat is a confession of defeat? On the contrary, he contends that it is a victory gained. Who, then, in Worms, had dared to rise up against him, in opposition to the truth? Accordingly, when the captive of the Wartburg had finished reading Spalatin's letter, apprizing him of the elector's intention, he threw it aside, resolving to return no answer. But he could not contain his feelings; he again took it in hand. "And so, the elector will not suffer!" &c., wrote Luther, in reply, "and I, on my part, will not suffer that the elector should not allow me to write." Rather will I be the utter ruin of yourself, the elector, and the whole world.¶ If I have stood up against the pope, who created your cardinal, is it fitting that I should give way to his creature? Truly, it is very fine to hear you say we ought not to disturb the public peace, while you permit the disturbance of the Peace that is from God. It shall not be so, Spalatin! O Prince, it shall not stand!|| I send, with this, a tract I had written

* Non continebor quin idolum Moguntinum invadam, cum suo lupanari Hallensi. (L. Epp. ii. p. 69, 7th October.)

† Huic seculo opus esse acerrimo sale. (Corp. Ref. i. 463.)

‡ Non passurum principem, scribi in Moguntinum. L. Epp. ii. 94.

§ Potius te et principem ipsum perdam et omnem creaturam. L. Epp. ii. p. 94.

|| Non sic, Spalatine, non sic, princeps. (Ibid.)

* Adolescentes liberare ex isto inferno celibatus. (Ibid. ii. 95.)

† Dass unser Blut mocht schreien und dringen sein Gericht, dass sein bald ein Ende wurde. (L. Epp. ii. p. 105.)

against the cardinal, before I received your letter;—please to hand it to Melancthon.”

The reading of this manuscript alarmed Spalatin;—he again urged on the Reformer the imprudence of a publication that would oblige the Imperial government to lay aside its affected ignorance of what had become of him, and to proceed to punish a prisoner who assailed the chief dignitary of the Church and Empire. If Luther persisted, the general tranquillity would be disturbed, and the cause of the Reformation endangered. Luther, therefore, consented to delay the publication, and even gave Melancthon leave to strike out the more severe passages.* But growing indignant at his friend's timidity, he wrote to Spalatin,—"The Lord still lives—He reigns—the Lord whom you, councillors of the court, cannot trust, unless He so shapes his work, as that there be nothing left to trust Him in!"—and he forthwith resolved to write direct to the cardinal.

It is the Episcopal authority itself that Luther calls to the bar of judgment, in the person of the German primate. His words are those of a bold man, burning with zeal in behalf of truth, and feeling that he speaks in the name of God himself.

"Your Electoral Highness," wrote he, from the depth of his retirement," has seen fit again to set up at Halle the *idol* that engulfs the treasure and the souls of poor Christians. You think, perhaps, that I am disabled, and that the power of the emperor will easily silence the protest of a feeble monk. . . . But know this—I will fearlessly discharge the duty that Christian charity lays me under, dreading not the gates of hell!—and much less, popes, bishops, or cardinals.

"Therefore, I humbly implore your Electoral Highness to call to remembrance the origin of this business, and how, from one little spark, came so fearful a conflagration. Then also, the world reposed in fancied security. 'That poor mendicant friar,' thought they, 'who, unaided, would attack the pope, has undertaken a task above his strength.' But God interposed his arm, and gave the pope more disturbance and anxiety than he had known since first he sat in the temple of God, and lorded it over God's Church. That same God still lives—let none doubt it.† He will know how to bring to nothing the efforts of a Cardinal of Mentz, though he should be backed by four emperors—for it is His pleasure to bring down the lofty cedars, and humble the pride of the Pharaohs.

"For this cause I apprise your Highness, that, if the idol is not removed, it will be my duty, in obedience to God's teaching, publicly to rebuke your Highness, as I have done the pope himself. Let not your Highness neglect this notice. I shall wait fourteen days for an early and favourable answer. Given in my wilderness retreat, on Sunday after St. Catherine's day, 1521. Your Highness's devoted and humble, MARTIN LUTHER.

This letter was forwarded to Wittenberg, and from thence to Halle, where the Cardinal Elector was then resident; for no one dared venture to intercept it, foreseeing the storm such an act of audacity would have called forth. But Melancthon accompanied it by a letter to the prudent Capito, wherein he laboured to give a favourable turn to so untoward a step.

It is not possible to describe the feelings of the young and pusillanimous archbishop, on the receipt of the Reformer's letter. The forthcoming work against the *idol* of Halle was like a sword suspended over his head. And yet, what must have been, at the same time, the irritation produced by the insolence of the low-born and

excommunicated monk, who dared address such language to a prince of the house of Brandenburg, and a primate of the German Church. Capito besought the archbishop to comply with Luther's advice. Fear, pride, and conscience, which he could not stifle, struggled long in Albert's soul. At length, dread of the threatened writing, joined, perhaps, to a feeling of remorse, prevailed. He stooped to humble himself, and put together such an answer as seemed likely to appease the man of the Wartburg, and scarcely had the fourteen days expired, when Luther received the following letter, more surprising even than his own terrifying epistle.

"My dear Doctor—I have received and read your letter, and have taken it in good part, as being well intended; but I think the cause that induced you to write to me in such a strain, has, for a long time past, had no existence. It is my desire, by God's help, to comport myself as a pious bishop, and a Christian prince; and I confess that, for this, God's grace is necessary to me. I deny not that I am a sinful man, liable to sin, and apt to be led astray, and even sinning and going astray, every day of my life. I know that, without God's grace, I am but worthless and loathsome mire, like others; if not worse. In replying to your letter, I would not omit to express the favour I bear you; for it is my most earnest desire, for Christ's sake, to show you all kindness and favour. I know how to receive the rebuke of a Christian, and a brother. By my own hand. ALBERT.

Such was the strain in which the Elector-Archbishop of Mentz and Magdeburg, commissioned to represent and maintain, in Germany, the constitution of the Church, wrote to the excommunicated prisoner of the Wartburg! In thus replying, did Albert obey the better dictates of his conscience, or was he swayed by his fears? On the former supposition, it is a noble letter; on the latter, it is contemptible. We would rather suppose it to have proceeded from a right motive.—However that may be, it at least shows the vast superiority of the *servant of God* above the greatness of this world. While Luther, solitary, a captive, and under sentence, derived from his faith an unconquerable courage, the cardinal-archbishop, surrounded on all sides with the power and favour of the world, trembled in his chair. Again and again, does this reflection present itself, and it affords the solution of the strange enigma offered by the history of the Reformation. The Christian is not called to calculate his resources, and count the means of success. His one concern is to know that his cause is the cause of God;—and that he himself has no aim but his Master's glory. Doubtless, he has an inquiry to make, but it has reference only to his motives; the Christian looks in upon his heart—not upon his arm: he regards right—not strength. And that question once well settled—his path is clear. It is for him to go boldly forward, though the world and all its armies should withstand his progress; in the firm persuasion that God himself will fight against the opposers.

Thus did the enemies of the Reformation pass at once from the harshest measures to pitiable weakness: they had done this at Worms, and these sudden changes are continually recurring in the conflict between truth and error. Every cause destined to succumb, carries with it an internal *malaise*, which occasions it to stagger and fluctuate between opposite extremes. Steadiness of purpose and energy could not sanctify a bad cause, but they might serve at least to gild its fall with what the world calls glory.

Joachim I. Elector of Brandenburg, Albert's brother, was an example of that decision of character so rare in our times. Immoveable in his principles, de-

* Ut acerbiore tradat (ib. p. 110.) doubtless *radat*.

† Derselbig Gott lebet noch, da zweifel nur niemand an.

. . . L. Epp. ii. p. 113.

cisive in action, knowing when needful how to resist encroachments of the Pope, he opposed an iron hand to the progress of the Reformation. Long before this, when at Worms, he had urged that Luther should be refused a hearing, and brought to punishment, notwithstanding the safe-conduct with which he was furnished. Scarcely was the edict to Worms issued, when he directed that it should be rigorously enforced in his states. Luther could appreciate so decided a character, and, drawing a distinction in favour of Joachim, when, speaking of his other adversaries, remarked, "we may still pray for the elector of Brandenburg."* This disposition in the prince seemed to communicate itself to his people. Berlin and Brandenburg long continued closed to the reformed doctrines. But that which is slowly received, is firmly held; while countries, which then hailed the Gospel with joy, as Belgium and Westphalia, were ere long seen to abandon it; Brandenburg, which was the latest of the German states to enter on the way of faith was destined, at a later period, to stand foremost in the cause of the Reformation.†

Luther was not without suspicion that the Cardinal's letter was dictated by some insidious design suggested by Capito. He returned no answer; he declared to the latter, that so long as the Archbishop, unequal as he was to the care of a petty parish, should hold to his pretensions as Cardinal, and his episcopal state, instead of discharging the humble duty of a minister of the Gospel, he could not be in the way of salvation.‡ Meanwhile, and at the very time that Luther contended against error, as if he were still in the thick of the conflict, he was at work in his retirement as though regardless of all that was happening outside its walls. The time had arrived when the Reformation was to pass from the closest of divines, into the private life of nations; and, nevertheless, the great engine by which this advance was to be effected was not yet brought forth. This mighty and wonder-working engine, from whence a storm of missiles was to be discharged against Rome, battering down its walls, this engine, which was to upheave the burden under which the Papacy then held down the almost stifled Church, and to communicate to mankind an impulse which, ages after, would still be felt, was ordained to go forth from the old castle of the Wartburg, and enter, with the Reformer, on the world's stage on the same day that closed his captivity.

The further the Church was removed from the days in which Jesus, its true light, walked on this earth, the more did it need the candle of God's word to transmit to after times the unclouded knowledge of Jesus Christ. But that Divine Word was unknown to that age. Some fragments of translations from the Vulgate, made in 1477, 1490, and 1518, had been but coldly received, and were almost unintelligible, as well as from their high price, beyond the reach of the common people. The giving the Scriptures to the Church in Germany, in the vernacular tongue, had even been prohibited.§ Added to which, the number of those who could read, became considerable, only when there existed in the German language a book of strong and general interest.

Luther was ordained to present his nation with the written word. That same God who had relegated St. John in Patmos, that he might there write what he had seen, had shut up Luther in the Wartburg, that he

should there translate his Word. This great labour, which it would have been difficult for him to take in hand in the distracting occupations of Wittenberg, was to seat the new edifice on the solid rock, and, after the lapse of so many ages, recall Christians from scholastic subtleties to the pure and unadulterated fountains of redemption and salvation. The wants of the Church loudly called for this service, and Luther's deep experience had fitted him to render it. In truth, he had found in the faith, that rest for his own soul, which his fluctuating conscience and monkish prejudice had so long sought in merits and holiness of his own. The ordinary teaching of the Church, the theology of the schools knew nothing of the consolations which faith gives: but the Scriptures set them forth powerfully, and it was in the Scriptures that he had discovered them. Faith in God's word had given him liberty! By faith he felt himself freed from the dogmatic authority of Church, hierarchy, tradition, the notions of the schools, the power of prejudice, and commandments of men! These manifold bonds which had for ages chained down and silenced all Christendom, were burst asunder, and he could raise his head freed from all authority save that of the Word. This independence of man, this subjection to God, which he had learned in the Holy Scriptures, he was anxious to communicate to the Church. But for this purpose it was needful that he should give to it God's own Revelations. There was a necessity that some strong hand should unclothe the portals of that arsenal whence Luther had drawn his weapons, and that its recesses, which had for ages been unexplored, should be laid open to all Christian people against the day of trial.

Luther had, before this time, translated some fragments of the Holy Scripture. The seven penitential psalms* had first occupied his pen. John the Baptist—JESUS CHRIST—and the Reformation—alike commenced by calling men to repentance. It is, indeed, the principle of every regeneration in human nature. These earlier essays had been eagerly bought up, and had awakened a general demand for more; and this desire on the part of the people was by Luther regarded as a call from God. He resolved to meet it. He was a captive enclosed within lofty walls; but what of that; he would devote his leisure to render the Word of God into the language of his nation. Soon shall we see that Word descending with him from the Wartburg, circulating among the families of Germany and enriching them with spiritual treasure, that had hitherto been shut up within the hearts of a few pious persons. "Would that that book alone," he exclaimed, "were in all languages, before the eyes, in the ears, and in the hearts of all."† Admirable words, which a well-known society‡ engaged in translating the Bible into the vernacular dialect of every nation under heaven, has, after a lapse of three centuries, undertaken to realise. "Scripture," says he again, "Scripture without comment is the sun whence all teachers receive their light."

Such are the true principles of Christianity, and of the Reformation. Adopting these memorable words—We are not to seek light from the Fathers to interpret Scripture, but to use Scripture to interpret the writings of the Fathers—the Reformers, as also the Apostles, hold forth the Word of God alone as light, while they exalt the one offering of Christ as the only righteousness. To mingle commandments of men, with this supreme authority of God, or any righteousness

* Helwing, Gesch. der Brandeb. ii. p. 603.

† Hoc enim proprium est illorum (ex March. Brandenburg) ut quam semel in religione sententiam approbaverint, non facile desérant. (Leutingeri Opp. i. 41.)

‡ Larvam cardinalatus et pompam episcopalem ablegare. (L. Epp. ii. p. 132.)

§ Codex Diplom. Ecclesiæ Mogunt. iv. p. 460.

* Ps. 6, 32, 38, 51, 102, 130, 147.

† Et solus hic liber omnium lingua, manu, oculis, auribus, cordibus, versaretur. (L. Epp. ii. p. 116.)

‡ The Bible Society.

of man's own, with this perfect righteousness of Christ, is to corrupt the two great fundamental truths of the Gospel. Such were the two leading heresies of Rome; and the doctrines that certain teachers would introduce into the bosom of the Reformation, though not carried to such a length, have the same tendencies.

Luther, taking up the Greek originals of the inspired writers, entered upon the difficult task of rendering them into his native tongue. Important moment in the history of the Reformation! thenceforth, it was no longer in the hands of the Reformer. The Bible was brought forward—and Luther held a secondary place. God showed himself, and man was seen as nothing. The Reformer placed the Book in the hands of his contemporaries; thenceforward, each could hear God speaking to him—and, as for himself, he mingled in the crowd, placing himself among those who came to draw from the common fountain of light and life.

In translating the holy Scriptures, Luther had found that consolation and strength which met his need. Weak in body, solitary, depressed in spirit, by the machinations of his enemies, and sometimes by the indiscretion of his friends—and sensible that his life was wasting in the gloom of the old castle, he had, at times, to pass through awful struggles. In those days, men were much disposed to carry into the visible world the conflicts that the soul sustains with its spiritual enemies. Luther's vivid imagination easily gave bodily shape to the emotions of his soul, and the superstitions of the middle ages had still some hold upon his mind, so that it might be said of him, as was said of Calvin, in reference to his judgment in regard to heretics, that he had in him the remains of popery. To Luther, Satan was not simply an invisible, though really existing being; he thought that adversary of God was accustomed to appear in bodily form to man, as he had appeared to Jesus Christ. Although we may more than doubt the authenticity of the details given on such topics, in his Table-talk and elsewhere,* history must yet record this weakness in the Reformer. Never had these gloomy imaginations such power over him as in his seclusion in the Wartburg. At Worms, when in the days of his strength, he had braved the power of the devil; but now, that strength was broken, and his reputation tarnished. He was thrown aside; Satan had his turn; and, in bitterness of soul, Luther imagined he saw him rearing before him his gigantic form—lifting his finger, as if threatening, grinning triumphantly, and grinding his teeth in fearful rage. One day, in particular, as it is reported, while Luther was engaged in translating the New Testament, he thought he saw Satan, in detestation of his work, tormenting and vexing him, and moving round him, like a lion, ready to spring upon his prey. Luther, alarmed and aroused, snatching up his inkstand, threw it at the head of his enemy. The apparition vanished, and the ink-bottle was dashed to pieces against the wall.†

His stay at the Wartburg began now to be insupportable to him. He was indignant at the timidity of his protectors. Sometimes he remained all day, lost in silent and deep meditation, and, awakening from it, he would utter the exclamation—"Ah! would I were at Wittenberg!" At length he could no longer restrain himself: "enough!" he thought, "enough of policy." He must again see his friends—hear from their lips how things were going on, and talk over all with them. True, he risked falling into the power of his enemies; but nothing could deter him. Toward

the end of November he secretly quitted the Wartburg, and set out for Wittenberg.*

A storm had just then burst forth against him. The Sorbonne had at length spoken out. This celebrated school of Paris—next in authority, in the church, to the pope himself—the ancient and venerable source whence theological teaching had gone forth, had just issued its verdict against the Reformation. The following were among the propositions it condemned: Luther had said, "God ever pardons sin freely, and requires nothing from us in return, save that, for the time to come, we live according to righteousness." He had added: "The most mortal of all mortal sins, is this—to wit, that a man should think that he is not guilty of damnable and mortal sin in the sight of God." He had also declared, that the practice of burning heretics was contrary to the will of the Holy Ghost. To these several propositions, as well as to many others which it quoted, the Faculty of Theology, in Paris, had replied by the word, "Heresy, let it be accursed."‡

But there was a youth, a stripling of twenty-four years of age, of diffident and retiring manners, who ventured to take up the gauntlet that the first college in Europe had thrown down. It was no secret at Wittenberg, what was to be thought of those lofty censures; it was known that Rome had allowed free course to the machinations of the Dominicans, and that the Sorbonne had been misled by the influence of two or three fanatical teachers, who were designated in Paris by satirical nicknames.‡ Accordingly, in his apology, Melancthon did not confine himself to defending Luther, but, with the fearlessness which characterises his writings, he carried the war into his adversaries' camp. "You say 'he is a Manichean,' 'he is a Montanist;' you call for fire and faggot to repress his madness. And who, I pray you, is Montanist? Luther, who would have men believe Scripture only, or yourselves, who would claim belief for the thoughts of men rather than for the Word of God?"§

And truly, the attaching more importance to man's teaching than to God's word, was, in substance, the heresy of Montanus, as it is the real character of that of the pope, and, indeed, of all who rank church authority, or mystical impulses, above the plain words of the Sacred Writings. Accordingly, the young master of arts, who had been heard to say—"I would rather die than relinquish the faith of the Gospel!"—did not stop there. He charged the doctors of the Sorbonne with having darkened the light of the Gospel, put out the doctrine of Faith, and substituted a vain philosophy in place of true Christianity.¶ The publication of this writing of Melancthon changed the position of the parties. He proved, unanswerably, that the heresy was in Paris, and in Rome, and the Catholic truth at Wittenberg.

All this while, Luther, little regarding the censures of the Sorbonne, was journeying in his disguise as a knight toward the university city. Various rumours reached him in his journey, of a spirit of impatience and insubordination having manifested itself among certain of his adherents.** He was deeply grieved at

* Machete er sich heimlich aus seiner Patmo auf. (L. Opp. xviii. 235.)

† Determinatio theologorum Parisiensium super doctrina Lutherana. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 366 to 398.)

‡ Damnarunt triumviri Beda, Quercus, et Christophorus. Nomina sunt horum monstrorum etiam vulgo nunc nota Be-lua, Stereus, Christotomus. (Zwinglii Epp. i. p. 176.)

§ Corp. Ref. i. p. 396.)

¶ Scias me positurum animam citius quam fidem. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 396.)

¶ Evangelium obscuratum est . . . fides extincta . . . Ex Christianismo, contra omnem sensum spiritus, facta est quedam philosophica vivendi ratio. (Ibid. p. 400.)

** Per viam vexatus rumore vario de nostrorum quorundam importunitate. (L. Epp. ii. p. 109.)

* M. Michelet, in his memoirs of Luther, devotes no less than thirty pages to the various accounts of this incident.

† The keeper of the Wartburg regularly points out to travellers, the mark made by Luther's inkstand.

it.* At last he arrived at Wittenberg, without having been recognized on the road thither, and stopped at the door of Amsdorff. Immediately his friends were secretly called together. Among the first was Melancthon, who had so often said, "I would rather die than be separated from him."† They met. What an interview! what joy! The captive of the Wartburg, surrounded by his friends, enjoyed the sweets of Christian friendship. He learned the spread of the Reformation—the hopes of his brethren—and, delighted with what he saw and heard,‡ he kneeled down and prayed, gave thanks, and then, with brief delay, set forth, and returned to the Wartburg.

His joy was well founded. The work of the Reformation made, just then, a prodigious advance. Feldkirchen, ever in the van, had mounted the breach; the whole body of those who held the new doctrines were in motion, and the energy which carried the Reformation from the range of teaching into the public worship, to private life, and the constitution of the church, revealed itself by another explosion—more threatening to the papal power than that which had already happened.

Rome, having rid herself of the Reformer, thought she had extinguished the new heresy; but it was not long before a great change took place. Death removed the pontiff who had put Luther under ban. Troubles broke out in Spain, and compelled Charles V. to recross the Pyrenees. War was declared between that prince and Francis the First; and, (as if this were not enough to engross the emperor's attention,) Soliman invaded Hungary. Charles, thus attacked on all sides, found himself compelled to leave unmolested the monk of Worms, and his religious novelties.

It was about this time, that the bark of the reformed faith, which, driven in every direction by the winds, had been well-nigh swamped, righted itself, and rode above the waters.

It was in the convent of the Augustines, at Wittenberg, that the Reformation showed itself. We cannot wonder at this. The Reformer, it is true, was not within its walls, but no human power could expel from it the spirit that had animated him.

Strange doctrines had, for some time, been occasionally heard in the church where Luther had so often preached. A zealous monk, who filled the office of college preacher, loudly urged on his hearers the necessity of a Reformation. As if Luther, whose name was on every one's lips, had reached too commanding an elevation and esteem, God seemed to be making choice of men, no way known for any strength of character or influence, to bring in the Reformation, for which the renowned doctor had opened a way. "Christ," said the preacher, "instituted the Sacrament of the Altar, in remembrance of his death, and not to make it an object of worship. To bow down to it is idolatry. The priest who communicates alone, or in private, is guilty of a sin. No prior has the right to require a monk to say mass alone. Let one, two, or three, officiate, and all the rest receive the Lord's Sacrament under both kinds."§

Such was the change called for by the monk, Gabriel; and his bold words were heard with approbation by his brother monks, particularly those who came from the

Low Countries.* As disciples of the Gospel, why should they not conform, in everything, to its directions? Had not Luther himself, in writing to Melancthon, in the month of August, remarked—"Henceforth, I will say no more private masses?"† Thus, the friars, the very soldiers of the hierarchy, when made free by the Word of God, boldly took part against Rome.

In Wittenberg, they encountered an unbending resistance from the prior, and here they yielded—at the same time protesting, that to support the mass, was to oppose the Gospel of God.

The prior had carried the day. One man's authority had prevailed over all the rest. It might have been thought that this stir among the Augustines was but a capricious act of insubordination, such as was often occurring in the convents; but, in reality, the Spirit of God itself was then moving Christian hearts. A single voice, proceeding from the seclusion of a monastery, found a thousand echoes; and that which men would have confined to the knowledge of the inhabitants of the convent, spread beyond its walls, and began to show itself in the heart of the city.

Rumours of the differences among the monks were soon circulated in the town: the burghers and students sided, some with, and others against, the mass. The elector's court interposed. Frederic, in some surprise, despatched his Chancellor, Pontanus, to Wittenberg, with orders to reduce the monks to obedience, putting them, if necessary, upon bread and water; and, on the 12th of October, a deputation of professors, among whom was Melancthon, repairing to the convent, exhorted the monks to desist from all innovations,§ or, at least to wait the course of events. This did but rekindle their zeal; and all, with exception of their prior, being of one mind in their faith, they appealed to Scripture, to the spiritual discernment of believers, and to the impartial judgment of divines—and two days after, handed in a declaration in writing.

The professors proceeded to examine the question more closely, and perceived that the monks had truth on their side. Having come to convince others, they were convinced themselves! What was to be done? Conscience pleaded—their perplexity was continually increasing; and, at last, after long hesitation, they came to a courageous decision.

On the 20th of October, the University reported to the elector, after setting forth the abuses of the mass: "Let your Electoral Highness," said they, "put an end to all corruptions; lest, in the day of judgment, Christ should apply to us the rebukes he once pronounced upon Capernaum."

Thus it was no longer a handful of obscure monks who spoke—it was the University, accredited by the most judicious, as having, for years past, been the great school of national instruction: and thus, the very agency employed to quell the spirit of the Reformation, was about to diffuse it far and wide.

Melancthon, with that decision which he carried into learning, put forth fifty-five propositions calculated to enlighten the minds of enquirers.

"Just," said he, as gazing on a cross is no good work, but the bare contemplation of a sign that reminds us of Christ's death."

"Just as to behold the sun is not to do any good work, but merely to look upon that which reminds us of Christ and his Gospel."

"So, to partake of the Lord's Supper, is not to do a good work, but merely to make use of a sign which

* *Dermeiste Theil jener Parthæi Niederländer seyn. Ib. 476.*
† *Sed et ego amplius non faciam missam privatim in æternum. L. Epp. ii. p. 36.*

‡ *Wollen die Mönche nicht Mess halten, sie werden's bald in der Küchen und keller empfinden. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 461.)*

§ *Mit dem Messhalten keine Neuerung machen. (Ibid.)*

* *Liess in der stille seine Freunde fodern. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 238.)*

† *Quo si mihi carendum est, mortium fortius tulero. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 463—465.)*

‡ *Omnia vehementer placent quæ video et audio. (L. Epp. ii. p. 109.)*

§ *Einem 2 oder 3 leßlichen Mess zu halten und die andern 12 von denen das Sacrament sub utraque specie mit empfahen. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 460.)*

recalls to remembrance the grace bestowed upon us through Christ."

"But here is the difference; namely, that the symbols invented by men do *only* remind us of what they signify—while the signs given by God, not merely recall the things themselves, but assure our hearts in the will of God."

"As the sight of a cross does not justify, so the mass cannot justify."

"As the gazing on a cross is no sacrifice for our own or others' sins, just so the mass is no sacrifice."

"There is but one sacrifice—but one satisfaction—Jesus Christ. Beside him there is none other."

"Let such bishops as do not withstand the profanations of the mass, be anathema!"*

Thus spake the pious and gentle-spirited Philip.

The Elector was astounded. His intention had been to restore order among a few refractory friars, and lo! the entire University, with Melancthon at their head, stand up to defend them. To wait the course of events was, ordinarily, in his view, the most eligible course. He had no relish for abrupt changes, and it was his wish that all opinions should be left to work their own way. "Time alone," thought he, "throws light upon all things, and brings all to maturity." And yet the Reformation was advancing, in spite of all his caution, with rapid strides, and threatened to carry all before it. Frederic made indeed some efforts to arrest it. His authority—the influence of his personal character—and such arguments as appeared to him most conclusive, were all called into exercise: "Do not be hasty," said he, to the divines, "you are too few in number to effect such a change. If it is well founded in Scripture, others will be led to see it, and you will have the whole Church with you in putting an end to these corruptions. Speak of these things—discuss and preach them as much as you will, but keep up the established services."

Such was the war waged relative to the mass. The monks had boldly mounted to the assault—the divines, after a moment of indecision, had supported them.—The prince and his counsellors alone defended the citadel. It has been said, that the Reformation was brought about by the power and authority of the elector; but, so far from this being the case, we see the assailants drawing off their forces, in deference to the voice of the revered Frederic, and the mass, for a while, continuing to hold its place.

The heat of battle was already beginning to rage in another part of the field. The monk, Gabriel, did not relax in his fervid appeals from the pulpit of the Augustines. It was against the condition of monkery itself he now dealt his powerful strokes; and, if the strength of Romish doctrines was principally in the mass, the monastic order formed the main support of her priestly hierarchy. Hence, these two posts were the first to be stormed. "No one," exclaimed Gabriel, according to the prior's report, "not even a single inmate of a convent, keeps God's commandments."

"No one who wears a cowl can be saved.† Whoso enters a cloister, enters into the service of the Devil. Vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience to a superior, are contrary to the spirit of the Gospel."

These strange expressions were reported to the prior, who took care not to be present in church to hear them.

"Gabriel," said his informants, "Gabriel insists that every possible means should be taken to clear out the

cloisters; that, when the friars are met in the street, they should be twitched by the cloak, and pointed out to ridicule; and that, if that does not rout them from their convent, they should be expelled by main force. He cries, 'break open the monasteries, destroy them, raze them to their foundations, that no trace of them may remain, and that, on the ground they cover, not one stone may be left of walls that have sheltered such sloth and superstition.'"

The friars were astonished; their consciences whisped that the charge brought against them was but too true:—that the life of a monk was not agreeable to the will of God:—and that no man could have a claim to their implicit and unlimited obedience.

In one day, thirteen Augustine monks quitted the convent, and, throwing aside the habit of their order, assumed the dress of the laity. Such of them as had the advantage of instruction continued their course of study, in the hope of being one day useful to the Church; and such as had profited little by study, sought a livelihood by working with their own hands, according to the precept of the Apostle, and after the example of the worthy burghers of Wittenberg.‡ One, who had some knowledge of carpentry, applied for the freedom of the city, resolving to marry and settle.

If Luther's entrance into the convent of the Augustines, at Erfurth, had laid the seeds of the Reformation, the departure of the thirteen monks from the convent of the Augustines of Wittenberg was the signal of its taking possession of the nations of Christendom. For a period of thirty years, Erasmus had exposed the unprofitableness, fatuity, and vices, of the friars; and all Europe had gone with him in his ridicule and contempt. Thirteen men of resolute character returned to their place in society:—and there, in service to their fellow men, sought to fulfil God's commandments. The marriage of Feldkirchen was one of humiliation to the hierarchy:—the emancipation of these thirteen Augustines followed close upon it, as a second. Monkery, which had established itself in the day when the Church entered on her long period of bondage and error, was doomed to fall whenever the time came which should restore liberty and truth.

This bold step occasioned a general ferment in Wittenberg. All marvelled at the men who thus came forward to share the labours of the common people, and welcomed them as brethren:—at the same time, cries were heard against those who obstinately clung to their indolent seclusion within the walls of their monastery. The monks, who adhered to the prior, trembled in their cells, and the prior himself, carried away by the general feeling, suspended the performance of private masses.

In a moment so critical, the least concession necessarily precipitated the course of events. The order issued by the Prior caused a strong sensation in the town and in the University, and produced an unforeseen explosion. Among the students and burghers of Wittenberg, were some of those turbulent spirits whom the least excitement inflames, and urges to criminal excesses. These men were indignant that the same masses, which were suspended by the devout Prior, should still be performed in the parish church; and on the 3d December, as mass was about to be chaunted, they suddenly made their way to the altar, bore off the books, and compelled the officiating priests to seek safety in flight. The Council and the University assembled to take severe measures against the authors of these disturbances. But the passions, once roused,

* Signa ab hominibus reperta admonent tantum; signa a Deo tradita, præterquam quod admonent, certificant etiam cor de voluntate Dei. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 478.)

† Kein monch verde in der Kappe selig. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 433.)

* Dass man nicht oben Stück von ernem Kloster da sey gestanden, merken möge. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 483.)

† "Etliche unter den Bürgern, etliche unter den Studenten," said the prior, in his address to the elector. (Ibid.)

are not easily calmed. The Cordeliers had taken no part in the Reformation that had begun to show itself among the Augustines. Next day the students affixed to the gates of their monastery a threatening placard. Soon after, forty of their number forced their way into the chapel, and without, proceeding to violence, gave such free expression to their ridicule, that the monks dared not proceed with the mass. In the evening, notice came advising the friars to be on their guard. "The students," it was said, "have planned to break into the monastery." The monks in alarm, and seeing no way of defence against these real or supposed attacks, sent in haste to ask protection of the Council. Soldiers were placed on guard, but the enemy did not make his appearance. The University arrested the students who had taken part in these disturbances. They were found to be from Erfurth, and already noted for their insubordination.* The penalty annexed to their offence by the laws of the University was imposed upon them.

Nevertheless, it was felt that a necessity had arisen for a careful examination of the lawfulness of monastic vows.† A chapter composed of the Augustine monks of Thuringen and Misnia, assembled at Wittenberg in December following. Luther's judgment was acquiesced in. They declared, on the one hand, that monastic vows were not sinful, but, on the other hand, that they were not obligatory. "In Christ," said they, "there is neither laymen nor monk—each one is free to leave the monastery or to abide in it. Let whoever leaves it, beware how he abuses his liberty; let him who abides in it, obey his superiors—but with the obedience of love;" and they proceeded to prohibit mendicity, and the saying masses for money; they also determined that the more instructed monks should devote themselves to teaching the word of God, and that the rest should labour with their own hands for the support of their brethren.‡

Thus the question of Vows seemed to be settled, but that of the Mass was still undecided. The Elector continued to oppose the stream, and to defend an institution which he saw still standing in every nation where Christianity was professed. The moderation of this mild sovereign could not, however, for any length of time, hold in the public mind. Carlstadt, above all, took part in the general ferment. Zealous, upright, and fearless; prompt, like Luther, to sacrifice everything for the truth; he had not the Reformer's wisdom and moderation: he was not free from vanity; and with a disposition that led him to go deeply into every question, he yet had but little power of judgment and no great clearness of ideas. Luther had delivered him from the teaching of the schools, and had led him to study the Scriptures; but Carlstadt had not had patience to acquire a knowledge of the original languages, and had not, as his friend had done, acknowledged the sufficiency of God's word. Hence he was often taken up with singular interpretations. As long as Luther was at his side, the influence of the master restrained the disciple within due bounds; but Carlstadt was freed from this wholesome restraint. In the university—in the chapel—throughout Wittenberg—the little tawny-complexioned Carlstadt, who had never excelled in eloquence, gave utterance to thoughts, at times, profound, but often enthusiastic and exaggerated. "What infatuated folly!" he exclaimed, "for men to think that the Reformation must be left to God's working. A new order of things is opening. The strength of man must be brought in, and woe to

him who shall hold back instead of mounting the breach in the cause of the mighty God!"

The Archdeacon's speech communicated his own impatience to his auditory. "Whatever the Pope has set up is impious," exclaimed some men of sincere and upright minds, under the influence of his harangues. "Let us not make ourselves accomplices in these abominations by allowing them to exist. That which God's word condemns ought to be swept from the face of Christendom, without regarding the commandments of men. If the heads of the state and of the church will not do their duty, let us at least do ours. Let us leave thinking of negotiation, conferences, theses, and discussions, and let us apply the true remedy to so many evils. We want a second Elijah to throw down the altars of Baal!"

The restoration of the Supper of the Lord, in this moment of ferment and enthusiastic excitement, could not, doubtless, wear that character of solemnity and sacredness which was given to it by the Son of God in his institution of it "the night that he was betrayed." But if God was now using the weakness and passions of men, it was not the less His own hand which was engaged in re-establishing in the midst of His church the feast of His own love.

As early as the October previous, Carlstadt had privately celebrated the Lord's Supper according to Christ's appointment, with twelve of his friends. On the Sunday before Christmas Day, he announced from the pulpit that, on New Year's Day, he would distribute the elements under the two kinds bread and wine to all who should come to the altar; that he intended to omit all unnecessary ceremonies,* and should perform the service without cope or chasuble.

The Council, in perturbation, requested the counsellor Bergen to interfere, and prevent so disorderly a proceeding, whereupon Carlstadt resolved not to wait the time fixed. On Christmas Day, 1521, he preached, in the parochial church, on the duty of abandoning the mass, and receiving the sacrament under both kinds. The sermon being ended, he came down, took his place at the altar, and after pronouncing, in German, the words of institution, said solemnly, turning toward the people—"If any one feels the burthen of his sins, and is hungering and thirsting for the grace of God, let him draw near, and receive the body and blood of the Lord."‡ Then, without elevating the host, he distributed to each one the bread, and wine, saying, "This is the cup of my blood, the blood of the new and everlasting covenant."

Conflicting feelings reigned in the assembly. Some, in the sense that a further grace of God was given to the church, drew near the altar in silent emotion. Others, attracted principally by the novelty of the occasion, approached in some confusion, and with a kind of impatience. Not more than five communicants had presented themselves in the confessional—the rest took part only in the public confession of sins. Carlstadt gave to all the general absolution, laying upon them no other penance than this—"Sin no more."—In conclusion, the communicants sang the *Agnus Dei*.§

Carlstadt met with no opposition. The changes we are narrating had already obtained general concurrence. The archdeacon administered the Lord's supper again on New-year's day, and also on the Sunday following, and, from that time, the regular observance of it was kept up. Einsiedeln, one of the elector's

* Und die anderen Schirymstege alle aussen lassen. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 612.)

† Wer mit Sünden beschwert und nach der Gnade Gottes hungirt und durstigt. (Ibid. p. 610.)

‡ Wenn man communicirt hat, so singt man: *Agnus Dei* carmen. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 640.)

* In summa es sollen die Aufbruch eliche Studenten von Erfurth erwerckt haben. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 490.)

† Corp. Ref. i. p. 458.—The editors assign to this decree the date of October, before the monks had forsaken their convent.

council, having rebuked Carlstadt for seeking his own exaltation, rather than the salvation of his hearers:—"Noble sir!" answered he, "I would meet death in any form, rather than desist from following the Scripture. The word has come to me so quick and powerful . . . woe is me if I do not preach."* Soon after this, Carlstadt married.

In the month of January, the town-council of Wittenberg issued regulations for the celebration of the Supper, according to the amended ritual. Steps were also taken to restore the influence of religion upon public morals; for it was the office of the Reformation to re-establish, simultaneously, faith, Christian worship, and general morality. It was decreed that public beggars should be no longer tolerated, whether friars or others; and that in each street, some man, well-reported of for piety, should be commissioned to take care of the poor, and to summon before the university or the council such as were guilty of disorders.†

So fell that grand bulwark of Romish dominion—the mass. Thus it was that the Reformation passed beyond the sphere of teaching, into that of public worship. For three centuries, the mass and the doctrine of transubstantiation, had been regularly established.‡ Throughout that long period, all things within the church had a new tendency impressed upon them, and everything conspired to favour the pride of man, and the honour paid to the priest. The holy sacrament had been adored—regular festivals had been instituted in honour of the most stupendous of miracles—the worship of Mary had risen high in the scale of public estimation—the priest, who, in the consecration of the elements, was supposed to receive mysterious power to change them into the very body of Christ, had been separated from the class of laity, and, to use the words of Thomas Aquinas, had become a 'mediator between God and man' §—celibacy had been proclaimed as an inviolable law—auricular confession was enforced upon the people, and the cup of blessing denied them—for how, indeed, should common people be ranged on the same line with priests, honoured with the most solemn of all ministrations? The mass cast reproach upon the Son of God; it was opposed to the perfect remission through his cross, and the spotless glory of his everlasting kingdom. But whilst it disparaged the glory of the Lord, it exalted the priest—whom it invested with the inconceivable power of reproducing, in hand, and at will, the Sovereign Creator of all things!! Thenceforward the church seemed to exist—not to preach the Gospel, but only to reproduce Christ in the flesh! The Roman pontiff, whose obedient vassals, at their pleasure, created the body of God himself—took his seat as God, in the temple of God, and asserted his claim to a spiritual treasury, from whence to draw forth, at will, indulgences for the pardon of men's sins.

Such were the gross errors which, for a period of three centuries, had established themselves in the church, in connection with the mass. The Reformation, by abolishing this thing of man's setting up, swept away all the abuses blended with it. The proceeding of the archdeacon was, therefore, full of important results. The costly shows that amused the people, the worship of the Virgin, the pride of the clergy, and the papal authority, were all shaken. The

glory was withdrawn from the priests, and returned to rest on Jesus—and the Reformation advanced a step farther.

Nevertheless, prejudiced observers might have seen nothing in all that was going on, but what might be deemed the effect of passing enthusiasm. Facts were needed, that should give proof of the contrary, and demonstrate that there was a deep and broad distinction between a Reformation based on God's word and any mere fanatical excitement.

Whenever a great ferment is working in the church, some impure elements are sure to mingle with the testimony given to truth; and some one or more pretended reforms arise out of man's imagination, and serve as evidences or countersigns of some *real* reformation in progress. Thus, many false messiahs, in the first century of the church, were an evidence that the true Messiah had already come. The Reformation of the sixteenth century could not run its course without presenting the like phenomenon, and it was first exhibited in the little village of Zwickau.

There were dwelling at Zwickau a few men who, being deeply moved by the events passing around them, looked for special and direct revelations from the Deity, instead of desiring, in meekness and simplicity, the sanctification of their affections. These persons asserted that they were commissioned to complete that Reformation which, in their view, Luther had but feebly begun. "What is the use," asked they, "of such close application to the Bible? Nothing is heard of but the Bible. Can the Bible preach to us! Can it suffice for our instruction? If God had intended to instruct us by a book, would he not have given us a Bible direct from heaven? It is only the Spirit that can enlighten. God himself speaks to us, and shows us what to do and say." Thus did these fanatics, playing into the hands of Rome, impugn the fundamental principle on which the whole Reformation is based—namely, the perfect sufficiency of the Word of God.

Nicolas Storch, a weaver, publicly declared that the angel Gabriel had appeared to him by night, and, after revealing to him matters he was not allowed to divulge, had uttered the words: "Thou shalt sit on my throne."* A senior student of Wittenberg, named Mark Stubner, joined Storch, and forthwith abandoned his studies—for, according to his own statement, he had received, immediately from God, the ability to interpret holy Scripture. Mark Thomas, also a weaver, associated himself with them; and another of the initiated, by name Thomas Munzer, a man of fanatical turn of mind, gave to the new sect a regular organization. Resolving to act according to the example of Christ, Storch chose, from among his followers, twelve apostles and seventy disciples. All these loudly proclaimed, as we have lately heard it asserted by a sect of our own days, that apostles and prophets were at last restored to the church.†

Ere long the new prophets, in accordance with this plan of adhering to the example of those of holy writ, began to declare their mission. "Woe! woe!" they exclaimed, "a church under human governors, corrupted like the bishops, cannot be the church of Christ. The ungodly rulers of Christendom will soon be cast down. In five, six, or seven years, a time of universal desolation will come upon the earth. The Turk will get possession of Germany; the clergy, not even excepting those who have married, shall be slain. The ungodly sinners shall all be destroyed; and when the earth shall have been purified by blood,

* Mir ist das Wort fast in grosser Geschwindigkeit eingefallen. (Ibid. p. 545.)

† Keinen offenkundigen Sunder zu dulden . . . (Ibid. p. 540.)

‡ By the Council of Lateran, in 1215.

§ Sacerdotes constituitur medius inter Deum et populum.

(Th. Aquin. Summa iii. p. 22.)

¶ Perfectio hujus sacramenti non est in usu fidelium, sed

in consecratione materis. (Th. Aquin. Summa, Quest. 80.)

* Advolaase Gabrieleum Angelum. (Camerarii Vita Melancthonis, p. 48.)

† Breviter, de sese pradicant, viros esse propheticos et apostolicos. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 514.)

supreme power shall be given to Storch, to install the saints in the government of the earth.* Then shall there be one faith and one baptism! The day of the Lord draweth nigh, and the end of all things is at hand: Woe! woe! woe!" Then, publicly declaring that infant baptism was of no avail, the new prophets called upon all to draw near, and receive at their hands a true baptism, in token of their entrance into the new church of God.

Such preaching made a deep impression on the popular mind. Not a few devout persons were startled by the thought that prophets were again given to the church, and those on whom the love of the marvellous had most power, threw themselves into the open arms of the eccentric preachers of Zwickau.

But scarcely had this heresy, which had shown itself of old in the days of Montanism, and again in the middle ages, drawn together a handful of separatists, when it encountered, in the Reformation, a strong opposing power. Nicolas Haussman, to whom Luther gave that noble testimony, "*What we teach, he acts,*"† was at this time pastor of Zwickau. This good man was not led away by the pretensions of the false prophets. Supported by his two deacons, he successfully resisted the innovations Storch and his followers were seeking to introduce. The fanatics, repelled by the pastors of the church, fell into another extravagance; they formed meetings, in which doctrines subversive of order were publicly preached. The people caught the infection, and disturbances were the consequence. A priest, bearing the sacrament, was pelted with stones;‡ and the civil authority interfering committed the most violent of the party to prison.§ Indignant at this treatment, and intent upon justifying themselves, and obtaining redress, Storch, Mark Thomas, and Stubner, repaired to Wittenberg.||

They arrived on the 27th December, 1521. Storch, heading the way, with the port and bearing of a Lanzknecht,¶ and Mark Thomas and Stubner following behind. The disorder that reigned in Wittenberg was favourable to their designs. The youth of the academies, and the class of citizens already roused and excited, were well prepared to give ear to the new teachers.

Making sure of co-operation, they waited upon the university professors, to receive their sanction: "We," said they, "are sent by God to teach the people. The Lord has favoured us with special communications from Himself. We have the knowledge of things which are coming upon the earth.** In a word, we are apostles and prophets, and we appeal, for the truth of what we say, to Doctor Luther." The professors were amazed.

"Who commissioned you to preach?" inquired Melancthon, of Stubner, who had formerly studied under him, and whom he now received at his table. "The Lord our God." "Have you committed anything to writing?" "The Lord our God has forbidden me to do so." Melancthon drew back, alarmed and astonished.

"There are, indeed, spirits of no ordinary kind in these men," said he, "but *what* spirits? . . . none but Luther can solve the doubt. On the one hand, let us

beware of quenching the spirit of God, and, on the other, of being seduced by the spirit of the devil."

Storch, who was of a restless disposition, soon left Wittenberg; Stubner remained behind. Actuated by an ardent desire to make proselytes, he went from house to house, conversing with one and another, and persuading many to acknowledge him as a prophet of God. He especially attached himself to Cellarius, a Suabian, a friend of Melancthon, and master of a school attended by a considerable number of young persons. Cellarius admitted, with blind confidence, the claims of the new apostles.

Melancthon's perplexity and uneasiness continued to increase. It was not so much the visions of the prophets of Zwickau, as their doctrine concerning baptism, that disturbed him. To him it seemed agreeable to reason, and he thought it deserved to be examined into, "for," observed he, "nothing should be lightly received or rejected."*

Such was the spirit of the Reformation. In this hesitation and struggle of Melancthon, we have an evidence of his uprightness, which does him more honour than a determined opposition could have done.

The elector himself, whom Melancthon termed the "light of Israel,"† had his doubts. "Prophets and apostles in the electorate of Saxony, as of old time in Jerusalem! It is a solemn question," said he, "and, as a layman, I cannot decide it. But rather than fight against God, I would take to my staff, and descend from my throne."

On reflection, he intimated by his counsellors, that Wittenberg had quite sufficient trouble in hand. That it was most likely the claims of the men of Zwickau, were a temptation of the devil, and that the wisest course appeared to be, to allow the whole matter to settle down; that, nevertheless, whenever his highness should clearly perceive what was God's will, he would not confer with flesh and blood, but was ready to endure everything in the cause of truth.‡

Luther received, in the Wartburg, intelligence of the ferment at the court of Wittenberg. His informants apprised him of strange persons having made their appearance, and that, as to their message, it was not known from whence it came. The thought instantly occurred to him, that God had permitted these deplorable events in order to humble his servants, and to rouse them to seek higher degrees of sanctification. "Your Highness," said he, in a letter to the elector, "your Highness, for many a year, collected relics far and wide; God has heard your prayers, and sent you, at no cost or trouble of your own, a whole cross, with nails, spears, and scourges. God prosper the newly-acquired relic! Only let your Highness spread out your arms, and endure the piercing of the nails in your flesh. I always expected that Satan would send us this plague."

Nevertheless, there was nothing, according to his judgment, more urgent than to secure to others the liberty he claimed for himself. He would have no divers weights or measures. "Pray let them alone," don't imprison them," wrote he to Spalatin; let not our prince imbrue his hands in the blood of the prophets that have risen up."§ Luther was far beyond the age in which he lived, and even beyond many of the Reformers in the matter of toleration.

Affairs were daily growing more serious in Wittenberg.||

* Censebat enim neque admittendum neque rejiciendum quicquam temere. (Camer. Vit. Mel. p. 49.)

† Electori lucernæ Israel. (Ibid. p. 513.)

‡ Daruber auch leiden was S.C. G. leiden sollit. (Ibid. p. 537.)

§ Ne princeps manus cruentet in prophetis. (L. Epp. ii. p. 136.)

|| Ubi fiebant omnia in dies difficiliora. (Camer. Vit. Mel. p. 49.)

* Ut Rerum potius et instaret sacra et respublicas tradat sanctis viris tenendas. (Camerar. Vit. Mel. p. 45.)

† Quod nos docemus, ille facit.

‡ Einen Priester der das Venerabile getragen mit Steinen geworfen. (Seck. p. 482.)

§ Sunt et illic in vincula coniecti. (Mel. Corp. Ref. i. p. 513.)

¶ Huc advolarunt tres viri, duo ianifices, literarum rudes, literatus tertius est. (Mel. Corp. Ref. i. p. 513.)

§ Incidens more et habitu militum istorum quos Lanzknecht dicimus. (L. Epp. ii. p. 245.)

** Esse sibi cum Deo familiaria colloquia, videre futura . . . (Mel. Electori, 27th Dec. 1521. Corp. Ref. i. p. 514.)

Carlstadt did not receive many things taught by the new teachers, and especially their anabaptist doctrine; but there is something contagious in religious enthusiasm, which a head like his could with difficulty withstand. From the time the men of Zwickau arrived in Wittenberg, Carlstadt had accelerated his movements in the direction of violent changes: "It is become necessary," cried he, "that we should exterminate all the ungodly practices around us.* He brought forward all the texts against image-worship, and with increased vehemence declaimed against Romish idolatry: "People kneel," said he "and crawl before those idols; burn tapers before their shrines, and make offerings to them. Let us arise, and drag the worshippers from their altars!"

Such appeals were not lost upon the populace. They broke into churches, carried off the images, breaking them in pieces, and burning them.† Better would it have been to have awaited their abolition by authority; but the cautious advances of the leaders of the Reformation, were thought to compromise its security.

It was not long before one who listened to these enthusiasts, might have thought that there were no real Christians in all Wittenberg, save only those who refused to come to confession, persecuted the priests, and ate meat on fast days. The bare suspicion that he did not reject, one and all, the ceremonies of the Church as inventions of the devil, was enough to subject a man to the charge of being a worshipper of Baal. "We must form a church," they exclaimed, that shall consist of the saints alone!"

The burghers of Wittenberg presented to the Council certain regulations which it was compelled to sanction. Several of these regulations were conformable to Christian morals. The closing of places of amusement was particularly insisted upon.

But soon after this, Carlstadt went still greater lengths; he began to pour contempt upon human learning; and the students heard their aged tutor advising them, from his rostrum, to return to their homes, and resume the spade, or follow the plough, and cultivate the earth, because man was to eat bread in the sweat of his brow! George Mohr, master of the boys' school of Wittenberg, carried away by a similar madness, called from his window, to the burghers outside, to come and remove their children. "Where, indeed, was the use of their pursuing their studies, since Storch and Stubner had never been at the University, and yet were prophets! A mechanic was just as well, nay, perhaps, better qualified than all the divines in the world, to preach the Gospel!"

Thus it was, that doctrines were put forth directly opposed to the Reformation. The revival of letters had opened a way for the reformed opinions. Furnished with theological learning, Luther had joined issue with Rome:—and the Wittenberg enthusiasts, similar to those fanatical monks exposed by Erasmus and Reuchlin, pretended to trample under foot all human learning! Only let Vandalism once establish its sway, and the hopes of the world were gone; and another irruption of barbarians would quench the light which God had kindled among Christian people.

It was not long before the results of these strange lessons began to show themselves. Men's minds were diverted from the Gospel, or prejudiced against it:—the school was almost broken up, the demoralised students burst the bands of discipline, and the states of Germany recalled such as belonged to their several

jurisdictions.* Thus the men who aimed at reforming, and infusing new vigour into everything, had brought all to the brink of ruin. "One more effort," thought the partisans of Rome, who, on all sides, were again lifting their heads, "and all will be ours!"†

The prompt repression of these fanatical excesses, was the only means of saving the Reformation. But who should undertake the task? Melancthon? He was too young, too deficient in firmness, too much perplexed by this strange conjuncture of circumstances. The Elector? He was the most pacific man of his age. To build his castles of Altenburg, Weimar, Lochau, and Coburg, to adorn the churches with fine pictures by Lucas Cranach, to improve the chauntings in his chapels, to advance the prosperity of his university, and promote the happiness of his subjects; to stop in his walks, and distribute little presents to playful children—such were the tranquil occupations of his life; and now, in his declining years, to engage in conflict with fanatics, and oppose violence to violence—how could the gracious and pious Frederic take such a step?

The evil, therefore, was gaining ground, and no one step forward to arrest its progress. Luther was absent far from Wittenberg. Confusion and ruin impending over the city. The Reformation beheld, proceeding, as it were, from its own bosom, an enemy more to be dreaded than popes and emperors. It was as if on the brink of an abyss.

"Luther! Luther!" was the cry from one end of Wittenberg to the other. The burghers were clamorous for his re-appearance. Divines felt their need of the benefit of his judgment; even the prophets appealed to him. All united in entreating him to return.‡

We may guess what was passing in the Reformer's mind. The harsh usage of Rome seemed nothing, when compared with what now wrung his heart. It is from the very midst of the Reformation, that its enemies have gone forth. It is preying upon its own vitals; and that teaching, which, by its power, had sufficed to restore peace to his troubled heart, he beholds perverted into an occasion of fatal dissensions in the Church.

"If I knew," said Luther, at an earlier period, "that my doctrine had injured one human being, however poor and unknown—which it could not, for it is the very Gospel—I would rather face death ten times over than not retract it.§ And lo! now, a whole city, and that city Wittenberg itself, is sinking fast into licentiousness." True, indeed, the doctrine he had taught had not been the cause of all this evil; but, from every quarter of Germany, voices were heard that accused him, as the author of it. Some of the bitterest feelings he had ever known oppressed his spirit at this juncture, and his trial was of a different kind. Was this, then, he asked himself, to be the issue of the great work of Reformation? Impossible! He utterly rejected the doubts that presented themselves. God has begun the work—God will fulfil it. "I prostrate myself, in deep abasement, before the Eternal," said he, "and I implore of Him, that His name may rest upon this work, and that if anything impure has mingled in the doing of it, He will remember that I am but a sinful man."||

The letters written to Luther, conveying reports of the inspiration of the pretended prophets, and their ex-

* Etliche Fürsten ihre Bewandten abgefordert. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 560.)

† Perdita et funditus diruta. (Cam. Vit. Mel. p. 62.)

‡ Lutherum revocavimus ex heremo suo magnis de causis. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 566.)

§ Möchte ich ehe zehn Tode leyden. (Wieder Emser, L. Opp. xviii. p. 613.)

|| Ich krieche zu seiner Gnaden. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 615.)

* Irruendum et demoliendum statim. (Ibid.)

† Die Bilder zu stürmen und aus den Kirchen zu werfen. (Math. p. 31.)

alted communion with the Lord, did not occasion him a moment's hesitation. He well knew the deep struggles and prostrations of the spiritual life; at Erfurth, and at Wittemberg, he had had experience of the mighty power of God, which rendered him but little disposed to credit the statement, that God had appeared visibly, and discoursed with his creature.

"Ask them," said he, in writing to Melancthon, "if they have known those spiritual heavings, those pangs of God's new creation, those deaths and hells, which accompany a real regeneration.* And if they speak only of soft and tranquil impressions, piety, and devotion, as they phrase it, don't believe them; not even though they should assert that they have been caught up into the third heaven! In order that Christ should enter into his glory, it behoved him to pass through the suffering of death: thus the believer must pass through the tribulation of his sin, before he enters into his Peace. Would you learn when, where, and how, God speaks to men? Listen to the word. 'As a lion, He has broken all my bones—I am cast out from before His face, and my life is brought down to the gates of death.' No, no! the Divine Majesty (as they term him) does not speak, face to face, with man, for 'no man,' says He, 'can see my face and live.'"

But his firm conviction that the prophets were under a delusion did but aggravate Luther's grief. The solemn truth of Salvation by Grace seemed to have quickly lost its attraction, and men were turning aside after fables. He began to understand that the work was not so easy as he had once fondly thought. He stumbled at this first stone, placed in his path by the fickleness of the human heart. Grief and anxiety weighed heavy on his spirit. He desired, though at the hazard of his life, to remove the stumbling-block out of the way of the people, and he resolved to return to Wittemberg.

It was a moment of considerable danger. The enemies of the Reformation thought themselves on the very eve of destroying it. George, of Saxony, who would neither connect himself with Rome nor with Wittemberg, had written, as early as the 15th October, 1521, to Duke John, the Elector's brother, to induce him to side with those who opposed the progress of the Reformation. "Some," wrote he, "deny the immortality of the soul, others, and those friars, too! drag the relics of St. Antony through the streets, and throw them into the gutters.† All this comes of Luther's teaching. Entreat your brother either to make a public example of the impious authors of these disorders, or, at least, publicly to declare his opinion of them. Our grey hairs warn us that we are near the end of our course, and that we ought speedily to put an end to such evils."

After this, George took his departure, to be present at the sittings of the Imperial Government at Nuremberg. On arriving, he used every means to procure the adoption of severe measures. The result was, that on the 21st of January, the Diet published an edict, in which they complained bitterly that the priests were accustomed to say mass without being habited in priest's garments—that they pronounced the words of consecration in German—administered it to such as had not confessed themselves—passed it into the hands of laymen, without even troubling themselves to ascertain whether the communicant came to it fasting.‡

The Imperial Government directed the Bishops accordingly to look after and punish severely the inno-

vators within their respective dioceses: and the Bishops were not slow in following these directions.

It was just at this moment that Luther decided to appear again upon the stage. He clearly saw the critical position of affairs, and forebode wide-spreading calamity. "A time of trouble," said he, "is coming upon the empire which will sweep before it princes, magistrates, and bishops. People's eyes are opened; they cannot be driven by main force; Germany will be deluged with blood.* Let us take our stand as a wall of defence to our country in the day of God's anger."

So thought Luther: but he perceived a danger yet more imminent. At Wittemberg, the fire, instead of expiring, was burning every day more fiercely. From the summits of the Wartburg, Luther might discern in the horizon the lurid glare that gives notice of devastation flashing at intervals through the gloom. Who but himself can apply a remedy in the crisis? What should prevent his throwing himself into the heat of the conflagration, and exerting his influence to arrest its progress? He foresees his enemies preparing to strike him down, but his purpose is not shaken. Nor is he deterred by the Elector's entreaty that he would keep within the Wartburg, and there quietly prepare his justification at the approaching Diet. A more urgent necessity is pressing upon his soul; and it is to justify the Gospel itself. "The news from Wittemberg," wrote he, "is every day becoming more alarming. I am on the point of setting out. That state of things absolutely requires it."†

Accordingly, on the 3d of March, he finally decided on leaving the Wartburg. He bade farewell to its grey turrets and gloomy forests. He passed beyond those walls within which the anathemas of Leo and the sword of Charles were alike powerless. He trod the path that wound to the foot of the mountain. The world which lay stretched before him, and on which he was once more about to appear, would soon perhaps ring with the clamours of those who sought his life. It matters not. On he goes rejoicing; for it is in the name of the Lord that he is bending his steps toward the haunts of men.‡

Time had been busy. Luther was leaving the Wartburg for another cause and in a different character from that in which he had first entered it. He had arrived there as one who had attacked the received tradition, and its established teachers. He was quitting it for the defence of the doctrine of the Apostles against a new class of adversaries. He had entered the Wartburg as an innovator who had assailed the ancient hierarchy—he was leaving it in the spirit of a conservator, that he might defend the faith of the Christians. Until this period, Luther had seen in the success of his efforts but the triumph of the great truth of Justification by Faith; and, armed with this single weapon, he had beat down long standing superstitions. But if there had been a time for removing that which had encumbered the soil, a season must needs come for building up. Hidden under the ruins with which his assaults had strewed the plain, behind discredited letters of indulgence, broken tiaras and trampled crows beneath the many Romish errors and corruptions that his mind surveyed as the slain upon a battle-field, he discerned and brought forth to light the primitive Catholic Church re-appearing still the same, and, as it were, emerging from a protracted struggle, with unchangeable doctrine and heavenly accents. He could appreciate the vast difference between Rome and that true Church which

* Quæras num experti sint spirituales illas angustias et navitantes divinas, mortes infernoque. (L. Epp. ii. p. 215.)

† Mit Schweinen und Schellen . . . in Koth geworfen. (Wayn Ann. Seck. p. 492.)

‡ In ihre laische Hände reiche. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 285.)

* Germaniam in sanguine natæ. (L. Epp. ii. p. 157.)

† Ita enim res postulat ipsa. (Ibid. p. 135.)

‡ So machte er sich mit ungläublicher Freudigkeit des Geistes, im Nahmen Gottes auf den Weg. (Seck. p. 498.)

he hailed and embraced with joy. Luther wrought no new thing on the earth, as has been falsely charged upon him; he did not build for his own age an edifice that had no associations with the past; he discerned and let in the light upon those earlier foundations which were then overrun with thorns and brambles; while he persevered in reconstructing the temple, he did but build on the fundamental truths taught by the Apostles. Luther was aware that the ancient and primitive Apostolic Church must, on one hand, be restored and opposed to that papal power which had so long oppressed it—and, on the other hand, be defended against enthusiasts and unbelievers, who affected to disown it, and were seeking to set up some new thing, regardless of all that God had done in past ages. Luther was, from that hour, no longer the representative of a single great truth—that of *Justification by Faith*, though, to the last, he gave to it the highest place; the whole theology of Christianity now occupied his thoughts;—and while he believed that, in its essence, the Church is the Congregation of Saints, he was careful not to despise the visible Church, and he therefore recognised those who were outwardly called, as constituting, in a certain sense, the kingdom of God. Accordingly, a great change took place in Luther, and, in his entrance into divine truth, and in that regenerative progress which God was carrying on in the world. The hierarchy of Rome, acting upon him, might have goaded the Reformer to one extreme, had not the sects, which, at this time, lifted their heads so daringly, recalled him to just and moderate views. His residence in the Wartburg divides these two periods of the history of the Reformation.

Luther rode slowly on in the direction of Wittenberg. It was Shrove Tuesday, and the second day of his journey. Toward evening, a terrific storm came on, and the roads were flooded. Two young Swiss, who were travelling the same way, were hastening for shelter to the city of Jena. They had studied at Bale, and were attracted to Wittenberg by the renown of its university. Journeying on foot, tired and wet through, John Kessler, of St. Gall, and his comrade, quickened their steps. The town was in all the bustle and buffoonery of the carnival—dances, masquerades, and tumultuous feasting, engrossed the thoughts of the inhabitants, and the two travellers, on arriving, could find no room in any of the inns. After a while, they were directed to the Black Bear, outside the city gate. Harassed and depressed, they repaired thither. The landlord received them kindly.* Ashamed of their appearance, they sat down near the open door of the public room, unwilling to go further. Seated at one of the tables, was a solitary man in the habit of a knight, his head covered with a red cap, and wearing small clothes, over which hung down the skirts of his doublet. His right hand rested on the pommel of his sword; his left grasped the hilt; a book lay open before him, and he seemed to be reading attentively.† At the noise made by their entrance, the stranger raised his head and saluted them courteously, inviting them to approach and take a seat with him at the table; then offering them a glass of beer, he said, alluding to their accent, "You are Swiss, I perceive; but from which of the cantons?"—"From St. Gall."—"If you are going to Wittenberg, you will there meet one of your countrymen, Doctor Schurff." Encouraged by so much affability, they enquired—"Could you kindly inform us where Martin Luther now is?"—"I know

for certain," answered the knight, "that Luther is not at Wittenberg, but probably he will be there shortly. Philip Melancthon is there. If you'll be advised by me, apply yourselves to the Greek and Hebrew, that you may understand the Holy Scriptures." "If our lives are spared," observed one of the Swiss, "we will not return without seeing and hearing Doctor Luther; it is for that purpose we have made the journey. We hear he wants to abolish the clergy and the mass, and as our parents always intended to bring us up to the church, we should like to know on what grounds he is acting." The knight was silent for a moment, and then enquired, "Where have you been studying hitherto?"—"At Bale."—"Is Erasmus still there? what is he doing?" They answered his questions, and a pause ensued. The two Swiss knew not what to make of their new acquaintance. "How strange," thought they, "that the conversation of a knight should be all about Schurff, Melancthon, and Erasmus, and the advantage of knowing Greek and Hebrew." "Tell me, my friends," said the stranger, suddenly breaking silence, "what is said of Luther in Switzerland?"—"Sir," replied Kessler, "opinions concerning him are greatly divided, as is the case everywhere. Some extol him, and others pronounce him an abominable heretic."—"Aye, aye, the priests, no doubt," remarked the stranger.

The knight's cordiality had put the students completely at their ease. Their curiosity was excited to know what book he had been reading when they came in. The knight had closed the volume. Kessler's comrade ventured to take it up; what was his surprise at finding it to be the Hebrew Psalter. Laying it down, he said, as if to divert attention from this freedom, "Gladly would I give my little finger to understand that language."—"You will surely have your wish," was the stranger's reply, "if you will take the pains to acquire it."

A few minutes after, the landlord's voice was heard calling Kessler. The poor Swiss began to fear something was amiss; but the host whispered, "I hear you want to see Luther; well, it is he who is seated beside you." Kessler's first thought was that he was jesting. "You surely would not deceive me," said he. "It is he, himself," replied the landlord; "but don't let him see that you know him." Kessler made no answer; but returned to the room and resumed his seat, eager to communicate the information to his companion. To do this was not easy; at last he leaned forward, as if looking toward the door, and stooping close to his friend's ear, whispered—"The landlord says it is Luther himself."—"Perhaps," returned his companion, "he said Hutten?"—"Probably so," said Kessler, "I may have mistaken the one name for the other, for they resemble each other in sound."

At that moment, the trampling of horses' feet was heard outside; two travelling merchants, asking a night's lodgings, entered the room, laid aside their spurs, and threw off their cloaks, and one of them deposited near him, on the table, an unbound book, which attracted the knight's notice. "What book may that be?" asked he. "It is a commentary on the Gospels and Epistles, by Doctor Luther," was the traveller's answer; "it has only just appeared."—"I shall get it shortly," remarked the knight.

Conversation was interrupted by the landlord's announcing that supper was ready. The two students, not wishing to incur the expense of a meal in company with the knight, Ulrich Hutten, and two thriving merchants, took the landlord aside, and asked him to serve them with something apart. "Come along, my friends," said the innkeeper of the Black Bear, "sit ye down beside this gentleman; I will let you off

* See the narrative of Kessler, with its details, in the simple language of that age, in Bernet, Johann Kessler, p. 27. Hahnhard Erzählungen, iii. p. 300, and Marheinecke Gesch. der Ref. ii. p. 321, 2d ed.

† In einem rothen Schläppli, in blossen Hossen und Wamms. (Ibid.)

easy."—"Come, come," said the knight, "I'll pay the score."

During supper, the mysterious stranger made many striking and instructive remarks. Both merchants and students listened in silence, more attentive to his words than to the dishes before them. In the course of conversation, one of the merchants exclaimed, "Luther must be either an angel from heaven, or a devil from hell!" and he followed up his exclamation by the remark, "I would give ten florins for an opportunity of meeting him, and confessing to him."

Supper being over, the merchants rose from their seats; the two Swiss remained in company with the knight, who, taking up a large glass of beer, and raising it to his lips, said, gravely, after the custom of the country—"Swiss, one glass more for thanks." And as Kessler was about to take the glass, the stranger, replacing it, handed him one filled with wine: "You are not used to beer," said he.

This said, he rose from his seat, threw over his shoulders a military cloak, and extending his hand to the students, said, "When you reach Wittemberg, salute Doctor Jerome Schurff from me." "With pleasure," replied they; "but whose name shall we give?" "Do you tell him, only, that he who is coming sends him greeting." With these words he departed, leaving them delighted with his condescension and kindness.

Luther, for he it was, continued his journey. It will be remembered that he had been placed under ban of the empire. Whoever met him might, therefore, seize his person. But in that critical moment, engaged, as he was, in an enterprise replete with dangers, he was calm and serene, and conversed cheerfully with those whom he met with on his way.

It was not that he deceived himself as to immediate results. He saw the horizon black with storms: "Satan," said he, "is enraged; and all around me are plotting death and destruction.* But I go forward, to throw myself in the way of the emperor and the pope, with no protector but God above. Go where I will, every man is at perfect liberty to put me to death, wherever he may find me. Christ is Lord of all! If it be His will that my life should be taken, even so let it be."

That same day, being Ash Wednesday, Luther arrived at Borne, a small town in the neighbourhood of Leipsic. He felt that it became him to acquaint his prince with the bold step he was about to take, and, accordingly, wrote as follows, from the inn at which he had alighted:

"Grace and peace from God, our Father, and from our Lord Jesus Christ! Most serene Elector, gracious prince—the reproach brought upon the Gospel, by the events that have taken place at Wittemberg, have so deeply grieved me, that I should have lost all hope, were I not assured that our cause is that of the truth.

"Your highness knows full well, or if not, be it known to you, I received the Gospel—not from man, but from heaven—by our Lord Jesus Christ. It was not from any doubt as to the truth, that I formerly requested public discussions; I did so in humility, and in the hope to win over others. But since my humility is taken advantage of to the hinderance of the Gospel, my conscience urges me, at this time, to change my course of action. I have sufficiently shown my deference to your highness, in withdrawing from the public gaze for a whole year. Satan knows that it was not from cowardice that I did so. I would have entered Worms, though there had been as many devils

in the town as there were tiles upon its roofs. Now Duke George, whom your highness mentions as if to scare me, is much less to be dreaded than a single devil. If what is passing at Wittemberg, were occurring at Leipsic, the duke's usual place of residence, I would instantly mount my horse, and repair thither, even though—your highness will, I trust, pardon the expression—it should rain Dukes George for nine days together, and every one should be nine times as fierce as he. What can he be thinking of in attacking me? Does he suppose that Christ, my Lord, is a man of straw?† May God avert from him the awful judgment that hangs over him!

"Be it known to your highness that I am repairing to Wittemberg, under a protection more powerful than that of an elector. I have no thought of soliciting the aid of your highness; and am so far from desiring your protection, that it is rather my purpose to protect your highness. If I knew that your highness could or would take up my defence, I would not come to Wittemberg. No secular sword can advance this cause; God must do all, without the aid or co-operation of man. He who has most faith, is the most availing defence; but, as it seems to me, your highness is, as yet, very weak in faith.

"But since your highness desires to know what to do, I will humbly answer: Your electoral highness has already done too much, and should do nothing whatever. God neither wants, nor will endure, that you or I should take thought or part in the matter. Let your highness follow this advice.

"In regard to myself, your highness must remember your duty as elector, and allow the instructions of his imperial majesty to be carried into effect in your towns and districts, offering no impediment to any who would seize or kill me;‡ for none may contend against the powers that be, save only he who has ordained them.

"Let your highness, accordingly, leave the gates open, and respect safe-conducts, if my enemies in person, or by their envoys, should come to search for me in your highness's states. Everything may take its course, without trouble or prejudice to your highness.

"I write this in haste, that you may not feel aggrieved by my coming. My business is with another kind of person from Duke George, one who knows me, and whom I know well.

"Written at Borne, at the inn of the *Guide*, on Ash Wednesday, 1522.

"Your Electoral Highness's

"Very humble servant,

"MARTIN LUTHER."

In this way Luther made his approach to Wittemberg; he wrote to his prince, but not, as we have seen, to excuse the step he had taken. An unshaken confidence animated his heart. He saw God's hand engaged in the cause, and that sufficed him. The heroism of faith was, perhaps, never more fully acted out. In one of the editions of Luther's works, we read, opposite this letter, the remark: "This is a wonderful writing of the third and latest Elias."§

It was on Friday, the 7th of March, that Luther reentered Wittemberg, having been five days on his journey. Doctors, students, burghers, broke forth in rejoicings, for they had again among them the pilot who could best extricate the vessel from the reefs by which it was encompassed.

The elector, who was then at Lochau, attended by

* Er hält meinen Herrn Christum für ein Mann aus Stroh geflochten. (L. Epp. ii. p. 139.)

† Und ja nicht wehren . . . so sie mich fahen oden tödten will. (L. Epp. p. 140.)

‡ Der wahre, dritte und letzte Elias . . . L. Opp. (L.) xvii. p. 271.

* Furit Satanas; et fremunt vicini undique, nescio quot mortibus et infernis. (L. Epp. ii. p. 139.)

his court, was much affected by the perusal of the Reformer's letter. In his desire to exculpate him before the Diet, he wrote to Schurff: "Let Luther write to me, explaining his reasons for returning to Wittenberg, and introduce the statement that he came without my consent." Luther complied.

"Behold me, ready to bear your highness's disapprobation, and the anger of the whole world. Are not the Wittenbergers my own sheep? Has not God committed them to my care? And ought I not, if need be, to lay down my life for them? Besides, I dread lest we should see throughout Germany, a revolt, by which God shall punish our nation. Let your highness be well assured, the decrees of heaven are not like those of Nuremberg."* This letter was written on the same day that Luther reached Wittenberg.

The following day, being Easter Eve, Luther visited Jerome Schurff. He found Melancthon, Jonas, Amsdorff, Augustin Schurff, Jerome's brother, assembled. Luther put many questions to them, and while they recounted all that had taken place in his absence, two foreigners entered the room. The Swiss drew back timidly, on finding themselves in the midst of this company of learned Doctors; but they soon recovered their self-possession when they saw in the centre of the group, the knight whom they had met at the Black Bear. The latter advancing, accosted them as old friends, and said, smiling, as he pointed to one of the company—"That is Philip Melancthon, whom I mentioned to you." The two Swiss spent that day in the society of the assembled friends, on the strength of the meeting at Jena.

One absorbing thought engrossed the Reformer's mind, and damped the pleasure he would otherwise have felt at finding himself once more surrounded by his friends. Doubtless, the stage on which he had chosen to appear was an obscure one. He was about to raise his voice in a petty town of Saxony; and yet his object was, in reality, so important, as to influence the destinies of the world, and be felt in its effects by many nations and people. The question to be decided was—whether the teaching which he had derived from God's Word, and which was destined to produce so mighty an effect, would, in the trial, prove stronger than those disorganizing principles which threatened its extinction. It was now to be seen whether it was possible to reform without destroying—to open a way to new developments without losing such as had already been evolved. To reduce to silence fanatics in the energy of the first bursts of enthusiasm—to arrest the headlong course of a thoughtless multitude—to calm their spirits, and restore order, peace, and reason—to break the force of the torrent that beat against the as yet unsettled edifice of the Reformation—such was the object of Luther's return to Wittenberg. But would his influence accomplish all this? Time must show.

The Reformer's heart thrilled at the thought of the struggle he was about to enter upon. He raised his head, as the lion shakes his brindled mane when roused to the fight. "The hour," said he, "is arrived, when we must trample under foot the power of Satan, and contend against the spirit of darkness. If our adversaries do not flee from us;—Christ will know how to compel them. We who put our trust in the Lord of life and death, are lords both of life and of death!"†

But at the same time the impetuous Reformer, as if restrained by a higher power, refused to employ the anathemas and thunders of the Word, and set about his work in the spirit of an humble pastor—a tender shepherd of souls. "It is with *the Word* we must

contend," observed he, "and by *the Word* we must refute and expel what has gained a footing by violence. I would not resort to force against such as are superstitious; nor even against unbelievers! Whosoever believeth let him draw nigh, and whoso believeth not, stand afar off. Let there be no compulsion. Liberty is of the very essence of Faith."*

The next day was Sunday. That day the Doctor, whom the lofty walls of the Wartburg had for nearly a year hidden from the public eye, is to appear in the pulpit of the church of Wittenberg. "Luther is come back." "Luther is to preach to-day." The news, repeated from one to another, had of itself no slight effect in giving a turn to the thoughts by which the multitude were deluded. People hurried to and fro in all directions; and on Sunday morning the church was filled to overflow with an attentive and impressed congregation.

Luther could comprehend the disposition of his hearers' minds. He ascended the pulpit. Behold him surrounded by the flock which had formerly followed him with one heart as a docile sheep, but which has broken from him in the spirit of an untamed heifer. His address was simple and noble—energetic and persuasive;—breathing the spirit of a tender father returning to his children, and enquiring into their conduct, while he communicates the reports that have reached him concerning them. He frankly commended their progress in the faith, and having thus prepared and gathered up their thoughts, he proceeded as follows:—

"But we need a something beyond Faith; and that is Love. If a man who carries a sword is alone, it matters not whether he draw it or keep it sheathed; but if he is in a crowd, let him have a care lest he wound any of those about him.

"Observe a mother with her babe. She first gives it nothing but milk; and then the most easily digestible food. What would be the consequence were she to begin by giving it meat or wine?

"In like manner should we act toward our brother. Have you been long at the breast?—If so, well;—only let your brother suck as long!

"Observe the Sun. He dispenses two gifts.—namely—*light* and *warmth*. The mightiest monarch cannot turn aside his rays;—they come straight on, arriving upon this earth by a direct course. Meanwhile his warmth goes out and diffuses itself in every direction. So it is that Faith, like light, should ever be simple and unbending;—while Love, like warmth, should beam forth on all sides, and bend to every necessity of our brethren."

Having thus engaged his hearers' attention, he proceeded to press them more closely:

"It is agreeable to Scripture, say you, to abolish the Mass. Be it so. But what order, what decency have you observed? It became you to offer up earnest prayers to God; to apply to the authorities; then, indeed, every one might have acknowledged that the thing was of the Lord."

Thus spake Luther. The fearless man who, at Worms, had stood forth against the princes of this world, made a deep impression on men's minds by these accents of wisdom and peace. Carlstadt and the prophets of Zwickau, from being extolled and all-powerful for a few weeks, and ruling to the disturbance of the public peace, had shrunk into insignificance beside the prisoner escaped from the Wartburg.

"The Mass," he continued, "is a bad thing. God is opposed to it. It ought to be abolished, and I would that everywhere the Supper of the Gospel were established in its stead. But let none be torn from it by

* L. Epp. ii. p. 143. Luther altered this expression at the elector's request.

† Domini enim sumus vite et mortis. (L. Epp. ii. p. 160.)

* Non enim ad fidem et ad ea quæ fidei sunt, ullus cogendus est. . . . (L. Epp. ii. p. 161.)

force. We must leave results to God. It is not *we* that must work—but His Word. And why so? you will ask. Because the hearts of men are not in my hand as clay in the hand of the potter. We have a right to speak, but none whatever to compel. Let us preach;—the rest belongs to God. If I resort to force, what shall I gain? Grimace, fair appearances, apeings, cramped uniformity, and hypocrisy. But there will be no hearty sincerity—no faith—no love. Where these are wanting—all is wanting; and I would not give a straw for such a victory!*

"Our first aim must be to win the heart; and to this end we must preach the Gospel. Then we shall find the Word impressing one to-day, another the next day; and the result will be, that each one will withdraw from the Mass, and cease to receive it. God does more by the simple power of His word than you and I and the whole world could effect by all our efforts put together! God arrests the heart, and that once taken—all is won!

"I say not this that you should restore the Mass. Since it is done away with, in God's name, let it not be revived. But was it right to go about it in such a manner? Paul, coming one day to the famous city of Athens, found there the altars of such as were no gods. He passed on from one to the other, observing them without touching one of them; but he made his way to the market-place, and testified to the people that all their gods were nought but images, graven by art and man's device. And that preached Word took possession of their hearts, and the idols fell, without his so much as touching them!

"I am ready to preach, argue, write—but I will not constrain any one: for faith is a voluntary act. Call to mind what I have already done. I stood up against Pope, indulgences, and Papists; but without violence or tumult. I brought forward God's Word; I preached and wrote, and there I stopped. And while I laid me down and slept, or chatted with Amsdorff and Melancthon over our tankard of Wittenberg beer, the word I had preached brought down the power of the Pope to the ground, so that never prince or emperor had dealt it such a blow. For my part, I did next to nothing: the power of the Word did the whole business. Had I appealed to force, Germany might have been deluged with blood. But what would have been the consequence? Ruin and destruction of soul and body. Accordingly, I kept quiet, and let the Word run through the length and breadth of the land. Know you what the devil thinks when he sees men resort to violence to spread the Gospel through the world? Seated behind the fire of hell, and folding his arms, with malignant glance and horrid leer, Satan says, 'How good it is in yonder madmen to play into my hands.' But only let him see the Word of the Lord circulating, and working its way unaided on the field of the world, and at once he is disturbed at his work, his knees smite each other, he trembles, and is ready to die with fear."

On the Tuesday following, Luther again ascended the pulpit, and his powerful exhortation was once more heard, in the midst of an attentive audience. He preached again on Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday. He took a review of the destruction of images, the distinction of meats, the institution of the Supper, the restoration of the cup to the laity, and the abolition of the confessional. He showed that these points were of much less consequence than the Mass, and that the prime movers of the disorders of which Wittenberg had been the scene, had grossly

abused their liberty. He passed by turns from accents of true Christian charity, to bursts of holy indignation.

He especially declared himself against those who ventured lightly to partake of the Supper of the Lord. "It is not the mere *pressing with the teeth*," said he, "it is the inward and spiritual partaking realized by faith which makes us Christians, and without which all outward acts are but show and grimace. But that faith consists in the firm belief that Jesus is the Son of God; that having himself borne our sins and our iniquities on the cross, he is himself, the alone and all-sufficient expiation; that he now appears continually in the presence of God, reconciling us to the Father; and has given to us the sacrament of his body for the strengthening of our faith in this unspeakable mercy. Only let me believe this, and God is my defence; with Him for my buckler I defy sin, death, hell, and devils: they cannot harm me, nor even so much as ruffle a hair of my head! That spiritual bread is comfort to the afflicted, health to the sick, life to the dying, food to the hungry, and a treasury for the poor! The man who does not feel the burden of his sins ought, therefore, to abstain from approaching the altar. What can *he* have to do there? Ah! let conscience be heard; let our hearts be broken with the sense of our sins, and we shall not come to that holy sacrament in a spirit of presumption."

Crowds continually filled the church; many came even from the neighbouring towns and villages to hear this new Elijah. Among others, Capito passed two days at Wittenberg, and heard the doctor preach twice. Never before had Luther and the cardinal's chaplain been so entirely agreed. Melancthon, magistrates, professors, and the whole population were overjoyed.* Schurff, delighted with such a termination of so unpromising a state of things, hastened to communicate the intelligence to the Elector. He wrote to him on Friday, the 15th of March, after hearing Luther's sixth discourse. "Oh, what joy has Doctor Martin's reappearance diffused among us! His words, through divine mercy, every day bring back into the way of truth our poor deluded people. It is manifest that the Spirit of God, is with him, and that his coming to Wittenberg is by His special providence."†

In truth, these sermons are models of popular eloquence; but not such as, in the days of Demosthenes, or even in those of Savonarola, had led captive the hearts of the people. The task of the preacher of Wittenberg was one of greater difficulty. It is far easier to rouse the fury of a wild beast than to charm it down. What was needed to soothe a fanatic multitude, and to tame unruly passions; and in this Luther succeeded. In his first eight sermons, he allowed not a word to escape him against the originators of these disorders; no allusion likely to give pain—not so much as a word by which their feelings could be wounded. But his moderation was his strength; and the more tenderly he dealt with the souls that had gone astray, the more perfectly did he vindicate that truth that was aggrieved. There was no withstanding the power of his eloquence. Men usually ascribe to timidity and cowardly compromise, exhortations that inculcate moderation. Here, how different was the case! In publicly standing forth before the inhabitants of Wittenberg, Luther braved the Pope's excommunication and the Emperor's proscription. He re-appeared, notwithstanding the Elector's prohibition, who had intimated that he could not protect him. Even at Worms his courage had not been so signally proved. He was exposing himself to the most imminent dangers; and

* Ich wollte nicht einen Birnstiel drauf geben. (L. Opp. (L.) xviii. p. 255.)

* Grosse Freude und Frohlocken unter Gelahrten und Ungelahrten. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 266.)

† Aus sonderlicher Schickung nes Allmachtigen ... (Ibid.)

hence his call was responded to. The man who braved the scaffold, might claim to be listened to when he inculcated submission. None better qualified to urge on his hearers the duty of obedience to God, than he who, in order that he might himself render such obedience, defied the most violent persecution of man. At Luther's appeal difficulties disappeared—tumult subsided—sedition was silenced, and the burghers of Wittenberg returned quietly to their dwellings.

Gabriel Didymus, who, of all the Augustine monks, had manifested most enthusiasm, hung upon the Reformer's words. "Don't you think Luther a wonderful teacher?" inquired one of his hearers, who was himself deeply affected. "Ah!" replied he, "I seem to be listening to the voice of an angel rather than a man."* Didymus, soon after this, publicly confessed he had been deceived. "He is quite a changed man," said Luther.†

It was not so at first with Carlstadt. Abandoning his studies, and frequenting the workshops of artisans, that he might there receive the true interpretation of the Scriptures, he was mortified at beholding his party losing ground on the reappearance of Luther.‡ In his view it was arresting the Reformation in the midst of its career. Hence, his countenance wore a constant air of dejection, sadness and dissatisfaction. Nevertheless, he sacrificed his self-love for the sake of peace, restrained his desire to vindicate his doctrine, was reconciled, at least in appearance, to his colleague, and soon after resumed his studies in the university.§

The most noted of the prophets were not at Wittenberg when Luther arrived there. Nicholas Storch was on a progress through the country. Mark Stubner, had quitted the hospitable roof of Melancthon. Perhaps their spirit of prophecy had left them without "voice or answer,"|| from the first tidings brought them that the new Elijah was turning his steps toward their Mount Carmel. Cellarius, the old schoolmaster alone remained. Meanwhile, Stubner hearing that his sheep were scattered, returned in haste to Wittenberg. Those who had remained faithful to "the heavenly prophecy" gathered round their master, repeated the substance of Luther's sermons, and pressed him with anxious enquiries as to what they ought to think and do.¶ Stubner exhorted them to stand firm. "Let him come forth," interposed Cellarius; "let him give us the meeting; let him only afford us opportunity to declare our doctrine, and then we shall see . . ."

Luther had but little wish to meet them. He knew them to be men of violent, hasty, and haughty temper, who would not endure even kind admonitions, but required that every one should, at the very first summons, submit to them as to a supreme authority.** Such are enthusiasts in every age. Nevertheless, as an interview was requested, Luther could not decline it. Besides, it might be doing service to the weak of the flock to unmask the imposture of the prophets. Accordingly the meeting took place. Stubner opened the conversation. He showed how he proposed to restore the Church, and reform the world. Luther listened to him with great calmness.†† "Of all you have been saying," replied he, at last, gravely, "there is nothing

that I see to be based upon Scripture. It is a mere tissue of fiction." At these words Cellarius lost all self-possession. Raising his voice like one out of his mind, he trembled from head to foot, and striking the table with his fist, in a violent passion,* exclaimed against Luther's speech as an insult offered to a man of God. On this Luther remarked, "Paul declared that the signs of an apostle were wrought among the Corinthians, in signs and mighty deeds. Do you likewise prove your apostleship by miracles."—"We will do so," rejoined the prophets.† "The God whom I serve," answered Luther, "will know how to bridle your gods." Stubner, who had hitherto preserved an imperturbable silence, now fixing his eyes on the Reformer, said, in a solemn tone, "Martin Luther, hear me while I declare what is passing at this moment in your soul. You are beginning to see that my doctrine is true." Luther was silent for a few moments, and then replied, "The Lord rebuke thee, Satan." Instantly the prophets lost all self-command: They shouted aloud, "The Spirit, the Spirit." The answer of Luther was marked by the cool contempt and cutting homeliness of his expressions: "I slap your spirit on the snout!"‡ said he. Hereupon their outcries redoubled. Cellarius was more violent than the rest. He stormed till he foamed at the mouth§—and their voices were inaudible from the tumult. The result was that the pretended prophets abandoned the field, and that every day they left Wittenberg.

Thus did Luther achieve the object for which he had left his retirement. He had taken his stand against fanaticism, and expelled from the bosom of the church the enthusiasm and disorder which had invaded it. If the Reformation with one hand dashed to the earth the dusty decretals of Rome, with the other it put away from it the pretensions of the mystics, and established on the territory it had acquired the living and sure Word of God. The character of the Reformation was thus distinctly seen. Its mission was to keep constantly a middle course between these extremes, remote alike from fanatical distortions, and from the death-like slumber of the papal rule.

Here was an instance of a whole population passionately excited, and misled to such a degree as to have cast off all restraint, at once listening to reason, recovering calmness, and returning to their accustomed submission, so that the most perfect quiet again reigned in that very city which, but a few days before, had been like the troubled ocean.

The most absolute liberty was forthwith established at Wittenberg. Luther continued to reside in the convent, and to wear the monastic habit; but every one was free to lay it aside. In coming to the Lord's Supper, persons might either receive only the general absolution or they might apply for a special one. It was recognised as a principle to reject nothing but what contradicted a clear and express declaration of Scripture.|| It was no indifference that dictated this course. On the contrary, religion was recalled to its essential principles. Piety only withdrew from the accessory forms in which it had been well nigh lost, that it might rest on its true basis. Thus was the Reformation itself preserved, and the church's teaching progressively developed in love and truth.

No sooner was order re-established, when the Reformer turned to his beloved Melancthon, and requested

* Imo, inquit, angeli, neo hominis vocem mihi audisse videtur. (Camerarius, p. 12.)

† In alium virum mutatus est. (L. Epp. ii. p. 166.)

‡ Ego Carlstadium offendi, quod ordinationes suas cessavi. (L. Epp. ii. p. 177.)

§ Philippi et Carlstadii lectiones ut sunt optimæ . . . (Ibid. p. 284.)

|| 1 Kings xviii.

** Rursum ad ipsum confuere . . . (Camerar. p. 52.)

†† Vehementer superbus et impatiens . . . credi vult plena auctoritate, ad primum vocem . . . (L. Epp. ii. p. 179.)

‡‡ Audivit Lutherus placide . . . (Camer. p. 62.)

* Cum et solum pedibus et propositam mensulam manibus feriret. (Ibid.)

† Quid pollicentes de mirabilibus affectionibus. (Ibid. p. 53.)

‡ Ihren Geist haue er über die Schnauze. (L. Opp. Altenburg. Augs. iii. p. 137.)

§ Spumabat et fremebat et furebat. (L. Epp. ii. p. 179.)

|| Ganz klare und gründliche Schrift.

his co-operation in the final revision of the translation of the New Testament, which he had brought with him from the Wartburg.* As early as the year 1519, Melancthon had laid down the grand principle that the Fathers must be explained conformably to the Scripture, and not Scripture according to the Fathers. Meditating daily on the books of the New Testament, he felt at once charmed by their simplicity, and solemnly impressed by the depth of their import. "In them, and them only," affirmed this adept in ancient philosophy, "do we find the true 'food of the soul.'" Gladly, therefore, did he comply with Luther's desire, and many were the hours the two friends, from that time, spent together, studying and translating the inspired Word. Often would they pause in their labours to give free expression to their wonder. "If Reason could speak," said Luther, "it would say, O, that I could once hear the voice of God! I should think it worth a journey to the very uttermost parts of the earth! Give ear, then, my fellow-man—God, the creator of heaven and earth, now speaks to thee!"

The printing of the New Testament was begun and carried on with an activity beyond all example.† One might have thought the very printers felt the importance of the work in hand. Three presses were constantly employed, and ten thousand sheets were struck off every day.‡

At last, on the 21st Sept., appeared the complete edition of three thousand copies in two volumes, with the brief title, "The New Testament in German;—at Wittenberg." It bore no name of *man*. From that hour every German might obtain the Word of God at a small pecuniary cost.§

The new translation, written in the tone of the sacred books, in a language that was as yet in its virgin simplicity, and now first opening its full beauty, interested and delighted all classes, from the highest to the lowest. It was a national work—the people's book—nay, much more, it was the book of God. Even enemies could not withhold their commendation of this wonderful production, and there were some incautious partisans of the Reformation so carried away by the beauty of the new version, as to imagine they could recognize in it a second inspiration. It, indeed, served more than all Luther's own writings to diffuse a spirit of Christian piety. The great work of the sixteenth century was now placed on a rock whence nothing could dislodge it. The Bible, restored to the people, recalled the mind of man, which had for ages wandered in the endless labyrinths of scholastic teaching, to the heavenly springs of salvation. Hence, the success that attended this step was prodigious. All the copies were quickly disposed of. In December following, a second edition appeared; and by the year 1533, no less than seventeen editions had issued from the presses of Wittenberg; thirteen from Augsburg; twelve from Bale; one from Erfurth; one from Grimma; one from Leipzig; thirteen from Strasburg ||

Even while the first edition of the New Testament was passing through the press, Luther was already at work on a translation of the Old Testament. This labour, begun in 1522, was continued without intermission. He issued it in detached portions, as he finished them, in order to gratify the impatience of the public demand, and to make the purchase easy to the poor.

From Scripture and Faith, two streams issuing from

* Verum omnia nunc eliminare cœpinus Philippus et ego. (L. Epp. ii. p. 176.)

† Ingenti labore et studio. (L. Epp. p. 236.)

‡ Singulis diebus decies milia chartarum sub tribus prelis

.... (Ibid.)

§ A florin and a half, about a half-crown.

|| Gesch. d. deutsch. Bibel Uebersetz.

one and the same spring, the life of the Gospel has flowed, and still diffuses itself through the world. They bore directly against two established errors. Faith was met by the opposing Pelagian tendency of Catholicism. Scripture, in like manner, found arrayed against it the theory of tradition and the authority of Rome. Scripture led its reader to Faith, and Faith made him the disciple of the Word: "Man can do no meritorious work: the free grace of God, received through faith in Christ, alone saves him." Such was the doctrine proclaimed throughout Christendom. But this teaching must needs bring Christendom to the study of the Scripture. In truth, if faith in Christ is everything in Christianity, and if the observances and ordinances of the Church are nothing, it is not to the Church's teaching, but to Christ's word that we must adhere. The bond that unites to Christ will be everything to the believing soul. What signifies the outward link that connects him with a visible church, enslaved by the commandments of men? . . . Thus, as the doctrine of the Bible had impelled Luther's contemporaries toward Jesus Christ, their love for Jesus Christ, in its turn, impelled them towards the Bible. It was not, as some in our days have supposed, from a philosophic necessity, or from doubt, or a spirit of inquiry that they reverted to Scripture, it was because they found *there* the words of *Him they loved*. "You have preached Christ," said they to the Reformer, "let us now hear him *himself*." And they caught at the sheets given to the world, as a letter coming to them from heaven.

But if the Bible was thus joyfully welcomed by such as loved the Lord Jesus Christ, it was scornfully rejected by such as preferred the traditions and ordinances of men. This publication by Luther was the signal of violent persecution. Rome trembled at the report brought thither. The pen which transcribed the sacred oracles was, in truth, that visionary pen which Frederic had beheld in his dream, reaching to the seven hills, and discomposing the pope's tiara: The monk in his cell, the prince upon his throne, uttered a cry of anger. The ignorant priests were dismayed at the thought that burghers, and even rustics, would now be able freely to discuss with them the precepts of the Lord. The king of England denounced the work to the Elector, Frederic, and to Duke George, of Saxony. But before this, and as early as the November previous, the Duke had commanded all his subjects to deliver up every copy of Luther's New Testament into the hands of the magistrate. Bavaria, Brandenburg, Austria, and all the states in the interest of Rome, passed similar decrees. In some parts, a sacrilegious bonfire, composed of the sacred books, was lighted in the public squares.* Thus did Rome, in the sixteenth century, renew the efforts by which heathenism had attempted to uproot the religion of Jesus Christ, at the period when the reins were escaping from the hands of the Priests of Idol worship. But what power can stay the triumphant progress of the Gospel? "Even after I had prohibited the sale," wrote Duke George, "many thousand copies were sold and read in my states."

God even used, for the purpose of making known His word, the very hands that were essaying to destroy it. The Romish divines, seeing they could not stop the circulation of the Reformer's work, themselves put forth a translation of the New Testament. It was no other than Luther's, here and there altered by the new editors. No hinderance was offered to the reading of it. Rome had not yet experienced, that wherever the

* Qui et alicubi in unum congesti rogam publice combustisunt.

Word of God took root, its own power began to totter. Joachim, of Brandenburg, gave license to his subjects to read any translation of the Bible, in Latin or in German, provided it were not from the presses of Wittenberg. The German nations, and more especially the people of Brandenburg, made, in this way, a decided advance in the knowledge of the truth.

The publication of the New Testament in the vernacular tongue, is among the memorable epochs of the Reformation. If the marriage of Feldkirchen had been the first step in the progress of its influence from the sphere of teaching to that of social life:—if the abolition of monastic vows had been the second, and the establishment of the Supper of the Lord, a third stage of this transition, the publication of the New Testament was, perhaps, even more important than all the rest. It wrought an entire change in the aspect of society—not alone in the priest's presbytery—not merely in the monk's cell and the noble's closet, but more than this, in the interior of the dwellings of the nobles, citizens, and peasantry. When Christians began to read the Bible in their families, Christianity itself underwent a palpable change. Thence ensued changed habits, improved morals, other conversations, in short, a new new life. With the publication of the New Testament, it seemed as if the Reformation had passed the threshold of the college, and took its proper place at the hearths of the people.

The effect that followed was incalculable. The Christianity of the Primitive Church was, by the publication of the Holy Scriptures, presented full before the eyes of the nation, recovered from the oblivion in which for centuries it had lain hid—and the sight was, of itself, enough to justify the charges that had been brought against Rome. The least instructed, provided they did but know how to read—women, artisans, (we are quoting from one of that age, who was bitterly opposed to the Reformation,) studied the New Testament with eager delight.* They carried it about with them, learnt portions by heart, and saw, in its precious pages, the proof of the perfect accordance of that Reformation which was Luther's aim, with the revelation that God had given.

Meanwhile, it was in detached portions only that the teaching of the Bible and of the Reformation had till then been set forth. A certain truth had been declared in one tract—a certain error exposed in another. The field of the Church presented the appearance of a plain, on which here and there were seen, without order or arrangement, the ruins of the old, and the materials of a new, structure; but as yet the new edifice was wanting. True it is, that the publication of the New Testament met this want. The Reformation might say, with that book in its hand—"Behold my system." But as each individual may contend that his system is none other than that of the Bible, the Reformation seemed called to set forth, in order, what it found in Holy Scripture. This was a work Melancthon now contributed in its name.

In the development of his theology, Melancthon's steps had been deliberate; but they were taken with firmness, and the result of his enquiries was courageously made known to all. As early as 1520, he had declared that some of the seven sacraments were, in his judgment, mere imitations of Jewish feasts; and that he considered the asserted infallibility of the pope as a proud pretension, directly at variance with Scripture and sound judgment. "We want more than a Hercules,"† remarked he, "to make a stand against such

doctrines." Here we see that Melancthon had been led to the same conclusion as Luther, by a more studious and calm process of conviction. The time had now come that he, in his turn, should publicly confess his faith.

In 1521, during his friend's captivity in the Wartburg, his celebrated "*Loci Communes*," had presented to Christian Europe a body of doctrine, based on solid grounds, and admirably compacted. The tracings of a simple and majestic outline appeared before the wondering minds of that generation. As the translation of the New Testament had justified the Reformation to the people, so Melancthon's *Loci Communes* served to justify it in the judgment of the learned.

For fifteen centuries the Church had existed on the earth without having seen such a work. Relinquishing the common argumentation of scholastic theology, the friend of Luther had at last given to Christendom a system of divinity, derived entirely from Scripture. In it, the reader was conscious of a breath of life, a quickness of understanding, a force of conviction, and a simplicity of statement, which strikingly contrasted with the subtle and pedantic method of the schools. The coolest judgments, and the most exact divines, were alike impressed with admiration.

Erasmus designated this work a wondrous army, ranged in order of battle against the pharisaic tyranny of false teachers;‡ and while he confessed that on some points he did not agree with the author, he nevertheless added, that having always loved him, he had never loved him so much as after reading this work: "So beautiful is the proof that it affords," said Calvin, when presenting it at a subsequent period to the French people, "that the most perfect simplicity is the noblest method of handling the Christian doctrine."§

But no one experienced a finer joy than Luther; to the last this work was to him a theme of wonder. The occasional sounds his trembling hand had drawn, in the deep emotion of his soul, from the chords of prophets and apostles, were here blended together in entrancing harmony. Those solid masses of truth which he had hewn from the quarry of Holy Scripture, were here raised and compacted together in one majestic edifice. He was never tired of commending the work to the attention of the youths who came to study at Wittenberg. "If you would wish to become divines," said he, "read Melancthon."¶

In Melancthon's judgment, a deep sense of the wretched state to which man is reduced by *sin*, is the foundation on which we must build the teaching of Christian theology. This universal evil is the primary fact, the leading truth whence the science takes its departure; and it is this which forms the peculiar distinction of theology from the sciences which work their own advancement by the powers of reason.

The Christian divine, diving into the heart of man, revealed its laws and mysterious motions, as the philosopher in later times has disclosed the laws and attractions of material bodies. "Original sin," said he, "is an inclination born with us—an impulse which is agreeable to us—a certain influence which leads us into the commission of sin, and which has passed from Adam upon all his posterity. Just as there is found in fire a native energy which mounts upward, just as in the loadstone we observe a natural power of attracting steel, just so do we find in man a primary impulse impelling him to that which is evil. I admit freely

* Video dogmatum aciem pulchre instructam adversus tyrannidem pharisaicam. (Er. Epp. p. 949.)

† La. Somme de Théologie, par Philippe Melancthon. (Geneve, 1551. John Calvin aux lecteurs.)

‡ "Librum invictum," said he another time, "non solum immortalitate sed et canone ecclesiastice dignum." (De ser. vo arbitrio.)

* . . . Mulieres, et quilibet idiotæ . . . avidissime legerent. (Cochläus, p. 50.)

† Adversus quas non uno nobis, ut ita dicam, Hercule opus est. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 137.)

that in Socrates, Xenocrates, Zeno, were seen temperance and chastity; these exterior virtues were found in men whose hearts were unpurified, and they proceeded out of the love of self, hence we should regard them in reality, not as virtues, but vices.* Such language may sound harsh, but not so if we enter into Melancthon's real meaning. None more prompt than he to acknowledge virtues in the great men of antiquity, which entitled them to the esteem of men; but he laid down the solemn truth, that the highest law given by God to all his creatures is to *love Him above all things*. If, then, man is doing that which God commands—does it, not from love to God, but from love of self—can we think that God will accept him, thus daring to substitute *self* in place of His own infinite Majesty? And must it not be enough to vitiate any action that it involves in a direct rebellion against the sovereignty of God?

The Wittenberg divine proceeded to show how man is rescued from this wretched state: "The apostle," said he, "invites thee to contemplate at the Father's right hand, the Son of God, our great mediator, ever living to make intercession for us,† and he calls upon thee to believe assuredly that thy sins are pardoned, and thyself counted righteous and accepted by the Father, for the sake of that Son who died upon the cross."

A peculiar interest attaches to this first edition of the *Loci Communes*, from the manner in which the German divine speaks of Free Will. We find him recognising, even more clearly than had been done by Luther, (for he was more of a theologian,) that this doctrine could not be separated from that which constituted the very essence of the Reformation. Man's justification in the sight of God, is by FAITH ALONE, was the first point. This faith wrought in man's heart by the ALONE GRACE OF GOD, was the second. Melancthon saw clearly that to allow any ability in the natural man to *believe*, would, in this second point, entirely set aside that grand doctrine of grace which is asserted in the first. He was too discerning—too deeply instructed in the Scriptures, to be misled on so important a question. But he went too far: instead of confining himself to the religious bearing of the question, he entered upon metaphysics. He laid down a sort of fatalism, which might lead his readers to think of God as the author of evil, and which consequently has no foundation in Scripture:—"Since whatever happens," said he, "happens by necessity, agreeably to the divine foreknowledge, it is plain that our will hath no liberty whatever."‡

But the principal object Melancthon had in view, was to present theology as a system of devotion—The schools had so dried up the generally received creed, as to leave it destitute of life. The office of the Reformation was to reanimate this lifeless creed. In succeeding editions, Melancthon felt the necessity for great clearness in doctrinal statements.§ In 1521, however, it was not so much the case. "The knowledge of Christ," said he, "is found in the knowledge of the blessings derived through him. Paul writing to

the Romans, and desiring to sum up the Christian doctrine, does not set about treating philosophically of the Trinity, the Incarnation, Creation, active or passive. What, then, are his themes?—the Law, Sin, Grace. On our instruction in these, depends our knowledge of Christ."*

The publication of this treatise was of singular service to the cause of the truth. Calumnies stood refuted—prejudices were dissipated. Among the religious, the wordly, and the learned, the genius of Melancthon was admired, and his character esteemed and loved. Even such as had no personal knowledge of the author were conciliated to his creed by this work. The vigour and occasional violence of Luther's language had offended many; but in Melancthon, an elegance of composition, a discriminating judgment, and a remarkable clearness and arrangement were seen engaged in the exposition of those mighty truths that had aroused the slumbering world. The work was rapidly bought up, and read with avidity. His gentleness and modesty won all hearts, while his elevation of thought commanded their respect; and the higher classes, who had been hitherto undecided, were captivated by a wisdom which had at last found so noble an utterance.

On the other hand, such of the opposers of the truth as had not been humbled by the energy of Luther, were, for a while, silenced and disconcerted by the appearance of Melancthon's tract. They had found another man as worthy as Luther to be a mark for their hatred. "Alas!" they exclaimed, "alas for Germany! to what new extremity shall we be brought by this last birth!"†

The *Loci Communes* passed through sixty-seven editions between 1521 and 1595, without including translations. Next to the Bible, this work may have mainly contributed to the establishment of the evangelical doctrine.

While the "grammarian," Melancthon, was by this happy co-operation aiding the efforts of Luther, schemes of a violent character were again planning by his formidable enemies. At the news that he had effected his escape from the Wartburg, and appeared again on the world's stage, the rage of his former adversaries returned.

Luther had been rather more than three months at Wittenberg, when a rumour, repeated by common fame, brought him the intelligence that one of the greatest monarchs of Christendom had risen up against him. Henry VIII. head of the house of Tudor, a prince descended from the families of York and Lancaster, and in whom, after torrents of bloodshed, the red and white roses were at length united, the puissant king of England, who boldly advanced the obsolete authority of his crown over the continent, and more particularly over France—had put forth an answer to the poor monk of Wittenberg. "I hear much commendation of a little treatise by the king of England," wrote Luther to Lange, on the 26th of June, 1522.‡

Henry the Eighth was then in his thirty-first year—"tall, strong-built, and proportioned, and had an air of authority and empire,"§ and a countenance that expressed the vivacity of his mind. Vehement in temper, bearing down whatever stood in the way of his passions, and thirsting for distinctions, the defects of

* *Loci communes theologici*. Bale, 1521, p. 35—a rare edition. See for the subsequent revisions, that of Erlangen, 1828, a reprint of that of Bale, 1661.

† Vult te intueri Filium Dei sedentem ad dexteram Patris, mediatorem interpellantem pro nobis. (Ibid.)

‡ Quandoquidem omnia que veniunt, necessario veniunt juxta livinam predestinationem, nulla est voluntas nostræ libertas. (Loci comm. theol. Bale, 1521, p. 36.)

§ See the edition of 1561, reprinted in 1829, pages 14 to 44, the several chapters—De tribus personis;—De divinitate Filii;—De duabus naturis in Christo;—Testimonia quod Filius sit persona; testimonia refutantia Arianos; De discernendis proprietatibus humanæ et divinæ nature Christi—De Spiritu sancto, &c. &c.

* Hoc est Christum cognoscere, beneficia ejus cognoscere, &c. (Ibid.)

† Hæu! infelicem hoc nove partu Germaniam! . . . (Cæchl.)
‡ Jactant libellum regis Angliæ; sed leum illum suspicor sub pelle lectum—an allusion to Lee, Henry the Eighth's chaplain, punning on this name. (L. Epp. ii. p. 213.)

§ He was tall, strong-built, and proportioned, and had an air of authority and empire. (Collier's Eccles. Hist. of Great Britain, fol. ii. 1.)

his character, were for a time mistaken for the impetuosity of youth—and there was no lack of flatteries to confirm him in them. Often would he resort, accompanied by his favourite companions, to the house of his chaplain, Thomas Wolsey, the son of a butcher, of Ipswich. This man, who was gifted with great abilities, of excessive ambition, and unbounded audacity, being patronised by the Bishop of Winchester, the king's chancellor, had rapidly risen in his master's favour. He would often allure the young prince to his residence by the attraction of riotous pleasures,* in which he would not have ventured to indulge within the walls of his own palace. This is recorded by Polydore Vergil, then sub-collector of the pope's revenue in England. In these orgies, the chaplain outdid the licentiousness of the younger courtiers. He sang, danced, laughed, played the buffoon, took part in indecent conversation, and fenced.† He soon attained the highest seat at the council board, and the whole kingly power passing into his hands, he was enabled to stipulate with foreign princes for a reward for his influence in foreign affairs.

Henry passed whole days in balls, banqueting, and justing—thus squandering the treasure which the avarice of his father had accumulated. Splendid tournaments succeeded each other without intermission. On these occasions, the king, who was easily distinguished from the other combatants by his manly beauty, took the lead.‡ If the contest seemed for a moment doubtful, his expertness or strength, or else the skilful policy of his antagonists, decided the victory in his favour, and the arena resounded with shouts of applause. Such easy triumphs inflated the vanity of the young prince, and there was no pinnacle of earthly grandeur to which he would not have aspired. The Queen was often present on such occasions. Her grave deportment, melancholy look, and constrained and depressed manner, presented a marked contrast to the tumultuous glitter of such festivities. Henry VIII., soon after his accession, had from political considerations, contracted marriage with Catherine of Arragon, five years older than himself, widow of his brother Arthur and aunt to Charles V. While her husband followed his pleasures, the virtuous Catherine, whose piety was such as Spain has been noted for, was accustomed to leave her bed in the dead of the night to take a silent part in the prayers of the monks.§ She would kneel without cushion or carpet. At five, after taking a little rest, she would again rise, and assume the habit of St. Francis; for she had been admitted into the third order of that saint.|| Then, hastily throwing over her the royal garments, she was in church at six, to join in the holy offices.

Two beings, living in such different atmospheres, could not long continue united.

Catherine, however, was not the only representative of Romish devotion at the court of Henry VIII.

* *Domus sue voluptatum omnium sacrarium fecit, quo regem frequenter ducebat.* (Polyd. Vergilius, Angl. Hist. Bale, 1570, fol. p. 633.)—Polydore Vergil seems to have been a sufferer by Wolsey's pride, and to have been perhaps inclined, on that account, to exaggerate that minister's errors.

† *Cum illis adolescentibus una psallebat, saltabat, sermones leporis plenos habebat, ridebat, jocabatur.* (Polyd. Vergilius, Angl. Hist. Bale, 1570, fol. p. 633.)

‡ *Eximia corporis forma præditus, in qua etiam regie majestatis augusta quedam species elucebat.* (Sanders de Schismate Anglicano, p. 4.)—The work of Sanders, the Pope's nuncio, must be read with much suspicion, for unfounded and calumnious statements are not wanting in it—as has been remarked by Cardinal Quirini, and the Roman Catholic doctor Lingard.—(See the History of England, by this last, vol. vi. p. 173.)

§ *Surgebat media nocte ut nocturnis religiosorum precibus interesset.* (Sanders, p. 5.)

|| *Sub regio vestitū Divi Francisci habitū utebatur.* (Sanders, p. 5.)

John Fisher, bishop of Rochester, then nearly seventy years of age, and distinguished alike for his learning and strict morals, was the object of universal veneration. He had been for a long period, the oldest counsellor of Henry VII., and the Duchess of Richmond, grandmother to Henry VIII., had, on her death-bed, confided to him the youth and inexperience of her grandson. The king, in the midst of his excesses, long continued to revere the aged bishop as a father.

A much younger man than Fisher, a layman and civilian, had, at this time, attracted general attention by his genius and noble character. His name was Thomas More. He was the son of one of the judges of the Court of King's Bench. In poor circumstances, of temperate habits, and unwearied application, he, at the age of twenty, had sought to mortify the passions of youth by wearing a hair-shirt, and by self-inflicted scourgings. One day, when summoned to the presence of Henry VIII., at a moment when he was attending mass, he replied—"The king's service must give way to the service of God." Wolsey introduced him to Henry, who employed him in various embassies, and lavished on him much kindness. He would often send for him to converse with him on astronomy, and at other times concerning Wolsey, or on disputed points of theology.

The king was, to say the truth, not altogether unacquainted with the doctrines of Rome. It even appears, that, had prince Arthur lived to ascend the throne, Henry was destined to the archiepiscopal see of Canterbury. In his mind and life were strangely blended Thomas Aquinas—St. Bonaventura—tournaments—banquetings—Elizabeth Blount, and others of his mistresses. Masses set to music by himself were chaunted in his chapel.

From the time Henry VIII. first heard of Luther, his indignation broke forth; and no sooner did the decree of the Diet of Worms reach England than he gave orders that the Pontiff's bull against the Reformer's writings should be carried into execution.† On the 12th of May, 1521, Thomas Wolsey, who together with the rank of Chancellor of England, held that of Cardinal and Roman Legate, repaired in solemn procession to St. Paul's Church. Swollen by excess of pride, he assumed to rival the pomp of royalty itself. He was accustomed to seat himself in a gold chair, slept in a golden bed, and dined on a table covered with cloth of gold.‡ On this occasion he displayed his utmost state. His household, to the number of 800 persons, comprising barons, knights, sons of the first families, who had entered his service as a step toward the service of the state, attended the haughty prelate. His garments shone with gold and silk, (he was the first ecclesiastic who had ventured to assume such sumptuous apparel.)§ Even the horse-cloths and harness were of the like costly materials. Before him walked a priest of lofty stature, bearing a silver pillar, surmounted by a cross. Behind him another stately ecclesiastic, holding in his hand the archiepiscopal crozier of York; a nobleman at his side carried his cardinal's hat.|| Others of the nobility—the prelates—the ambassadors of the Pope and of the Emperor joined the cavalcade, and were followed by a long line of mules, bearing chests overhung with rich and brilli-

* *Legebat studioso libros divi Thomæ Aquinatis.* (Polyd. Vergil, p. 634.)

† *Primum liberis Lutheranos, quorum magnus jam numerus per venerat in manus suorum Anglorum, comburendos curavit.* (Ibid. p. 664.)

‡ *Uti sella aurea, uti pulvino aureo, uti velo aureo ad mensam.* (Ibid. p. 664.)

§ *Primum episcoporum et cardinalium, vestitum exteriorum sericum sibi induit.* (Polyd. Vergil, p. 633.)

|| *Galerum cardinalium ordinis insignem, sublime a ministro præferbat . . . super altare collocabat . . .* (Ibid. p. 645.)

ant stuffs; and in this pompous procession the several parties that composed it were carrying to the pile the writings of the poor monk of Wittenberg. On reaching the church, the proud priest deposited his cardinal's hat on the altar itself. The virtuous Bishop of Rochester took his place at the foot of the cross, and with accents of strong emotion, preached earnestly against heresy. After this, the attendants drew near bearing the writings of the heresiarch, and they were devoutly consumed in the presence of a vast concourse of spectators. Such was the first public announcement of the Reformation to the people of England.

Henry did not rest there. This prince whose sword was ever uplifted against his adversaries, his wives, and his favourites, wrote to the Elector Palatine—"Surely, it is no other than the devil, who, by the agency of Luther, has kindled this wide spreading conflagration. If Luther will not retract, let him and his writings be committed to the flames."*

But this was not all. Convinced that the progress of heresy was mainly ascribable to the extreme ignorance of the German princes, Henry conceived that the moment was arrived for the exhibition of his own learning. The recollection of the triumph of his battle-axe did not permit him to doubt of the victory he should gain by his pen. But another passion, vanity—ever large in little minds spurred on the royal purpose. He was mortified by the circumstance, that he had no title to set against that of *Most Christian* and *Catholic* borne by the kings of France and Spain, and had for a long time solicited from the court of Rome a similar distinction. What course could more likely obtain it than an attack upon heresy! Henry, then, laid aside his royal dignity, and descended from his throne into the arena of theological dispute. He pressed into his service Thomas Aquinas, Peter Lombard, Alexander of Hale, and Bonaventura, and gave to the world his "*Defence of the Seven Sacraments, against Martin Luther, by the most Invincible King of England and of France, Lord of Ireland, Henry, the Eighth of that name.*"

"I will put myself in the forefront of the Church, to save her," said the king of England in this book—"I will receive into my bosom the poisoned darts of her assailant; † what I hear constrains me to this. All the servants of Jesus Christ, whatever be their age, sex, or rank, should rise up against the common enemy of Christendom,"‡

"Let us be doubly armed with the heavenly armour to conquer with the arms of truth, him who fights with those of error; but also an earthly armour, so that, should he show himself obstinate in malice, the hand of the executioner may silence him; and thus for once at least, he may be useful to the world, by the terrible example of his death."§

Henry VIII. could not conceal the contempt which he entertained for his feeble adversary. "This man," says the royal theologian, "seems to be in pains of labour; he travails in birth; and lo! he brings forth but wind. Take away the audacious covering of proud words, with which he clothes his absurdities—as an ape is clothed with purple—and what remains—a wretched and empty sophism."||

The king defends, successively, the mass, penance, confirmation, marriage, orders, and extreme unction.

* Knapp's Nachlese, ii. p. 468.

† Meque adversus venenata jacula hostis eam oppugnantis objicerem. (*Adversus septem sacramentorum adv. M. Lutherum in prologo.*)

‡ Omnis Christi servus, omnis ætas, omnis sexus, omnis ordo con surgat. (*Ibid.*)

§ Et qui nocuit verbo malitie, supplicii prosit exemplo. (*Ibid.*)

|| Mirum est quanto nixu parturiens, quam nihil nisi merum ventum. . . (*Ibid.*)

He is not sparing of hard epithets toward his adversary; styling him sometimes an infernal wolf, at others a venomous serpent, or a limb of the devil, and he even cast doubts on Luther's sincerity. In short, Henry VIII. crushes the mendicant monk with his royal anger, "and writes," says an historian, "as it were with his sceptre."**

It must, however, be confessed, that the book was not ill written, considering the author and the age in which he wrote. The style is not altogether devoid of force. The public of the day set no bounds to its praises. The theological treatise of the powerful King of England, was received with a profusion of adulation. "The most learned work that ever the sun saw," is the expression of some.† "It can only be compared with the works of Saint Augustine," said others.—"He is a Constantine, a Charlemagne—nay, more," echoed others, "he is a second Solomon."

These flattering reports soon reached the continent. Henry had desired his ambassador at Rome, John Clarke, dean of Windsor, to present his book to the Sovereign Pontiff. Leo X. received the ambassador in full consistory: Clarke presented the royal work to him with these words: "The king, my master, assures you, now that he has refuted the errors of Luther with the pen, he is ready to combat his adherents with the sword." Leo, touched with this promise, answered, that the king's book could not have been composed but by the aid of the Holy Spirit, and conferred upon Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith"—still borne by the Sovereigns of England!

The reception which the work met with at Rome, contributed not a little to attract the general attention. In a few months, many thousand copies, from different presses, got into circulation; ‡ so that, to use the words of Cochläus, "the whole Christian world was filled with wonder and joy."§

Such extravagant praises served to augment the already insufferable vanity of the head of the race of Tudor. He seemed himself to entertain no doubt, that he was inspired by the Holy Spirit.¶ Henceforward, he could not endure contradiction. Papal authority was, in his view, no longer at Rome, but at Greenwich—and infallibility was vested in his own person. This proud assumption served greatly to promote, at a later period, the Reformation in England.

Luther read Henry's book with a smile, mingled with disdain, impatience, and indignation. The falsehoods and insults it contained, but above all, the air of pity and contempt which the king affected, irritated the doctor of Wittenberg to the highest degree. He thought that the pope had publicly approved the book, and that, on all sides, the enemies of the Gospel were triumphing over the Reformation and the Reformer, as already overthrown, increased his indignation:—and why, indeed, thought he, should he temporise? Was he not contending in the cause of One greater than all the kings of this earth? The gentleness that the Gospel inculcates seemed to him out of place. An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth. And, indeed, he went beyond all bounds—persecuted, railed at, hunted down, wounded—the furious lion turned upon his pursuers, and set himself determinedly to crush his enemy. The elector, Spalatin, Melancthon, Bugenhagen, essayed, in vain, to appease him. They tried to dissuade him from replying; but nothing could stop him. "I won't

* Collier. Eccl. Hist. Gr. Br. p. 17.

† Burnet, Hist. of the Ref. of England, i. p. 30.

‡ Intra paucos menses, liber ejus a multis chalcographicis in multa millia multiplicatus. (Cochläus, 44.)

§ Ut totum orbem christianum et gaudio et admiratione preleverit.

¶ He was brought to fancy it was written with some degree of inspiration. (Burnet in pref.)

be gentle toward the King of England," said he: I know it is useless to humble myself, to compromise, entreat, and try peaceful methods. I will show these wild beasts, who are, every day, running at me with their horns, how terrible I can be; I will turn upon my pursuers, I will provoke, and exasperate my adversary, until, exhausting all his strength, he falls, and is for ever annihilated.* "If this heretic does not retract," says the new Thomas, Henry VIII., "he must be burnt!" Such are the weapons which are now employed against me: the fury and the faggots of stupid asses and hogs of the Thomas Aquinas brood.† Well, then, be it so! Let these swine come on, if they dare; aye, let them even burn me—here I am, awaiting them. My ashes, after death, though cast into a thousand seas, shall rise up in arms, and pursue, and swallow up their abominable troop. Living, I will be the enemy of the Papacy—and burnt, I will be its ruin! Go, then, swine of St. Thomas, do what you will. Ever will you find Luther like a bear upon your road, and like a lion upon your path. He will fall upon you from all sides, and give you no rest until he shall have ground your iron brains, and pulverized your brazen foreheads."

Luther begins by reproaching Henry VIII. with having supported his statements merely by decrees and doctrines of man. "As to me," says he, "I do not cease my cry of 'The Gospel! the Gospel!—Christ! Christ!'—and my enemies are as ready with their answer—'Custom! custom!—Ordinances! ordinances!—Fathers! fathers!'—'That your faith should not stand in the wisdom of men, but in the power of God,' says St. Paul. And the Apostle, by this thunder-clap from heaven, at once overturns and disperses, as the wind scatters the dust, all the foolish thoughts of such a one as this Henry! Alarmed and confounded, the Aquinases, Papists, Henrys, fall prostrate before the power of those words."‡

He proceeds to refute in detail the king's book, and exposes his arguments, one after the other, with remarkable clearness, energy, and knowledge of the Scriptures, and of Church history; but, also, with a boldness and contempt, and at times a violence, which need not surprise us.

Toward the end, Luther's indignation is again aroused, that his adversary should only have drawn his arguments from the Fathers; for on them was made to turn the whole controversy: "To all the decisions of Fathers, of men, of angels, of devils, I oppose," says he, "not the antiquity of custom, not the habits of the many, but the word of the Eternal God—the Gospel—which they themselves are obliged to admit. It is to this book that I keep—upon it I rest—in it I make my boast—in it I triumph and exult over Papists, Aquinases, Henrys, sophists, and all the swine of hell. § The King of Heaven is on my side—therefore I fear nothing, though even a thousand Augustines, a thousand Cyprians, and a thousand such churches, as that of which this Henry is Defender, should rise up against me. It is a small matter that I should despise and re-

vile an earthly king, since he himself has not feared, by his writings, to blaspheme the King of Heaven, and profane his Holy name by the most daring lies."*

"Papists!" he exclaims, in conclusion, "will you never have done with your vain attempts? Do, then, what ye list. Notwithstanding, it must still come to pass, that popes, bishops, priests, monks, princes, devils, death, sin—and all that is not Jesus Christ, or in Jesus Christ—must fall and perish before the power of this Gospel, which I, Martin Luther, have preached."†

Thus spake an unfriended monk. His violence certainly cannot be excused, if we judge of it according to the rule to which he himself was ever appealing, namely, God's word. It cannot even be justified, by pleading in extenuation, the grossness of the age—for Melancthon knew how to observe courtesy of language in his writings,)—nor can we plead the energy of his character. If something is allowed for this, more must be ascribed to the violence of his passions. It is better, then, that we should give our judgment against it. Nevertheless, justice requires the remark, that, in the sixteenth century, this extravagant language was not so strange as it would be at this time. The learned were, like the nobles, a kind of estate. Henry, in attacking Luther, had put himself in the rank of a man of letters. Luther replied to him according to the law which obtained in the republic of letters, viz. that the truth of what is stated is to be considered, and not the condition in life of him who states it. Let it be added, also, that when this same king turned against the pope, the insults heaped upon him by the Romish writers, and by the pope himself, far exceeded all that Luther had ever fulminated against him.

Besides, if Luther did call Doctor Eck an ass, and Henry VIII. a hog, he indignantly rejected the intervention of the secular arm; at the time that the former was writing a dissertation to show that heretics ought to be burned, and the latter was erecting scaffolds, that he might follow out the precepts of the Chancellor of Ingolstadt.

Great was the emotion at the king's court, when Luther's reply arrived. Surrey, Wolsey, and the rest of the courtiers, put a stop to the fetes and pageantry at Greenwich, to vent their indignation in sarcasms and abuse. The aged Bishop of Rochester, who had looked on with delight at the young prince, formerly confided to his care, breaking a lance in defence of the church, was stung to the quick by the monk's attack. He replied to it at the moment. His words gave a good idea of the age, and of the church: "Take us the little foxes that spoil the vines, says Christ, in Solomon's Song; from this we learn," said Fisher, "that we ought to lay hands upon heretics before they grow big. Luther is become a large fox, so old, so cunning, so mischievous, that it is very difficult to catch him. What do I say—a fox? He is a mad dog, a ravening wolf, a cruel she-bear; or rather, all these put together, for the monster includes many beasts within him."‡

Thomas More also descended into the arena, to engage with the Monk of Wittenberg. Although a laic, his zeal against the Reformation amounted to fanaticism, if it would not have led him even to the shedding of blood. When young men of family take up the cause of the papacy, they often, in their violence, outdo the clergy themselves. "Reverend brother, father tippler, Luther, apostate of the order of St. Augustine, (misshapen bacchanalian,) of either faculty,

* Neo magnus si ego regem terræ contemno. (Cont. Hen. reg. p. 344. verso.)

† 3. L. Opp. Leipz. xviii. p. 209.

‡ Canem dixissen rabidum, imo lupum rapacissimum, aut sevisissimam quandam ursam. (Cochleus, p. 60.)

* (L. Opp. ii. p. 236.) Mea in ipsos exercebo cornua, irritatur Satanam, donec effusus viribus et cornatibus corrui in se ipso.

† Ignis et furor insulsiſſimorum aſinorum et Thomisticorum porcorum. (Contra Henricum Regem. Opp. Lat. ii. p. 331.) There is something in this way of speaking which recalls to our mind the language of the great agitator of Ireland, except that there is more force and nobility of thought in the orator of the sixteenth century, than in him of the nineteenth. (See *Revue Britannique*, Nov. 1836: "The Reign of O'Connell"—"Soaped wine of civilized society." &c. p. 346.)

‡ Confusi et prostrati jacent a facie verborum istius tonitru. (Contra Henricum Regem. Opp. Lat. ii. p. 336.)

§ Hic sto, hic sedeo, hic maneo, hic glorior, hic triumpho, hic insulto papistis . . . (Contra Henricum regem. Opp. Lat. ii. p. 342.)

unlearned doctor of sacred theology."* Thus it is the Reformer is addressed by one of the most illustrious men of the age. Then he goes on to say, in explanation of the way in which Luther had composed his book, against Henry VIII.: "He assembled his companions, and bid them go each his own way to pick up scurrilities and insults. One frequented the public carriages and barges; another, the baths and gambling-houses; this one, the barbers' shops and low taverns; that one, the manufactory and the house of ill fame. They took down, in their pocket-books, all that they heard of insolence, of filthiness, of infamy, and, bringing back all these insults and impurities, they filled with them that dirty sink, which is called '*Luther's wit*.'" Then he continues: "If he retracts these lies and calumnies; if he puts away these fooleries, and this rage; if he swallows down his excrements again;† . . . he will find one who will soberly discuss with him. But if he continues as he has begun, joking, taunting, fooling, calumniating, vomiting out sinks and sewers . . . ‡ let others do what they choose, for ourselves, we prefer leaving the little man to his own anger and dirtiness."§ Thomas More would have done better to restrain his own coarseness; Luther never descended to such a style, neither did he return it any answer.

This work increased Henry's attachment to More. He even used to go and visit him, at his humble residence at Chelsea. After dinner—his arm leaning on the shoulder of his favourite, the king would walk round the garden with him, while the astonished wife of his flattered host, concealed behind a lattice, with her children, could not but keep her eyes fixed on them. After one of these walks, More, who well knew the man he had to deal with, said to his wife: "If my head could gain for him a single castle in France, he would not hesitate a moment to take it off."

The king, thus defended by the Bishop of Rochester, and by his future chancellor, needed not any more to resume his pen. Confounded at the thought of being treated, in the face of Europe, as any common writer, Henry VIII. abandoned the dangerous position he had taken; and, laying aside the pen of the theologian, had recourse to the more effectual measures of diplomacy.

An ambassador was despatched from his court, at Greenwich, with a letter to the elector, and to the dukes of Saxony. "The true serpent cast down from heaven, even Luther," says Henry, "casts out a flood of poison upon the earth. He excites revolt in the church of Jesus Christ; he abolishes its laws, insults the authorities, inflames the laity against the priesthood, both of these against the pope, the people against kings, and asks nothing better than to see Christians fighting against and destroying one another, and the enemies of our faith enjoying, with a savage grin, the scene of carnage.||

"What is this doctrine, which he calls evangelical, other than the doctrine of Wickliffe? Now, most honoured uncles, I know how your ancestors have la-

* Reverendus frater, potator, Lutherus. (Cochleus p. 61.)

† Si . . . suas roborat et sua relingat stercora. (Ibid. p. 62.)

‡ Sentinas, cloacas, latrinas . . . stercora. (Ibid. p. 63.)

§ Cum suis . . . et stercoribus . . . relinqueret. (Ibid.)

Cochleus, indeed, glories in the citation of these passages, choosing what, according to his taste, he thinks the finest parts of the work of Thomas More. M. Nisard, on the contrary, confesses, in his book on More, whose defence he undertakes with so much warmth and learning, that, in this writing, the expressions dictated by the anger of the Catholic are such, that the translation of them is impossible.

|| So ergiest er, gleichwie ein Schlang vom Himmel geworfen. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 212.) The original is in Latin—Velut a celo dejectas serpens, virus effundit in terras.

boured to destroy it; they pursued it as a wild beast, in Bohemia, and driving it till it fell into a pit, they shut it in there, and, barricaded it. You will not, I am sure, let it escape through your negligence, lest, making its way into Saxony, it should become master of the whole of Germany, and, with smoking nostrils, vomiting forth the fire of hell, spread that conflagration far and wide, which your nation has so often wished to extinguish in its blood.*

"Therefore it is, most worthy lords, I feel obliged to exhort you, and even to beseech you, by all that is most sacred, promptly to extinguish the cursed sect of Luther. Shed no blood, if it can be avoided; but if this heretical doctrine lasts, shed it without hesitation, in order that this abominable sect may disappear from under the heaven."†

The elector and his brother referred the king to the approaching council. Henry VIII. was thus as far as ever from his object. "So renowned a name mixed up in the dispute," says Paolo Sarpi, "served to give it a greater zest, and to conciliate general favour toward Luther, as is usually the case in combats and tournaments, where the spectators have always a leaning to the weakest, and delight to exaggerate the merit of his actions."‡

In fact, an immense movement was in progress. The Reformation, which, after the Diet of Worms, had been thought to be confined, together with its great teacher, in the turret-chamber of a strong castle, was breaking forth, on all sides of the empire, and even throughout Christendom. The two parties, until now, mixed up together, were beginning to separate, and the partisans of a monk, who had nothing on his side but the power of his words, were fearlessly taking their stand in the face of the followers of Charles V. and Leo X. Luther had only just left the Wartburg, the pope had excommunicated all his adherents, the imperial Diet had just condemned his doctrine, the princes were active in putting it down throughout the greatest part of the German states, the Romish priests were setting the public against it by their violent invective, foreign nations were requiring that Germany should sacrifice a man, whose attacks were formidable, even at a distance, and yet, this new sect, few in number, and among whose numbers there was no organization, no acting in concert, nothing, in short, of concentrated power, was already, by the energy of the faith engaged in it, and the rapidity of its conquests of the minds of men, beginning to cause alarm to the vast, ancient, and powerful sovereignty of Rome. Everywhere was to be seen, as in the first appearance of spring-time, the seed bursting forth from the earth, spontaneously and without effort. Every day some progress might be remarked. Individuals, village populations, country-towns, nay, large cities, joined in this new confession of the name of Jesus Christ. It was met by strong opposition and fierce persecution, but the mysterious power, which animated these people, was irresistible; and, though persecuted, they still went forward, facing the terrors of exile, imprisonment, or the stake, and were everywhere more than conquerors over their persecutors.

The monastic orders, which Rome had planted over the whole of Christendom, like nets for catching souls, and retaining them in their meshes, were among the first to burst their fetters, and to propagate the new doctrine in every part of the western church. The Augustines of Saxony had gone along with Luther, and, like him, formed that intimate acquaintance with the Word of Truth, which, making God their portion, dis-

* Und durch sein schädlich Anblasen das höllische Feuer ausbruke. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 213.)

† Oder aber auch mit blut Vergiessen. (Ibid.)

‡ Hist. Council of Trent, p. 16, 16.

abused their minds from the delusions of Rome, and its lofty pretensions. But in other convents of this order, the light of the Gospel had also shone forth—sometimes among the aged, who, like Staupitz, had preserved, in the midst of a leavened Christianity, the sound doctrines of truth, and were now asking of God that they might depart in peace, since their eyes had seen his salvation. Sometimes among the young, among those who had imbibed Luther's instructions with the characteristic eagerness of their years. At Nuremberg, Osnabruck, Dillingen, Ratisbon, in Hesse, in Wirtemberg, at Strasburgh, at Antwerp, the convents of the Augustines were returning to the faith of Christ, and, by their courageous confession, exciting the indignation of Rome.

But the movement was not confined to the Augustines. Men of decided character, among the other orders, followed their example; and, notwithstanding the clamours of their fellow-monks, who were unwilling to abandon their carnal observances, and undeterred by their anger and contempt, or by censure, discipline, and claustral imprisonment, they fearlessly lifted up their voices in favour of that holy and precious truth, which, after so many toilsome researches, so many distressing doubts and inward conflicts, they had at last found. In the majority of the cloisters, the most spiritual, devout, and instructed monks, declared themselves in favour of the Reformation. Eberlin and Kettelmach attacked, from the convents of the Franciscans at Ulm, the service of bondage of monkery, and the superstitious practices of the church, with an eloquence that might have drawn a whole nation after it. They introduced in their petition, in the same sentence, a request for the abolition of the houses of the monks, and those of prostitution. Another Franciscan, Stephen Kempe, preached the Gospel at Hamburg, and, though alone, set his face, like a flint, against the hatred, envy, threats, cunning, and violence of the priests—enraged to see the congregation forsake their altars, and flock, with enthusiasm, to his preaching.*

Sometimes it was the superiors themselves, who were first won over to the Reformation. The priors at Halberstadt, at Neunwerk, at Halle, at Sagan, set the example, in this respect, to those under their authority; at least, they declared that if a monk felt his conscience burdened by his monastic vows, so far from insisting on his remaining in the convent, they would themselves carry him out on their shoulders.†

In fact, in all parts of Germany might be seen monks leaving, at the gates of the monastery, their frock and cowl. Of these, some had been expelled by the violence of their fellows, or of their superiors; others, of a gentle and peaceable spirit, could no longer endure the continually recurring disputes, insults, recriminations, and animosities, which pursued them from morning till night. Of all these, the greater number were convinced that the monastic vows were inconsistent with the will of God and the Christian life. Some had gradually been led to this conviction; others had reached it at once, by considering a single text. The indolent, heavy ignorance, which generally marked the mendicant orders, communicated a feeling of disgust to men of more intelligent minds, who could no longer endure the society of such associates. A Franciscan, begging his way, one day presented himself, box in hand, at a blacksmith's shop, in Nuremberg. "Why don't you get your bread by working with your own hands?" inquired the blacksmith. Thus invited, the sturdy monk, tossing from him his habit, lifted the ham-

mer, and brought it down again with force upon the anvil. Behold the useless mendicant transformed into the industrious workman! The box and monk's gown were sent back to the monastery.*

It was not, however, the monks only, who ranged themselves under the standard of evangelical truth; a far greater number of priests proclaimed the new doctrine. But it needed not to be promulgated by human organs; it often acted upon men's minds, and aroused them from their deep slumber, without the instrumentality of a preacher.

Luther's writings were read in the boroughs, cities, and hamlets; even the village schoolmaster had his fireside audience. Some persons in each locality, impressed with what they had heard, consulted the Bible to relieve their uncertainty, and were struck with the marked contrast between the Christianity of Scripture and that which they had imbibed. Fluctuating, for a while, between Romanism and Holy Writ, they ere long took refuge in that living Word which had beamed into their minds with such new and cheering lustre. While these changes were passing in their minds, an evangelical preacher—he might be a priest, or, perhaps, a monk—would appear. He speaks with eloquence and authority,‡ proclaiming that Christ has fully atoned for the sins of his people, and proves from the sacred word, the vanity of human works and penance. Such preaching excited terrible opposition; the clergy, in numerous instances, aided by the magistrates, used every effort to bring back those whose souls were escaping from bondage. But there was, in the new preaching, an accordance with Scripture, and a secret, but irresistible energy, which won the heart, and subdued the most rebellious. Risking the loss of property, and, if needful, the loss of life itself, men deserted the barren, fanatical preachers of the papacy, and enrolled themselves under the Gospel banner.‡ Sometimes the people, irritated at the thought how long they had been duped, drove away the priests; but more frequently these latter, forsaken by their flocks, without tithes or offerings, went off, with desponding hearts, to earn a livelihood in distant places.§ While the defenders of the ancient hierarchy withdrew in sullen dejection, pronouncing maledictions, as they took leave of their former flocks—the people, whom truth and liberty filled with transports of joy, surrounded the new preachers with acclamations; and, in their eagerness to hear the Word, bore them, as in triumph, into the churches and pulpits.||

A word of power, from God himself, was remoulding society. In many instances, the people, or the principal citizens, wrote to a man whose faith they knew, urging him to come and instruct them; and he, for the love of the truth, would, at their call, at once leave his worldly interests, his family, friends, and country.¶ Persecution often compelled the favourers of the Reformation to abandon their dwellings—they arrive in a place where the new doctrines have never yet been heard of; they find there some hospitable roof, offering shelter to houseless travellers; there they speak of the Gospel, and read a few pages to the listening townsmen, and perhaps, by the intercession of their new acquaintances, obtain leave to preach a sermon in the church. Immediately the Word spreads

* Ranke, *Deutsche Geschichte*, ii. p. 70.

† *Eaque omnia prompte, alacriter, eloquenter.* (Cochläus, p. 52.)

‡ *Populo odibiles catholici concionatores.* (Cochläus, p. 52.)

§ *Ad extremam redacti inopiam, aliunde sibi victum quære cogenter.* (Ibid. p. 53.)

|| *Triumphantibus novis prædicatoribus qui sequacem populum verbo novi Evangelii sui ducebant.* (Ibid.)

¶ *Multi, omnia re domestica, in speciem veri Evangelii, parentes et amicos relinquebant.* (Ibid.)

* Der übrigen Prediger Feindschaft, Neid, Nachstellungen, Fraticlen und Schrecken. (Seckendorf, p. 559.)

† Seckendorf, p. 811. Stenzel. *Script. Res Siles.* I. p. 45.

like fire through the town, and no efforts can stay its progress.* If not permitted to preach in the church, the preaching took place elsewhere, and every place became a temple. At Husum, in Holstein, Herman Tast, then on his way from Wittemberg, and to whom the parochial clergy denied the use of the church, preached to an immense multitude under the shade of two large trees, adjoining the churchyard, not far from the spot where, seven centuries before, Anskar had first proclaimed the Gospel to a heathen auditory. At Armstadt, Gaspard Gittel, an Augustine friar, preached in the market-place. At Dantzic, the Gospel was proclaimed from an eminence outside the city. At Gosslar, a student of Wittemberg opened the new doctrines, in a plain planted with lime-trees, from which circumstance, the evangelical Christians there obtained the appellation of "The Lime-tree brethren."

While the priests were exposing, before the eyes of the people, their sordid avidity, the new preachers, in addressing them, said: "Freely we have received—freely do we give."† The observation often dropped by the new preachers in the pulpit, that Rome had of old given to the nations a corrupted Gospel, so that Germany now first heard the Word of Christ, in its divine and primitive beauty, made a deep impression upon all;‡ and the grand thought of the equality of all men in the universal brotherhood of Jesus Christ, elevated the souls which had so long borne the yoke of the feudality and papacy of the middle ages.§

Simple Christians were often seen with the New Testament in hand, offering to justify the doctrine of the Reformation. The Catholics, who adhered to Rome, drew back in dismay; for the study of holy Scripture was reserved to the priests and monks alone. The latter, being thus compelled to come forward, discussion ensued; but the priests and monks were soon overwhelmed with the Scriptures quoted by the laity, and at a loss how to meet them.¶ "Unhappily," says Cochläus, "Luther had persuaded his followers, that their faith ought only to be given to the oracles of holy writ." Often clamours were heard in the crowd, denouncing the shameful ignorance of the old theologians, who had, till then, been regarded by their own party as among the most eminently learned.¶

Men of the humblest capacity, and even the weaker sex, by the help of the knowledge of the Word, persuaded and prevailed with many. Extraordinary times produced extraordinary actions. At Ingolstadt, a young weaver read the works of Luther to a crowded congregation, in the very place where Doctor Eck was residing. The university-council of the same town, having resolved to oblige a disciple of Melancthon, to retract—a woman, named Argula de Staufen, volunteered to defend him, and challenged the doctors to a public disputation. Women, children, artisans, and soldiers, had acquired a greater knowledge of the Bible, than learned doctors, or surplized priests.

Christianity was presented in two-fold array, and under aspects strikingly contrasted. Opposed to the old defenders of the hierarchy, who had neglected the acquirement of the languages, and the cultivation of literature, (we have it on the authority of one of themselves,) was a generous-minded youth, most of them devoted to study, and the investigation of the Scriptures, and acquainted with the literary treasures of an-

tiquity.* Gifted with quickness of apprehension, elevation of soul, and intrepidity of heart, these youths soon attained such proficiency, that none could compete with them. It was not only the vigour of their faith which raised them above their contemporaries, but an elegance of style, a perfume of antiquity, a sound philosophy, and a knowledge of the world, of which the theologians, *veteris farinae*, (as Cochläus himself terms them,) were altogether destitute. So that on public occasions, on which these youthful defenders of the Reformation encountered the Romish doctors, their assault was carried on with an ease and confidence that embarrassed the dulness of their adversaries, and exposed them, before all, to deserved contempt.

The ancient structure of the Church was thus tottering under the weight of superstition and ignorance, while the new edifice was rising from its foundations of faith and learning. The elements of a new life were diffused among the general body of the people. Listless dulness was everywhere succeeded by an inquiring disposition and a thirst for information. An active, enlightened, and living faith, took the place of superstitious piety and ascetic meditations. Works of true devotedness superseded mere outward observance and penances. The pulpit prevailed over the mere mummeries of the altar, and the ancient and supreme authority of God's word was, at length, re-established in the Church.

The art of printing, that mighty engine, the discovery of which marks the fifteenth century, came to the assistance of the efforts we are now recording; and its weighty missiles were continually discharged against the enemy's walls.

The impulse which the Reformation gave to popular literature, in Germany, was prodigious. While the year 1513 saw only thirty-five publications, and 1517 but thirty-seven, the number of books increased with astonishing rapidity after the appearance of Luther's theses. We find, in 1518, seventy-one various publications recorded; in 1519, one hundred and eleven; in 1520, two hundred and eight; in 1521, two hundred and eleven; in 1522, three hundred and forty-seven; and, in 1523, four hundred and ninety-eight. And where were all these books published? Almost invariably at Wittemberg. And who was the author of them? For the most part, Luther. The year 1522, saw one hundred and thirty publications from the pen of the Reformer alone; and the following year, one hundred and eighty-three; while in this latter year, the total number of Roman Catholic publications amounted to but twenty.† Thus, the literature of Germany was formed in the *din* of controversy, as its religion arose in the midst of conflicts. Already it gave evidence of that learned, profound, bold, and stirring spirit, that latter times have seen in it. The genius of the nation now, for the first time, displayed itself without mixture, and in the very hour of its birth it received a baptism of fire from Christian enthusiasm.

Whatever Luther and his friends composed, others disseminated far and wide. Monks, who had been led to see the unlawfulness of the monastic obligations, and desirous of exchanging a life of indolence for one of activity, but too ignorant to be able themselves to proclaim the Word of God, traversed the provinces, and, visiting the hamlets and cottages, sold the writings of Luther and his friends. Germany was, ere long, overrun with these enterprising colporteurs.‡

* Totam vero juventutem, eloquentia litteris, linguarumque studio deditam . . . in partem suam traxit. (Cochläus, p. 54.)
† Panzer's Annalen der Deutsch Litt.—Ranke's Deutsch Gesch. ii. p. 79.

‡ Apostatarum, monasteriis relictis, infinitus jam erat numerus, in speciem bibliopolarum. (Cochläus, p. 54.)

* Ubi vero aliquos nacti fuissent amicos in ea civitate . . . (Cochläus, p. 54.)

† Mira eis erat liberalitas. (Ibid.)

‡ Eam usque diem nunquam germane predicatam. (Cochläus, p. 53.)

¶ Omnes aequales et fratres in Christo. (Ibid.)

¶ A laicis Lutheranis, plures Scripturæ locos, quam a monachis et presbyteris. (Ibid. p. 54.)

¶ Reputabantur catholici ab illis ignari Scripturarum. (Ibid.)

Printers and booksellers eagerly received whatever writings were directed to the defence of the Reformation, but would not look at those of the opposite party, as savouring generally of ignorance and barbarism.* If any of these men, however, ventured to sell a book in favour of papacy, or to offer it for sale at Frankfort or elsewhere, he drew upon himself a torrent of ridicule and sarcasm from dealers, publishers and scholars.† Vainly had the Emperor and the reigning princes flung severe edicts against the writings of the Reformers. As soon as an inquisitorial visit was determined on, the dealers, (who secretly obtained information of it,) would conceal the books which it was intended to prescribe; and the people, ever eager to possess that of which authority would deprive them, would afterward buy them up, and read them with redoubled ardour. It was not alone Germany that was the theatre of such incidents, the writings of Luther were translated into French, Spanish, English, and Italian, and were circulated among those nations.

If instruments so despised could yet inflict such disaster on the power of Rome, what was it when the monk of Wittenberg was heard to raise his voice? Shortly after the discomfiture of the strange prophets, Luther traversed the territory of Duke George, in a waggon, attired in plain clothes. His gown was carefully concealed, and the Reformer wore the disguise of a countryman. Had he been recognised, and so fallen into the hands of the exasperated Duke, it had, perhaps, been all over with him. He was on his way to preach at Zwickau, the birth-place of the pretended prophets. Scarcely was it known at Schneeberg, Annaberg, and the neighbouring towns, when numbers flocked to hear him. Fourteen thousand persons arrived in the town, and as there was no edifice which could contain so great a multitude, Luther preached from the balcony of the town-hall to twenty-five thousand auditors, who thronged the market-place—and of whom several had climbed to the top of some stones that lay heaped together near the hall.‡ The servant of Jesus Christ was expiating with fervour on the election of grace, when suddenly a shriek proceeded from the midst of the rivetted auditory. An old woman, of haggard mein, who had stationed herself on a large block of stones, was seen motioning with her lank arms as though she would controul the multitude just about to fall prostrate at the feet of Jesus. Her wild yells interrupted the preacher. "It was the devil," says Seckendorf, "who took the form of an old woman, in order to excite a tumult."§ But vain was the effort; the Reformer's word put the evil spirit to silence; an enthusiasm communicated itself from one to another, looks and warm greetings were exchanged, the people pressed each other by the hand, and the friars, not knowing what to make of what they saw, and unable to charm down the tempest, soon found it necessary to take their departure from Zwickau.

In the castle of Freyberg resided Duke Henry, brother of Duke George. His wife, the Princess of Mecklenburg, had, the preceding year, presented him with a son, who was christened Maurice. Duke Henry united the bluntness and coarse manners of the soldier to a passion for the pleasures of the table, and the pursuits of dissipation. He was, withal, pious after the manner of the age in which he lived; he had visited the Holy Land, and had also gone on pilgrimage to the shrine of St.

James, at Compostella. He would often say, "When I was at Compostella, I deposited a hundred gold florins on the altar of the Saint, and I said to him—'O! St. James, it is to gain your favour I have made this journey.' I make you a present of this money; but if those knaves (the priests) steal it from you, I can't help it; so you take care of it.'"*

Two friars, (a Franciscan and a Dominican,) disciples of Luther, had been for some time preaching the Gospel at Freyberg. The Duchess, whose piety had inspired her with a horror of heresy, attended their sermons, and was all astonishment at discovering that what she had been taught so much to dread, was the gracious word of a *Saviour*. Gradually, her eyes were opened; and she found peace in Jesus Christ. The moment Duke George learned that the Gospel was preached at Freyberg, he begged his brother to resist the introduction of such novelties. The Chancellor Stehelin, and the canons, seconded these representations with their fanatical zeal. A violent explosion took place at the court of Freyberg. Duke Henry sternly reprimanded and reproached his wife, and more than once the pious Duchess was known to shed tears over the cradle of her babe. By slow degrees, however, she melted the heart of her husband. This man, so stern by nature, softened down. A sweet harmony was established between them; at length, they were enabled to join in prayer beside their infant son. Great and untold destinies hovered above that son; and from that cradle, where the Christian mother had so often poured out her sorrows, was to come forth one whom God in his own time would use as a defender of the Reformation.

The intrepidity of Luther had made a deep impression on the inhabitants of Worms. The Imperial Decree overawed the magistrates; the churches were all closed; but a preacher, taking his stand on a rudely-constructed pulpit, in a square thronged with an immense multitude, proclaimed the glad tidings with persuasive earnestness. If the authorities showed a disposition to interfere, the people dispersed in an instant, hastily carrying off their pulpit; but no sooner had the officers of authority passed by, than they again erected their pulpit in some more retired spot, to which the multitude would again flock together, to hear more of the Word of Jesus Christ. This temporary pulpit was every day set up in one spot or another, and served as a rallying point for the people, who were still under the influence of the emotions awakened by the drama lately enacted in Worms.†

At Frankfort on the Maine, one of the most considerable free cities of the empire, all was commotion. A courageous evangelist, Ibach, preached salvation by Jesus Christ. The clergy, among whom was Cochleus, known by his writings, and his opposition to the Reformation, irritated by the daring intrusion of such a colleague, denounced him to the Archbishop of Mentz. The Council, though with some timidity, nevertheless supported him; but without avail. The clergy expelled the evangelical minister, and obliged him to quit Frankfort. Rome appeared triumphant; all seemed lost; and private Christians began to fear that they were for ever deprived of the preaching of the Word: but at the very moment when the citizens seemed disposed to submit to the tyranny of their priests, certain nobles suddenly declared themselves for the Gospel. Max, of Molnheim, Harnut, of Cronberg, George, of Stockheim, and Emeric, of Reiffenstein, whose estates lay near Frankfort, wrote to the Council:—"We are constrained to make a stand

* Catholicorum, velut indocta et veteris barbarici trivialia scripta contemnebant. (Cochleus, p. 54.)

† In publicis mercatibus Francofordiæ et alibi, vexabantur ac ridebantur. (Ibid.)

‡ Von dem Rathhaus unter einem Zulauf von 25,000 Menschen. (Seck. p. 539.)

§ Der Teufel indem er sich in Gestalt eines alten Weibes. . . (Ibid.)

* Lasset du dir's die Buben nehmen. . . (Ibid. p. 430.)

† So lassen sich eine Cenzel machen, die man von einem Ort zum andern . . (Seck. p. 436.)

against those spiritual wolves." And, in addressing the clergy, they said:—Either embrace evangelical doctrines and recall Ibach, or we will pay no more tithes."

The common people, who listened gladly to the reformed opinions, emboldened by this language of the nobles, showed symptoms of agitation; and one day, when Peter Mayer, the persecutor of Ibach, and who, of all the priests, was the most hostile to the new opinions, was on the point of preaching against heretics, a violent tumult broke forth, and Mayer, in alarm, retreated from the pulpit. This popular movement decided the determination of the Council. An ordinance was published, enjoining all ministers to preach the pure Word of God, or to quit the town.

The light which shone forth from Wittenberg, as from the heart of the nation, was thus diffusing itself throughout the empire. In the west—Berg, Cleves, Lippstadt, Munster, Wesel, Miltenberg, Mentz, Deux Ponts, and Strasburg, heard the 'joyful sound.' In the south—Hoff, Schlesstadt, Bamberg, Esslingen, Hall, in Suabia,) Heilbrunn, Augsburg, Ulm, and many other places, welcomed it with joy. In the east—the Duchy of Leignitz, Prussia, and Pomerania, received it with open arms. In the north—Brunswick, Halberstadt, Gossler, Zell, Friesland, Bremen, Hamburg, Holstein, and even Denmark, and other adjacent countries, moved at the sounds of the new teaching.

The elector had declared that he would give full liberty to the bishops to preach in his dominions; but that he would not deliver anyone into their hands. Accordingly, the evangelical preachers, persecuted in other countries, were soon driven to take refuge in Saxony. Among these were—Ibach, from Frankfort, Eberlin, from Ulm, Kanadorff, from Magdeburg, Valentine Mustæus,* whom the canons of Halberstadt had horribly mutilated, and other faithful ministers, from all parts of Germany, flocked to Wittenberg, as to the only asylum of which they felt secure. Here they could hold converse with the leading Reformers, thereby strengthening themselves in the faith, and, at the same time, communicating the experience each one had gained, together with the information he had acquired. It is thus that the waters of our rivers return, borne in the clouds from the vast expanse of ocean, to feed the glaciers whence they first descended, to flow through the plain.

The work which was, at this time developing itself, at Wittenberg, composed, as has been seen, of various elements, became, from day to day, increasingly, the work of that nation, of Europe, and of Christendom. The school which Frederic had founded, and into which Luther had introduced the Word of Life, was the centre of that wide-spreading revolution which regenerated the Church; and from it the Reformation derived a true and a living unity, far above the semblance of unity that might be seen in Rome. The Bible was the supreme authority at Wittenberg, and there its doctrines were heard on all sides. This academy, though the most recent of all in its origin, had acquired a rank and influence throughout Christendom, which hitherto had exclusively appertained to the ancient university of Paris. The crowds of students which resorted to Wittenberg, from all parts of Europe, brought thither the report of the wants of the Church, and of the people, and, in quitting those walls, become sacred in their esteem, they bore with them, to the Church and peo-

ple, that Word of Grace, which is for the healing and salvation of the nations.

In contemplating these happy results, Luther felt his confidence increased. He had seen a feeble effort, begun amid so many fears and struggles, change the face of the Christian world; and he himself was astonished at a result which he never anticipated when he first entered the lists against Tetzel. Prostrate before the God whom he adored, he confessed that the work was His; and he rejoiced in the assurance of victory which no power could prevent. "Our enemies threaten us with death," said he, to the Chevalier Har-nut, of Cronberg—"If their wisdom were equal to their folly, it is with life they would threaten us. What an absurdity and insult it is, to affect to denounce death against Christ and Christians, who are themselves the conquerors of death!*" It is as if I would seek to fright a rider by saddling his courser, and helping him to mount. Do they not know that Christ is raised from the dead? So far as they see, He is yet lying in the grave, nay—even in hell. But we know that He lives." He was grieved whenever he thought that anyone should look upon him as the author of a work, of which the most minute details disclosed to him the finger of God. "Some there are," said he, "who believe, because I believe. But they only truly believe, who would continue faithful even though they should hear, (which may God forbid!) that I had denied Christ. True disciples believe—not in Luther—but in Jesus Christ. Even I myself care little for Luther† Let him be counted a saint or a cheat, what care I? It is not him that I preach; it is Christ. If the devil can seize Luther, let him do so! But let Christ abide with us, and we shall abide also."

Surely it is idle to explain such a principle as here speaks out, by the mere circumstances of human affairs. Men of letters might sharpen their wits, and shoot their poisoned arrows against popes and friars—the gathering cry for freedom, which Germany had so often sent forth against Italian tyranny, might again echo in the castles and provinces:—the people might again delight in the familiar voice of the Wittenberg nightingale; heralding the spring that was everywhere bursting forth—but it was no change in mere outward circumstances, like such as is the effect of a craving for earthly liberty, that was then accomplishing.—Those who assert that the Reformation was brought about by bribing the reigning princes with the prospect of convent treasure—the clergy, with the license of marriage—or the people with the boon of freedom, are strangely mistaken in its nature. Doubtless, a profitable use of resources which hitherto had maintained the monks in idleness—doubtless, marriage and liberty, God's gifts, might conduce to the progress of the Reformation—but the moving power was not in these things. An interior revolution was going on in the deep privacy of men's hearts: Christians were again learning to love and to forgive, to pray, to suffer affliction, and, if need be, to die for the sake of that Truth which yet held out no prospect of rest on this side heaven! The Church was in a state of transition. Christianity was bursting the shroud in which it had so long been veiled, and resuming its place in a world which had well nigh forgotten its former power. He who made the earth, now 'turned his hand,' and the Gospel—emerging from eclipse—went forward, notwithstanding the repeated efforts of priests and of kings—like the Ocean, which, when the hand of God presses on its bosom, rises in majestic calmness along its shores, so that no power of man is able to resist its movement.

* Herrend und Siegmänner des Todes. (L. Epp. ii. p. 164.)

† Ich kenne auch selbst nicht den Luther. (Ibid.)

‡ Wittenberger Nachtigall, poem of Hans Sachs, 1523.

* Aliquot ministri canonicorum capiunt D. Valentinum Mustæum et vinetum manibus pedibusque, injecto in ejus os freno, deferunt per trabes in inferiores cœnobii partes, ibique in cella cerevisiarum eum castrant. (Hamelmann, Hist. rena-çi Evangeli, p. 880.)

BOOK X.

THE Reformation, which had taken its rise in a few pious hearts, had worked its way into the public worship, and the private life, of the Church; it was to be expected, that it would, as it advanced, penetrate into civil relationships. Its progress was constantly from within—*outward*. We are about to contemplate this great change taking possession of the political life of nations.

For a period of nearly eight centuries, Europe had formed one vast sacerdotal state. Its emperors and kings had been under the patronage of its popes. If France and Germany had afforded examples of energetic resistance to audacious pretensions, still, Rome, in the result, had prevailed, and the world had seen temporal princes, consenting to act as executioners of her terrible sentences—contend, in defence of her power, against private Christians living under their rule, and shed, in her cause, the blood of the children of their people.

No infringement of this vast ecclesiastical polity, but most affect, in a greater or less degree, established political relations.

Two leading desires then agitated the minds of the Germans. On the one hand, the people aspired after a revival of the faith; on the other, they demanded a national Government, wherein the German states might be represented, and which should serve as a counterpoise to the imperial power.*

The elector, Frederic, had urged this demand, at the time of the election of Maximilian's successor, and the youthful Charles had consented. A national government had, in consequence, been chosen, consisting of the imperial chief, and representatives of the various electors and circles.

Thus, while Luther was reforming the church, Frederic was engaged in reforming the state.

But when, simultaneously with a change in religion, important modifications of political relationships were introduced by the authorities, it was to be apprehended that the commonalty would exhibit a disposition to revolt—thereby bringing into jeopardy the Reformation both of church and of state.

This violent and fanatical irruption of the people, under certain chosen leaders, unavoidable where society is in a state of crisis, did not fail to happen in the times we are recording.

Other circumstances there were, which tended to these disorders.

The emperor and the pope had combined against the Reformation, and it might appear to be doomed to fall beneath the strokes of such powerful enemies. Policy—interest—ambition—obliged Charles V. and Leo X. to extirpate it. But such motives are feeble defences against the power of truth. A devoted assertion of a cause deemed sacred, can be conquered only by a like devotedness opposed to it. But the Romans, quick to catch Leo's enthusiasm for a sonnet or a musical composition, had no pulse to beat response to the religion of Jesus Christ; or if, at times, some graver thoughts would intervene, instead of their being such as might purify their hearts, and imbue them with the Christianity of the apostles, they turned upon alliances or conquests, or treaties, that added new provinces to the papal states. And Rome, with cold disdain, left

the Reformation to awaken, on all sides, a religious enthusiasm, and to go forward, in triumphant progress, to new victories. The foe that she had sworn to crush, in the church of Worms, was before her, in the confidence of courage and strength. The contest must be sharp, blood must flow.

Nevertheless, some of the dangers that threatened the Reformation, seemed, just then, to be less pressing. The youthful Charles, standing one day, a little before the publication of the edict of Worms, in a window of his palace, in conversation with his confessor, had, it is true, said, with emphasis, laying his hand upon his heart, "I swear that I will hang up before this window the first man who, after the publication of my edict, shall declare himself a Lutheran."† But it was not long before his zeal cooled. His plan for restoring the ancient glory of the empire, or, in other words, enlarging his own dominions, was coldly received;‡ and, taking umbrage with his German subjects, he passed the Rhine, and retired to the Low Countries, availing himself of his sojourn there, to afford the friars some gratifications that he found himself unable to give them in the empire. At Ghent, Luther's writings were burned by the public executioner, with the utmost solemnity. More than fifty thousand spectators attended this auto-da-fe, and the presence of the emperor himself, marked his approval of the proceedings.‡

Just at this time, Francis the First, who eagerly sought a pretext for attacking his rival, had thrown down the gauntlet. Under pretence of re-establishing in their patrimony the children of John, of Albret, king of Navarre, he had commenced a bloody contest, destined to last all his life—sending an army to invade that kingdom, under command of Lesparre, who rapidly pushed his victorious advance to the gates of Pampeluna.

On the walls of this fortress was to be enkindled an enthusiasm which, in after years, should withstand the aggressive enthusiasm of the Reformer, and breathe through the papal system a new energy of devotedness and controul. Pampeluna was to be the cradle of a rival to the Wittenberg monk.

The spirit of chivalry, which had so long reigned in the Christian world, still survived in Spain. The wars with the Moors, recently terminated in that peninsula, but continually recurring in Africa, and distant and adventurous expeditions beyond sea, kept alive, in the Castilian youth, the enthusiastic and simple valour of which Amadis had been the ideal exhibition.

Among the garrison of Pampeluna, was a young man named Don Inigo Lopez de Recalde, the youngest of a family of thirteen. Recalde had been brought up at the court of Ferdinand the Catholic. Remarkable for a fine person,§ and expert in the use of the sword and lance, he was ardently ambitious of chivalrous renown. Clothed in dazzling armour, and mounted

* Sancte juro . . . eum ex hac fenestrâ meo jussu suspensum iri. (Pallavicini, i. p. 130.)

† Essendo tornato dalla Dieta che sua Maestà haveva fatta in Wornatia, escluso d'ogni conclusion buona d'aiuti e di favori che si fussi proposto d'ottenere in essa. (Istruzione al card. Farnese. Manuscript of the Bibl. Corsini, published by Ranke.)

‡ Ipso Cæsare, ore subridenti, spectaculo plausit. (Pallavicini, i. p. 130.)

§ Cum esset in corporis ornatu elegantissimus. (Maffei, Vita Loyola, 1536, p. 3.)

* Pfeffel Droit publ. de l'Allemagne, 590. Robertson, Charles V. vol. iii. p. 114. Ranke, Deutsche Gesch.

on a prancing steed, he took delight in exposing himself to the glittering dangers of the tournament,* engaging in hazardous enterprises, taking part in the impassioned struggles of opposing factions,† and manifesting as much devotion to St. Peter as to his lady-love. Such was the life led by the young knight.

The governor of Navarre, having gone into Spain to obtain succours, had left to Inigo and a few nobles the charge of defending Pampeluna. These latter, learning the superior numbers of the French troops, decided on retiring. Inigo entreated them to stand firm, and resist Lesparra; but not being able to prevail on them, he indignantly reproached them with their cowardice and perfidy, and then threw himself into the citadel, resolved to defend it at the sacrifice of his life.‡

When the French, who had been received with enthusiasm at Pampeluna, proposed to the commandant of the fortress to capitulate, "Let us endure everything,"§ boldly exclaimed Inigo, "rather than surrender." On this, the French began to batter the walls with their formidable artillery, and, in a short time, they attempted to storm it. The bravery and exhortations of Inigo gave fresh courage to the Spaniards; they drove back the assailants by their arrows, swords, or halberds. Inigo led them on. Taking his stand on the ramparts, with eyes flaming with rage, the young knight brandished his sword, and felled the assailants to the earth. Suddenly a ball struck the wall, just where he stood; a stone shivered from the ramparts, wounded the knight severely in the right leg, at the same moment as the ball, rebounding from the violence of the shock, broke his left. Inigo fell, senseless.|| The garrison immediately surrendered; and the French, admiring the courage of their young adversary, bore him in a litter to his relatives in the castle of Loyola. In this lordly mansion, from which his name was afterward derived, Inigo had been born of one of the most illustrious families of that country, eight years after the birth of Luther.

A painful operation became necessary. In the most acute suffering, Inigo firmly clenched his hands, but uttered no complaint.¶

Constrained to a repose which he could ill endure, he found it needful to employ, in some way, his ardent imagination. In the absence of the romances which he had been accustomed to devour, they gave him the Life of Christ, and the Flores Sanctorum. The reading of these works, in his state of solitude and sickness, produced an extraordinary effect upon his mind. The stirring life of tournaments and battles, which had occupied his youth, to the exclusion of everything besides, seemed as if receding and fading from view, while a career of brighter glory appeared to open before him. The humble labours of the saints, and their heroic patience, were, all of a sudden, seen to be far more worthy of praise than all the high deeds of chivalry. Stretched upon his couch, and still under the effects of fever, he indulged in the most conflicting thoughts. The world he was planning to renounce, and that life of holy mortification which he contemplated, both appeared before him—the one soliciting by its pleasures, the other by its severities. And fearful was the struggle, in his conscience, between these

two opposing worlds. "What!" thought he, "if I were to act like St. Francis or St. Dominic!"* But the recollection of the lady to whom he had pledged his love, recurred to his mind. "She is neither countess nor dutchess," said he to himself, with a kind of simple vanity, "she is much more than either."† But thoughts like these were sure to fill him with distress and impatience, while the idea of imitating the example of the saints, caused his heart to overflow with peace and joy.

From this period his resolution was taken. Scarcely had he risen from his sick-bed, when he decided to retire from the world. As Luther had done, he once more invited to a repast his companions in arms; and then, without divulging his design, set out unattended,‡ for the lonely cells excavated by the Benedictine monks, in the rocks of the mountains of Montserrat. Impelled, not by the sense of his sin, or of his need of the grace of God, but by the wish to become "knight of the Virgin Mary," and to be renowned for mortifications and works, after the example of the army of saints—he confessed for three successive days, gave away his costly attire to a mendicant,§ clothed himself in sackcloth, and girded himself with a rope. Then, calling to mind the armed vigil of Amadis, of Gaul, he suspended his sword at the shrine of Mary, passed the night in watching, in his new and strange costume; and, sometimes on his knees, and then standing, but ever absorbed in prayer, and with his pilgrim's staff in hand, went through all the devout practices of which the illustrious Amadis had set the example. "Thus," remarks the Jesuit, Maffei, one of the biographers of the saint, "while Satan was stirring up Martin Luther to rebellion against all laws, divine and human, and while that heretic stood up at Worms, declaring impious war against the Apostolic See, Christ, by his heavenly providence, called forth this new champion, and binding him by after vows to obedience to the Roman Pontiff, opposed him to the licentiousness and fury of heretical perversity."||

Loyola, who was still lame in one of his legs, journeyed slowly by circuitous and secluded paths till he arrived at Manresa. There he entered a convent of Dominicans, resolving in this retired spot to give himself up to the most rigid penance. Like Luther, he daily went from door to door begging his bread.¶ Seven hours he was on his knees, and thrice every day did he flagellate himself. Again at midnight he was accustomed to rise and pray. He allowed his hair and nails to grow; and it would have been hard indeed, to recognise in the pale and lank visage of the monk of Manresa, the young and brilliant knight of Pampeluna.

Yet the moment had arrived when the ideas of religion, which hitherto had been to Inigo, little more than a form of chivalric devotion, were to reveal themselves to him as having an importance, and exercising a power of which, till then, he had been entirely unconscious. Suddenly, without anything that might give him intimation of an approaching change of feeling, the joy he had experienced left him.** In vain

* Quid si ego hoc agerem quod fecit b. Franciscus, quid si hoc quod b. Dominicus? (Acta Sanctorum, vii. p. 634.)

† Non era domessa, ni duquessa, mas era su estado mas to . . . (Ibid.)

‡ Ibi duce amicisque ita salutatis, ut arcana consiliorum suorum quam accuratissime tegeret. (Maf. p. 16)

§ Pretiosa vestimenta quibus erat orantus, pannoso cuidam largitus sacco sese alacer induit ac fure præcinxit. (Ibid. p. 20.)

¶ Furor ac libidini hæreticæ pravitate opponeret. (Maf. p. 21.)

¶ Victum ostentat precibus, infimis emendicare quotidie. (Ib. p. 23.)

** Tunc subito nulla præcedente significatione prosorus exui nudarique se omni gaudio sentiret. (Ibid. p. 27.)

* Equorumque et armorum usû præcelleret. (Ibid.)
† Partim in factionum rixarumque periculis, partim in amatoria vesania . . . tempus consumeret. (Maffei, Vita Loyolæ, 1586, p. 3.)

‡ Ardentibus oculis, detestatus ignaviâ perfidiâque spectantibus omnibus, in arcem solus introit. (Ibid. p. 6.)

§ Tam acri ac vehementiori oratione commilitonibus dissuasit. (Maff. Vita Loyolæ, 1586, p. 6.)

¶ Ut e vestigio semianimis alienata mente corruerit. (Ibid. p. 7.)

¶ Nullum aliud indicium dedit doloris, nisi ut coactus in pugnam digitus valde constringeret. (Ibid. p. 8.)

did he have recourse to prayer and chanting psalms; he could not rest.* His imagination ceased to present nothing but pleasing illusions—he was *alone with his conscience*. He did not know what to make of a state of feeling so new to him; and he shuddered as he asked whether God could still be against him, after all the sacrifices he had made. Day and night, gloomy terrors disturbed him—bitter were the tears he shed, and urgent was his cry for that peace which he had lost—but all in vain.† He again ran over the long confession he had made at Montserrat. "Possibly," thought he, "I may have forgotten something." But that confession did but aggravate his distress of heart, for it revived the thought of former transgressions. He wandered about, melancholy and dejected, his conscience accusing him of having, all his life, done nought but heap sin upon sin, and the wretched man—a prey to overwhelming terrors—filled the cloister with the sound of his sighs.

Strange thoughts, at this crisis, found access to his heart. Obtaining no relief in the confessional, and the various ordinances of the church,‡ he began, as Luther had done, to doubt their efficacy. But, instead of turning from man's works, and seeking the finished work of Christ—he considered whether he should not once more plunge into the vanities of the age. His soul panted eagerly for that world that he had solemnly renounced; § but instantly he recoiled, awe-struck.

And was there at this moment any difference between the monk of Manresa and the monk of Erfurth? Doubtless, in secondary points; but their condition of soul was alike. Both were deeply sensible of their sins; both sought peace with God, and desired to have the assurance of it in their hearts. If another Staupitz, with the Bible in his hand, had presented himself at the convent of Manresa, perhaps Inigo might have been known to us as the Luther of the Peninsula. These two remarkable men of the sixteenth century, the founders of two opposing spiritual empires, which for three centuries have warred, one against the other, were, at this period, *brothers*; and, perhaps, if they had been thrown together, Luther and Loyola would have rushed into each other's embrace, and mingled their tears and their prayers.

But from this moment, the two monks were to take opposite courses.

Inigo, instead of regarding his remorse as sent to urge him to the foot of the cross, deluded himself with the belief that his inward compunctions were not from God, but the mere suggestion of the devil; and he resolved not to think any longer of his sins, but to obliterate them for ever from his memory || Luther looked to Christ—Loyola did but turn inward on himself.

It was not long before visionary attestations came in confirmation of Inigo's self-imposed convictions. His own resolutions had been to him in place of the Lord's grace, and he had suffered the imaginations of his own heart to take the place of God's word. He had counted the voice of God, speaking to him in his conscience, as the voice of the devil; and hence, we see him in the remainder of his history, the dupe of delusions of the power of darkness.

One day, Loyola chanced to meet an old woman; as Luther, when his soul was under trial and exercise, had received a visit from an old man. But the Spa-

* Nec jam in precibus, neque in psalmis ullam inveniret delectationem aut requiem. (Ibid.)

† Vanis agitationi terroribus, dies noctesque fletibus jungere. (Maf. p. 28.)

‡ Ut nulla jam res mitigare dolorem posse videretur. (Ibid. p. 29.)

§ Et sæculi commodis repetendis magno quodam impetu cogitaverit. (Ibid. p. 30.)

|| Sine ulla dubitatione constituit præteritæ vitæ labes perpetua oblivione contere. (Maf. p. 31.)

nish crone, instead of testifying of Remission of Sins to the penitent of Manresa, predicted certain appearances of Jesus. This was the sort of Christianity to which Loyola, like the prophets of Zwickau, had recourse. Inigo did not seek truth from the Holy Scriptures, but invented in their place certain direct communications from the world of spirits. He soon passed his whole time absorbed in ecstasy and abstraction.

Once, when on his way to the church of St. Paul, outside the city, he followed, lost in thought, the course of the Llobregat, and stopped, for a moment, to seat himself on its bank. He fixed his eyes on the river which rolled its deep waters in silence before him. He soon lost all consciousness of surrounding objects. Of a sudden he fell into an ecstasy. Things were revealed to his sight, such as ordinary men comprehend only after much reading and long watching, and study.* He rose from his seat. As he stood by the bank of the river, he seemed to himself a new man. He proceeded to throw himself on his knees before a crucifix erected near the spot, decided to devote his life in service to that cause, the mysteries of which had just been revealed to his soul.

From this time, his visions were more frequent. Sitting one day on the steps of St. Dominic, at Manresa, singing hymns to the Virgin, his thoughts were all of a sudden arrested, and, wrapt in ecstasy of motionless abstraction, while the mystery of the Holy Trinity† was revealed before his vision, under symbols of glory and magnificence. His tears flowed—his bosom heaved with sobs of emotion, and all that day he never ceased speaking of that ineffable vision.

Such repeated apparitions had overcome and dissipated all his doubts. He believed not, as Luther, because the things of Faith were written in the Word of God—but because of the visions he himself had had. "Even though no Bible had existed,"‡ say his apologists, even though those mysteries should never have been revealed in Scripture, he would have believed them, for God had disclosed Himself to him.§ Luther, become a doctor of divinity, had pledged his oath to the sacred Scriptures—and the alone infallible rule of God's word was become the fundamental principle of the Reformation. Loyola, at the time we are recording, bound himself to dreams, and apparitions:—and visionary delusions became the moving principle of his life, and the grounds of his confidence.

Luther's sojourn in the convent of Erfurth, and that of Loyola at Manresa, explain to us the principle of the Reformation, and the character of modern Popery! We will not follow—in his journey to Jerusalem, whither he repaired on leaving the convent—the monk who was to be a means of re-animating the expiring power of Rome. We shall meet with him again in the further progress of this history.

While these things were passing in Spain, Rome herself appeared to wear a graver aspect. The great patron of music, hunting and feasting, was removed from the throne of the Pontiff, and succeeded by a pious and grave monk.

Leo X. had been greatly pleased by the intelligence of the edict of Worms, and of Luther's captivity; and in sign of his triumph had caused the Reformer to be publicly burnt in effigy, together with his writings.|| It was the second or third time that the Papacy had indulged itself in this harmless satisfaction. At the

* Quæ vix demum solent homine sintelligentia comprehendere. (Maf. p. 32.)

† En figuras de tres teclas.

‡ Quod sæci nulla scriptura, mysteria illa fidei doceret. (Acta Sancti.)

§ Quæ Deo sæpi aperiente cognoverat. (Maf. p. 34.)

|| Comburi jussit alteram vultus in ejus statua, alteram animi ejus in libris. (Pallavicini, i. p. 128.)

same time, Leo, to show his gratitude to the Emperor, united his army with the Imperial forces. The French were compelled to evacuate Parma, Palacentia, and Milan; and Cardinal Giulio de Medici, cousin to the Pope, made a public entry into the latter city. The Pope appeared on the point of attaining the summit of human greatness.

The winter of the year 1521 was just commencing. It was customary with Leo X. to spend the autumn in the country. At that season, he would leave Rome without surplice, and also, what, remarks his master of the ceremonies, was a yet greater impropriety, wearing boots! At Viterbo, he would amuse himself with hawking; at Corneto, he hunted; the lake of Bolsena afforded him the pleasures of fishing. Leaving these, he would pass some time at his favourite residence, Malliana, in a round of festivities. Musicians, improvisatori, and other Roman artists, whose talents might add to the charms of this delightful villa, there gathered round the Sovereign Pontiff. He was residing there, when news was brought him of the taking of Milan. A tumult of joy ensued in the town. The courtiers and officers could not contain their exultation; the Swiss discharged their carbines, and Leo incautiously passed the night in walking backward and forward in his chamber, and looking out of the window at the rejoicings of the people. He returned to Rome exhausted in body, and in the intoxication of success. Scarcely had he re-entered the Vatican, when he was suddenly taken ill. "Pray for me," said he to his attendants. He had not even time to receive the last sacraments, and died, in the prime of life, at the age of forty-seven—in a moment of victory, and amid the sounds of public joy.

The crowd that followed the hearse of the Sovereign Pontiff gave utterance to curses. They could not pardon his having died without the sacraments—leaving behind him the debts incurred by his vast expenditure. "Thou didst win the pontificate like a fox—heldest it like a lion—and hast left it like a dog," said the Romans.

Such was the mourning with which Rome honoured the Pope who excommunicated the Reformation; and one whose name yet serves to designate a remarkable period in history.

Meanwhile a feeble reaction against the temper of Leo and of Rome was already beginning in Rome itself. A few men of piety had opened a place of prayer in order to mutual edification—not far from the spot in which tradition reports the first Christians of Rome to have held their meetings.* Contarini, who had been present on Luther's appearance at Worms, took the lead in these little meetings. Thus, almost at the same time as at Wittenberg, a kind of movement toward a reformation manifested itself at Rome. Truly has it been remarked, that wherever there are the seeds of 'love to God,' there are also the germs of reformation. But these well-meant efforts were soon to come to nothing.

In other times, the choice of a successor to Leo X. would surely have fallen upon a Gregory VII. or an Innocent III., if men like them had been to be found; but now the Imperial interest was stronger than that of the Church, and Charles V. required a pope who should be devoted to his interests.

The Cardinal de Medici, afterward Clement VII., seeing that he had no chance of obtaining the tiara, exclaimed aloud—"Choose the Cardinal Tortosa, an old man whom every one regards as a saint." The result was, that this prelate, who was a native of Utrecht,

and of humble birth, was actually chosen, and reigned under the name of Adrian VI. He had been professor at Louvain, and afterward tutor to Charles. In 1517, through the emperor's influence, he had been invested with the Roman purple. Cardinal de Vio supported his nomination, "Adrian," said he, "was very useful in persuading the doctors of Louvain to put forth their condemnation of Luther."† The conclave, tired out and taken by surprise, nominated the ultramontane Cardinal. "But soon coming to their senses," observes an old chronicler, "they were ready to die with fear of the consequences." The thought that the native of the Netherlands might not accept of the tiara, brought them temporary relief; but it was soon dissipated. Pasquin represented the elect Pontiff under the character of a schoolmaster, and the Cardinals as boys under the discipline of the rod. The irritation of the populace was such, that the members of the conclave thought themselves fortunate to escape being thrown into the river.‡ In Holland, it was a subject of general rejoicing that they had given a head to the Church. Inscribed on banners, suspended from the houses, were the words, "Utrecht planted—Louvain watered—the emperor gave the increase." One added underneath, the words—"and God had nothing to do with it!"

Notwithstanding the dissatisfaction which was at first manifested by the inhabitants of Rome, Adrian VI. repaired thither in August, 1522, and was well received. It was whispered from one to another, that he had five thousand benefices in his gift, and each reckoned on some advantage to himself. For a long time, the Papal chair had not been filled by such a man. He was upright, industrious, learned, pious, sincere, irreproachable in morals, and neither misled by favouritism, nor blinded by passion. He brought with him, to the Vatican, his old house-keeper, whom he charged to continue to provide frugally for his daily wants, in that palace which Leo had filled with luxury and dissipation. He was a stranger to the tastes of his predecessor. When they showed him the noble group of Laocoon, discovered only a few years before, and purchased by Julius II., at an enormous cost—he turned away, coolly observing, "They are the idols of the heathen:" and, in one of his letters, he wrote, "I would far rather serve God in my priory at Louvain, than be pope at Rome."

Adrian, alarmed by the danger to which the religion, which had come down to them through the middle ages, was exposed, from the spread of the Reformation; and not, like the Italians, fearing the discredit into which Rome and her hierarchy were brought by it, earnestly desired to oppose and arrest its progress; and he judged that the best means to that end, was to be found in a reformation of the church by herself. "The church," said he, "stands in need of a reformation; but we must take one step at a time." "The pope," said Luther, "advises that a few centuries should be permitted to intervene between the first and the second step." In truth, the church had, for ages, tended toward a reformation. It was now no time for empowering, it was necessary to act.

Adhering to his plan, Adrian set about banishing from the city all the profane, the perjurers, and the usurers. It was no easy task, for they composed a considerable proportion of the population.

At first, the Romans derided him, but ere long they hated him. Priestly rule, and the vast gains it brought, the power and influence of Rome, its games and its festivals, the luxury that everywhere reigned in it, all

* Si unirono in un oratorio, chiamato del divino amore, circa sessanta di loro. (Carracciolo Vita da Paolo IV. MSC. Ranke.)

* Doctores Lovanienses accepisse consilium a tam conspiciuo alumno. (Pallavicini, p. 136.)

† Sleidan. Hist. de la Ref. i. p. 124.

would be irretrievably lost, if there were a return to apostolic simplicity.

The restoration of discipline everywhere encountered strong opposition. "To produce the desired effect," said the chief Cardinal, Penitentiaria, "it would be necessary to begin by reviving the 'first love' of Christians: the remedy is more than the patient can bear—it will be the death of him. Take care, lest, in your desire to preserve Germany, you should lose Italy."* And, indeed, it was not long before Adrian had more to fear from Romanism than Lutheranism itself.

Those about him attempted to lead him back to the path he had abandoned. The old and practiced Cardinal Sodermus, of Volterra, the intimate friend of Alexander VI., of Julius II., and of Leo X.,† would often drop expressions, well suited to prepare him for that part, to him so strange, which he was reserved to act. "Heretics," observed he, "have, in all ages, declaimed against the morals of the Roman court, and yet the popes have never changed them. It has never been by reforms that heresies have been extinguished, but by crusades." Oh, how wretched is the position of the popes," replied the pontiff, sighing deeply, "since they have not even liberty to do right."‡

On the 23d March, 1522, and before Adrian's entry into Rome, the Diet assembled at Nuremberg. Already the bishops of Mersburg and Misnia had petitioned the Elector of Saxony to allow a visitation of the convents and churches in his states. Frederic, thinking the truth had nothing to fear, had consented, and the visitation took place. The bishops and doctors preached vehemently against the new opinions, exhorting, alarming, and entreating, but their arguments seemed to have no effect; and when, looking about them for more effectual methods, they requested the secular authorities to carry their directions into execution, the elector's council returned for answer, that the question was one that required to be examined by the Word of God, and that the elector, at his advanced age, could not engage in theological investigation. These expedients of the bishops did not reclaim a single soul to the fold of Rome; and Luther, who passed over the same ground, shortly afterward, preaching from place to place, dispelled, by his powerful exhortation, the slight impression that had here and there been produced.

It was to be feared that the Archduke, Ferdinand, brother to the emperor, would do what Frederic had declined doing. That young prince, who presided at several sittings of the Diet, gradually acquiring decision of purpose, might, in his zeal, boldly unsheathe the sword that his more prudent and politic brother wisely left in the scabbard. In fact, Ferdinand, in his hereditary states of Austria, had already commenced a cruel persecution against those who were favourable to the Reformation. But God, on various occasions, made instrumental, in the deliverance of reviving Christianity, the very same agency that had been employed for the destruction of corrupt Christianity. The Crescent suddenly appeared in the panic-struck provinces of Hungary. On the 9th of August, after a siege of six weeks, Belgrade, the advanced post of that kingdom, and of the empire, was taken by assault by Soliman. The followers of Mahomet, after retiring from Spain, seemed intent on re-entering Europe from the East. The Diet of Nuremberg turned its attention from the Monk of Worms to the Sultan of Constantinople. But Charles V. kept both antagonists in view. In writing to the pope from Valladolid, on the 31st of October, he

said, "We must arrest the progress of the Turks—and punish by the sword, all who favour the pestilent doctrines of Luther."*

It was not long before the thunderclouds, which had seemed to pass by and roll eastward, again gathered over the Reformer. His re-appearance and activity at Wittenberg had revived the by gone hatred. "Now that we know where to lay hands on him," said Duke George, "Why not carry into effect the sentence of Worms!" It was confidently affirmed in Germany, that Charles V. and Adrian had, in a meeting at Nuremberg, concerted the measures to be adopted.† "Satan feels the wound that has been inflicted on him," said Luther, "and thence his rage. But Christ has already put forth his power, and will ere long trample him under foot, in spite of the gates of hell."‡

In the month of December, 1522, the Diet again assembled at Nuremberg. Everything announced that, as Soliman had been the great enemy that had fixed attention in the spring session, Luther would be its object during the winter sittings. Adrian VI., by birth a German, hoped to find that favour from his own nation which a pope of Italian origin could not expect.§ He, in consequence, commissioned Chiaregati, whom he had known in Spain, to repair to Nuremberg. At the opening of the Diet, several of the princes spoke strongly against Luther. The Cardinal-archbishop of Salzburg, who was high in the confidence of the emperor, urged the adoption of prompt and vigorous measures, before the arrival of the Elector of Saxony. The Elector, Joachim, of Brandenburg, inflexible in his purpose, and the Chancellor of Treves, jointly insisted that the edict of Worms should be carried into effect. The rest of the princes were, in great part, undecided, and divided in opinion. The dilemma, in which the church was placed, filled its faithful adherents with anguish. "I would give one of my fingers," exclaimed the Bishop of Strasburg, in open assembly of the Diet, "I would give one of my fingers to be no priest."||

Chiaregati, supported by the Cardinal of Salzburg, insisted that Luther should be put to death. "It is necessary," said he, speaking in the pope's name, and holding the pope's brief in his hand, "it is indispensable that we should sever from the body that gangrened member.¶ Your forefathers punished, with death, John Huss and Jerome of Prague, at Constance, but both these are now risen up in Luther. Follow the glorious example of your ancestors, and, by the help of God, and of St. Peter, gain a signal victory over this serpent of hell."

On hearing the brief of the pious and mild Adrian read in the assembly, the majority of the princes were not a little alarmed.** Many began to see more in Luther's arguments; and they had hoped better things from the pope. Thus then Rome, though under the presidency of an Adrian, cannot be brought to acknowledge her delinquency, but still hurls her thunderbolts, and the fields of Germany are again about to be deluged with blood. While the princes maintained a gloomy silence, the prelates, and such members of the Diet, as were in the interest of Rome, tumultuously urged the adoption of a decision. "Let him be put to death."††

* Das man die Nachfolger derselben vergiften Lehre, mit dem Schwert strafen mag. (L. Opp. xvii. p. 321.)

† Cum fama sit fortis et Cesare et Papam Nurnbergam conventuros. (L. Epp. ii. p. 214.)

‡ Sed Christus qui cepit conteret eum. (L. Epp. ii. p. 215.)

§ Quod ex ea regione venirent, unde nobis secundum carnem origo est. (See the pope's brief. L. Opp. lat. ii. p. 352.)

¶ Er wollte einen Finger drum geben. (Seck. p. 569.)

** Rescandenti ut membra jam putrida a sano corpore. (Pal. i. 163.)

†† Einen grossen Schrecken eingejagkt. (Seck. p. 552.)

†† Nicht anders geschrein denn: *Crucifige! Crucifige!* (L. Opp. xviii. p. 367.)

* Sarpi Histoire du Concile de Trente, p. 20.

† Per longa esperienza delle cose del mundo, molto prudente e accorto. (Nardi. Hist. Fior., lib. 7.)

‡ Sarpi Hist. du Conc. de Tr., p. 21.

cried they—as we learn from the Saxon envoy who was present at this sitting.

Very different were the sounds heard in the churches of Nuremberg. The chapel of the hospital, and the churches of the Augustines, St. Sebald and St. Lorenzo, were crowded with multitudes flocking to hear the preaching of the Gospel. Andrew Osiander preached powerfully at St. Lorenzo's. Many princes attended, especially Albert, Margrave of Brandenburg, who, in his quality of Grand Master of the Teutonic order, took rank immediately next to the archbishops. Monks, abandoning the religious houses in the city, applied themselves to learn various trades, in order to gain their livelihood by their labour.

Chieregati could not endure such daring disobedience. He insisted that the priests and refractory monks should be imprisoned. The Diet, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the ambassadors of the Elector of Saxony, and the Margrave, Cassimir, decided to seize the persons of the monks, but consented to communicate previously to Osiander and his colleagues, the Nuncio's complaint. A committee, under the direction of the fanatical Cardinal of Salzburg, was charged with the matter. The danger was imminent—the conflict was on the point of commencing, and it was the great Council of the nation that provoked it.

Yet the people interposed. While the Diet was engaged in deliberating what shall be done with these ministers, the town council was considering what steps should be taken, in regard to the decision of the Diet. The council came to a resolution which did not overstep the limits assigned to it by the laws—that if force were employed to deprive them of their preachers, recourse should be had to force to set them at liberty. Such a resolution was full of significance. The astonished Diet returned an answer to the Nuncio, that it was not lawful to arrest the preachers of the free city of Nuremberg, without previously convicting them of heresy.

Chieregati was strangely disconcerted by this fresh insult to the supreme authority of the Papacy.—“Very well,” said he, haughtily, addressing himself to Ferdinand, “do you then do nothing—leave me to act—I will seize the preachers in the pope's name.”* When the Cardinal-Archbishop, Albert of Mentz, and the Margrave, Cassimir, were apprized of this startling determination, they came in haste to the Legate, imploring him to abandon his intention. The latter was, at first, inflexible, affirming, that in the bosom of Christendom, obedience to the pope could not be dispensed with. The two princes retired :—“If you persist in your intention,” said they, “we require you to send us notice, for we will quit the city before you venture to lay hands on the preachers.”† The Legate abandoned his project.

Despairing of success by authoritative measures, he now decided to have recourse to expedients of another kind, and, with this purpose, communicated to the Diet the Pontiff's intentions and orders, which he had hitherto kept private.

But the well-intentioned Adrian, little used to the ways of the world, did injury, even by his candour, to the cause he had at heart. “We are well aware,” said he, in the ‘resolutions’ forwarded to his Legate, “that for many years past, the holy city has been a scene of many corruptions and abominations.‡ The infection has spread, from the head, through the

members, and has descended from the popes to the rest of the clergy. It is our desire to reform that court of Rome, whence so many evils are seen to flow—the whole world desires it, and it is in order that we may do this, that we consented to ascend the throne of the pontiffs.”

The supporters of Rome blushed to hear these unlooked-for words. “They thought,” as Pallavicini says, “that such admissions were too sincere.”* The friends of the Reformation, on the contrary, rejoiced to hear Rome herself proclaiming her corruption.—Who could doubt that Luther had truth on his side, now that the pope declared it!

The answer of the Diet showed how greatly the authority of the chief Pontiff had lost ground in the empire. Luther's spirit seemed to have taken possession of the hearts of the nation's representatives. The moment was auspicious.—Adrian's ear seemed open—the emperor was at a distance :—the Diet resolved to enumerate, in one document, the various wrongs that Germany had, for centuries, endured from Rome, and to address their memorial to the pope.

The Legate was alarmed at this determination. He used threats and entreaties, but both were unavailing. The secular states adhered to their purpose, and the ecclesiastical did not venture to offer opposition.—Eighty grievances were therefore set forth. The corruptions and arts of the popes, and of the court of Rome, in order to squeeze revenue from Germany—the scandals and profanations of the clerical orders—the disorders and simony of the ecclesiastical courts—the encroachments on the civil power, to the restriction of liberty of conscience, were detailed with equal freedom and force. The States distinctly intimated, that traditions of men were the source of all this abuse, and they ended by saying—“If these grievances are not redressed within a limited time, we will consult together, and seek some other means of deliverance from our sufferings and our wrongs.”† Chieregati, having a presentiment that the report the Diet would prepare, would be couched in strong language, hastily took his departure from Nuremberg, thus avoiding being himself the bearer of so disappointing and insolent a communication.

After all, was it not still to be feared that the Diet would endeavour to make some amends for this bold measure, by the sacrifice of Luther himself? At first, there were some apprehensions of such a policy—but a spirit of justice and sincerity had been breathed on the assembly. Following the example of Luther, it demanded the convocation of a free Council in the Empire, and decreed, that until such Council should assemble, nothing should be preached but the simple Gospel, and nothing put forth in print, without the sanction of a certain number of men of character and learning.‡ These resolutions afford us some means of estimating the vast advance the Reformation had made since the Diet of Worms—and yet the Saxon envoy, the knight, Frelitsch, recorded a formal protest against the censorship prescribed by the Diet, moderate as that censorship might seem. The decree of the Diet was a first victory gained by the Reformation, which was the presage of future triumphs. Even the Swiss, in the depths of their mountains, shared in the general exultation. “The Roman Pontiff has been defeated in Germany!” said Zwingle; “All that remains to be done is to deprive him of his armour. It is for this, that we must now fight, and the battle will be fiercer

* Seseautoritate pontifica curaturum ut isti caperentur. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 606.)

† Priusquam illi caperentur, se urbe cessuras esse. (Ibid.)

‡ In eam sedem aliquot jam annos quædam vitia irrepisse, abusus in rebus sacris, in legibus violationes, in cunctis denique perversionem. (Pallav. i. p. 160. See also Sarpi, p. 25 L. Opp. xviii. p. 329, &c.)

* Liberioris tamen quam par erat, sinceritatis fuisse visum est, et conventui patefacere. (Ibid. p. 162.)

† Wie sie solcher Beschwerung und Drangsal entladen werden. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 354.)

‡ Ut pie placideque purum Evangelium prædicaretur. (Pal. i. p. 166. Sleiden. i. 135.)

than before. But we have Christ present with us in the conflict.* Luther loudly affirmed, that the edict the princes had put forth, was by inspiration of God himself.†

Great was the indignation at the Vatican, among the pope's council. "What! it is not enough to have to bear with a pope who disappoints the expectation of the Romans, in whose palace no sound of song or amusement is ever heard; but, in addition to this, secular princes are to be suffered to hold a language that Rome abhors, and refuse to deliver up the monk of Wittenberg to the executioner!"

Adrian himself was indignant at the events in Germany, and it was on the head of the Elector of Saxony that he now poured out his anger. Never had the Roman Pontiffs uttered a cry of alarm more energetic, more sincere, or more affecting.

"We have waited long—perhaps too long," said the pious Adrian, in his brief, addressed to the elector; "It was our desire to see whether God would visit thy soul, so that thou mightest, at the last, be delivered from the snares of the devil. But where we had hoped to gather grapes, there have we found nothing but wild grapes. The Spirit's promptings have been despised; thy wickedness has not been subdued. Open, then, thine eyes, to behold the greatness of thy fall!"

If the unity of the Church is gone—if the simple have been turned out of the way of that faith which they had suckled from their mothers' breasts—if the churches are deserted—if the people are without priests, and the priests have not the honour due to them—if Christians are without Christ, to whom is it owing but to thee? . . . If Christian peace has forsaken the earth—if, on every side, discord, rebellion, pillage, violence, and midnight conflagrations prevail—if the cry of war is heard from east to west—if universal conflict is at hand—it is thou thyself, who art the author of all these.

"Seest thou not that sacrilegious man, (Luther,) how he rends with wicked hands, and profanely tramples under foot, the pictures of the saints, and even the holy cross of Jesus! . . . Seest thou not how, in his infamous rage, he incites the laity to shed the blood of the priests, and overturn the temples of the Lord.

"And what, if the priests he assails are disorderly in conduct? Has not the Lord said, '*Whatsoever they bid you, that observe and do, but do not after their works*'—thus instructing us in the honour that belongs to them, even though their lives should be disorderly.‡

"Rebellious apostate! he does not blush to defile vessels dedicated to God; he forces from the sanctuaries virgins consecrated to Christ, delivering them over to the devil; he getteth into his power the priests of the Lord, and gives them to abandoned women. Awful profanation! which even the heathen would have reprobated in the priests of their idol worship.

"What punishment, what infliction dost thou think we judge thee to deserve? Have pity on thyself—have pity on thy poor Saxons; for surely, if thou dost not turn from the evil of thy way, God will bring down his vengeance upon thee.

"In the name of the Almighty God, and our Saviour, Jesus Christ, of whom I am viceregent on earth, I warn thee, that thou wilt be judged in this world, and be cast into the lake of everlasting fire in that which is to come. Repent and be converted. Both swords

are impending over thy head—the sword of the Empire, and that of the Papal authority."

The pious Frederic shuddered as he read this menacing brief. A little before, he had written to the emperor to say, that his age and bodily indisposition incapacitated him for attending to such matters; and the answer returned was one of the most insolent letters a feigning prince had ever received. Infirm and aged as he was, his eyes rested upon the sword he had received at the holy sepulchre, in the days of youthful vigour. A thought crossed his mind, that it might be necessary to unsheath it in defence of the conscience of his subjects, and that, near as his life was to its close, he should not descend to the grave in peace. He forthwith wrote to Wittenberg, to have the judgment of the fathers of the Reformation, as to what should be done.

There, also, forebodings of commotion and persecution were rife. "What can I say," exclaimed the mild Melancthon, "whither can I turn?" Hatred presses us to the earth—the world is up in arms against us." Luther, Link, Melancthon, Bugenhagen, and Amsdorff, held a consultation on the answer to be returned to the elector. They drew up a reply, each in terms nearly identical, and the advice they gave is not a little remarkable.

"No prince," said they, "can undertake a war without the consent of the people from whose hands he has received his authority.† But the people have no heart to fight for the Gospel, for they do not believe. Therefore, let not princes take up arms; they are rulers of the nations, that is to say, of *unbelievers*." Here we find the impetuous Luther soliciting the discreet Frederic to restore his sword to its scabbard. No better answer could be given to the pope's charge, that he stirred up the laity to imbrue their hands in the blood of the priests. Few characters have been more misunderstood than his. This advice was dated the 8th of February, 1523. Frederic submitted in silence.

It was not long before the effects of the pope's anger began to be seen. The princes who had recapitulated their grievances, now dreading the consequences, sought to make amends by compliances.—Some, there were, who reflected that victory would probably declare for the Pontiff, seeing that he, to all appearance, was the stronger of the two. "In our days," observed Luther, "princes are content to say, three times three make nine, or twice seven make fourteen—right, the counsel shall stand. Then the Lord, our God, arises and speaks: '*What, then, do you allow for My power!*' . . . It may be *naught* . . . And immediately He confuses the figures, and their calculations are proved false."‡

The stream of fire poured forth by the humble and gentle Adrian kindled a conflagration, and the rising flame spread far and wide, in Christendom, a deep agitation. Persecution, which had slackened for a while, was now renewed. Luther trembled for Germany, and sought to allay the tempest. "If the princes make war against the truth," said he, "there will be such confusion as will be the ruin of princes, magistrates, clergy, and people. I tremble at the thought that all Germany may, in a little while, be deluged with blood.§ Let us stand as a rampart for our country against the wrath of our God. Nations are not now, as formerly,|| The sword of civil war is impending over kings:

* Quid dicam? quo me vertam? (Corp. Ref. i. p. 627.)

† Principi nullum licet suscipere bellum, nisi consentiente populo, a quo acceptum imperium. (Ibid. p. 601.)

‡ So kehrt er ihnen auch die Rechnung gar um. (L. Opp. xxii. 1931.)

§ Ut videtur mihi videre Germaniam in sanguine natam. (L. Opp. ii. p. 156.)

|| Cogitent populos non esse tales modo, quales hactenus fuerunt. (Ibid. p. 167.)

* Victus est ac ferme profligatus a Germaniæ romanus Pontifex. (Zw. Epp. 313, 11th of Oct. 1523.)

† Gott habe solches E. G. eingegeben. (L. Opp. xviii. 476.)

‡ Dass die Kirchen ohne Volk sind, dass die Völker ohne Priester sind, dass die Priester ohne Ehre sind, und dass die Kirchen ohne Christo sind. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 371.)

§ Wen sie gleich eines verdammten Lebens sind. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 379.)

—they are bent on destroying Luther—but Luther is bent on saving them; Christ lives and reigns, and *I shall reign with him.**

These words were spoken to the winds. Rome was pressing forward to scaffolds and the shedding of blood. The Reformation, in this, resembled Jesus Christ—that it came not to send peace on the earth, but a sword. Persecution was necessary in the counsels of God. As certain substances are hardened in the fire, that they may be less liable to be affected by atmospheric changes, so the fiery trial was designed to arm and defend the truth of the Gospel from the influence of the world. But that fiery trial did yet more:—it served, as in the early days of Christianity, to kindle in men's hearts an universal enthusiasm for a cause against which such rage was let loose. There is, in man, when first introduced to the knowledge of the truth, a holy indignation against violence and injustice. An instinct, received from God, impels him to range himself on the side of the oppressed; and, at the same time, the faith of the martyrs exalts, controls, and leads him to that saving truth which gifts its followers with so much courage and tranquillity.

Duke George openly took the lead in the persecution. But he was not content to carry it on among his own subjects; he desired, above all, to see it extend itself to electoral Saxony, the focus of heresy, and he laboured hard to move the Elector, Frederic, and Duke John. In writing to them from Nuremberg, he observed, "Certain merchants, recently from Saxony, bring report from thence of strange things, and such as are most opposed to the honour of God and the saints. It seems, they take the holy sacrament in their hands—consecrate the bread and wine in the common speech of the people—pour the blood of Christ into a common cup. It is said, that at Eulenberg, a man who sought occasion to insult the officiating priest, rode into the church mounted on an ass. And what do we hear to be the consequence? The mines, with which God had enriched Saxony, are become less productive, ever since this preaching of Luther's innovations. Would to God that those, who boast that they have restored the Gospel in the electorate, had employed themselves in carrying the testimony of it to Constantinople. Luther's speech is gentle and specious, but it draws after it a sting which is sharper than a scorpion's. Let us make ready our hands to fight. Let us cast these apostate monks and ungodly priests into prison; let us do so at once; for the hairs of our heads are turning as grey as our beards, and admonish us that we have not long to live."†

So wrote Duke George to the elector. The latter answered decidedly, yet mildly, that whoever should commit any crime within his state should not go unpunished; but, that as to matters of conscience, they must be left to the judgment of God.‡

Failing in his endeavour to persuade Frederic, George pressed his severities against such as lay within his reach. He imprisoned the monks and priests who were known to adhere to Luther's doctrines—recalled to their families the students who had gone from his states to pursue their studies in the universities to which the Reformation had extended, and required his subjects to deliver up to the magistrates all copies of the New Testament in the vernacular tongue. Similar measures were put in force in Austria, Wurtemberg, and the Duchy of Brunswick.

But it was in the Low Countries, under the immediate rule of Charles V., that the persecution broke out

* *Christus meus vivit et regnat, et ego vivam et regnabo.* (Ibid. p. 163.)

† *Wie ihre Bär und Haare ausweisen.* (Seck. p. 482.)

‡ *Musso man solche Dinge Gott überlassen.* (Seckend. p. 483.)

with most violence. The convent of the Augustines, at Antwerp, contained within it many monks who had hailed with joy the truths of the Gospel. Several of the brothers had passed some time at Wittemberg, and ever since 1519, Salvation by Grace had been preached in their church with unusual power. Toward the close of the year, 1521, James Probst, the prior, a man of ardent temperament, and Melchior Mirisch, who was remarkable for the opposite qualities of experience and prudence, were arrested and carried to Brussels. They were there brought before Aleandar, Glapio, and several other prelates. Taken unawares, disconcerted, and dreading consequences, Probst recanted. Melchior Mirisch found means to appease his judges; and, while he avoided a recantation, escaped condemnation.

These proceedings now way overawed the monks who remained in the convent of Antwerp. They continued to preach the Gospel with earnestness. The people crowded to hear, and the church of the Augustines, at Antwerp, was unable to contain the hearers, as had been the case at Wittemberg. In October, 1522, the storm, which had been gathering over their heads, suddenly burst forth. The convent was closed, and the monks imprisoned and sentenced to die.* A few effected their escape. Some women, roused into forgetfulness of the natural timidity of their sex, rescued one of them, by name, Henry Zuphten, from the hands of the executioner.† Three of the younger monks, Henry Voe, John Eesch, and Lambert Thorn, evaded, for a time, the search of the inquisitors. The sacred vessels of the convent were publicly sold, the entrance to the church barricaded, the holy sacrament was carried forth as if from a place of pollution, and Margaret, who then governed the Low Countries, solemnly received it into the church of the Holy Virgin.‡ An order was given that not one stone should be left upon another of that heretical monastery; and several private citizens and women, who had joyfully received the Gospel were thrown into prison.§

Luther was deeply grieved on receiving intelligence of these events. "The cause we have in hand," said he, "is no longer a mere trial of strength, it demands the sacrifice of our lives, and must be cemented by our blood."||

Mirisch and Probst were reserved for a very different fate. The politic Mirisch soon became the docile slave of Rome, and was employed in carrying into execution the imperial orders against the favourers of the Reformation.¶ Probst, on the contrary, escaping out of the hands of the inquisitors, wept bitterly over his failure, retraced his recantation, and boldly preached at Bruges, in Flanders, the doctrine he had abjured. Being again arrested, and cast into prison at Brussels, death seemed inevitable.** A Franciscan took pity upon him, assisted him in his fight, and Probst, "saved by a miracle of God," says Luther, reached Wittemberg, where all hearts were filled with joy at his second deliverance.††

On every side the priests of Rome were under arms.

* *Zum Tode verurtheilt.* (Seck. p. 548.)

† *Quomodo muliers vi Henricum liberavit.* (L. Epp. ii. p. 265.)

‡ *Suscipimus honorifice a domina Margareta.* (Ibid.)

§ *Cives aliquos, et mulieres vexatos et punitos.* (Ibid.)

|| *Et vitam exigit et sanguinem.* (Ibid. 181.)

¶ *Est executor Cæsaris contra nostros.* (Ibid. p. 207.)

** *Domus captum, exutum credimus.* (Ibid. p. 214.)

†† *Jacobus, Dei miraculo liberatus qui nunc agit nobiscum.* (L. Epp. ii. p. 182.) This letter, which is found in M. de Wette's collection, under the date of April 14, must be subsequent to the month of June, since, on the 26th of June, we find Luther saying, that Probst has been again taken, and was expected to be burnt. The supposition that would solve the difficulty, by supposing Probst to have been at Wittemberg between these two captures, is not admissible, for Luther would not have said of a Christian, who had been saved from death by his recantation, that he had been delivered by a miracle of God. Perhaps we should read the date, &c., of this letter,

The town of Miltenberg on the Main, in the jurisdiction of the Elector-archbishop of Mentz, had, of all the towns of Germany, received the word of God with most joy. The inhabitants were much attached to their pastor, John Draco, one of the most enlightened men of his time. He was compelled to leave the city; but the Roman clergy withdrew at the same time, dreading the vengeance of the people. An evangelical deacon remained behind, and comforted their hearts. At the same time the soldiery of Mentz were introduced and dispersed through the city, vomiting blasphemies, brandishing their swords, and giving themselves up to debauchery.*

Some of the evangelical Christians fell victims to their violence;† others were seized and thrown into dungeons; the rites of Romish worship were restored; the reading of the Scriptures prohibited; and the inhabitants forbidden to speak of the Gospel, even in their family meetings. The deacon had taken refuge with a poor widow, on the entrance of the troops. Information was given to the commanding officer, and a soldier despatched to take him. The humble deacon, hearing the steps of the soldier who sought his life, advancing, quietly waited for him, and, just as the door of the chamber was abruptly pushed open, he came forward, and, embracing him, said, "I bid you welcome, brother; here I am—plunge your sword in my bosom."‡ The stern soldier, in astonishment, dropped his weapon, and contrived to save the pious evangelist from further molestation.

Meanwhile, the inquisitors of the Low Countries, thirsting for blood, scoured the neighbouring country, searched everywhere for the young Augustines, who had escaped from the Antwerp persecution. Eesch, Voes, and Lambert, were at last discovered, put in chains, and conducted to Brussels. Egmondanus, Hochstraten, and several other inquisitors, summoned them to their presence. "Do you retract your opinion," inquired Hochstraten, "that the priest has no power to forgive sins, but that that power belongs to God alone?"—and then he went on to enumerate the other Gospel truths which he required them to abjure. "No, we will retract nothing," exclaimed Eesch and Voes, firmly; "we will not disown God's word; we will rather die for the faith!"

THE INQUISITOR.—"Confess that you have been deceived by Luther."

THE YOUNG AUGUSTINES.—"As the apostles were deceived by Jesus Christ."

THE INQUISITORS.—"We declare you to be heretics, worthy of being burnt alive; and we deliver you over to the secular arm."

Lambert was silent. The prospect of death terrified him. Distress and uncertainty agitated his heart. "I request four days' respite," said he, in stifled emotion. He was taken back to prison. As soon as his respite was expired, Eesch and Voes were degraded from their priestly office, and handed over to the council of the reigning governess of the Low Countries. The council delivered them, bound, to the executioner. Hochstraten, and the three other inquisitors, accompanied them to the place of execution.§

Arriving at the scaffold, the young martyrs contemplated it with calmness. Their constancy, their piety, and their youth, drew tears from the inquisitors themselves. When they were bound to the stake,¶ the instead of "in die S. Tiburtii,"—"in die Turian,"—which would place it in July 13—the probable date, in my opinion.

* So sie doch schändlicher leben denn Huren und Büben. (L. Epp. ii. p. 492.)

† Schlug etliche todt. (Seck. p. 604.)

‡ Sey geprüßet, mein bruder. (Scultet. ann. i. p. 173.)

§ Facta est hæc res Bruxellæ in publico foro. (L. Epp. ii. p. 361.)

¶ Nondum triginta annorum. (L. Epp. ii. p. 361.)

confessors drew near, "Once more we ask you if you will receive the Christian faith!"

THE MARTYRS.—"We believe in the Christian church, but not in your church."

Half-an-hour elapsed. It was a pause of hesitation. A hope had been cherished, that the near prospect of such a death would intimidate these youths. But, alone tranquil of all the crowd that thronged the square, they began to sing psalms—stopping, from time to time, to declare that they were resolved to die for the name of Jesus Christ.

"Be converted, be converted," cried the inquisitors, "or you will die in the name of the devil." "No!" answered the martyrs, "we will die like Christians, and for the truth of the Gospel."

The pile was then lighted. While the flame slowly ascended, a heavenly peace dilated their hearts; and one of them could even say, "I seem to be on a bed of roses."* The solemn hour was come—death was at hand. The two martyrs cried with a loud voice, "O Lord Jesus, Son of David, have mercy upon us!" and then they began to recite their creed.† At last the flames reached them; but the fire consumed the cords which fastened them to the stake, before their breath was gone. One of them, feeling his liberty, dropped upon his knees in the midst of the flames, and then, in worship to his Lord, exclaimed, clapping his hands, "Lord Jesus, Son of David, have mercy on us!"‡

Their bodies were quickly wrapt in flame; they shouted "Te Deum laudamus." Soon their voices were stifled, and their ashes alone remained.

This execution had lasted four hours. It was on the 1st of July, 1523, that the first martyrs of the Reformation laid down their lives for the Gospel.

All good men shuddered when they heard of these events. The future was big with fearful anticipations. "The executions have begun,"§ said Erasmus. "At length," exclaimed Luther, "Christ is gathering some fruits of our preaching, and preparing new martyrs."

But the joy of Luther in the constancy of these young Christians, was disturbed by the thoughts of Lambert. Of the three, Lambert possessed most learning; he had been chosen to fill the place of Probst, as preacher of Antwerp. Finding no peace in his dungeon, he was terrified at the prospect of death; but still more by conscience, which reproached him with his cowardice, and urged him to confess the Gospel. Delivered, ere long, from his fears, he boldly proclaimed the truth, and died like his brethren.¶

A noble harvest sprung up from the blood of these martyrs. Brussels manifested a willingness to receive the Gospel.¶ "Wherever Alexander lights a pile," remarked Erasmus, "there it seems as if he had sowed heretics."**

"I am bound with you in your bonds," exclaimed Luther; "your dungeons and your burnings my soul takes part in.†† All of us are with you in spirit, and the Lord is above it all!"

* Dit schijnen mij als roosen te zijn. (Brandt, Hist. der Reformatie, i. p. 79.)

† Admoto igni canere cœperunt symbolum fidei, says Erasmus. (Epp. i. p. 1278.)

‡ Da ist der eine im Feuer auf die Knie gefallen. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 491.)

§ Cepta est carnificini. (Epp. i. p. 129.)

¶ Quarta post exustus est tertius frater Lambertus. (L. Epp. ii. p. 361.)

¶ Ea mors multos fecit Lutheranos. (Er. Epp. p. 932.) Tum demum cepit civitas favere Lutheræ. (Ibid. p. 1676. Erasmus to Duke George.) Ea civitas athena purissima. (Ibid. p. 1430.)

** Ubicumque fumus excitavit nuntius, ibi diceres fuisse factam hæresen sementem. (Ibid.)

†† Vestra vincula mea sunt, vestri cæceres et ignes mei sunt. (L. Epp. ii. p. 464.)

He proceeded to compose a hymn, commemorative of the death of the young monks; and soon, in every direction, throughout Germany and the Low Countries—in towns and in villages, were heard accents of song, which communicated an enthusiasm for the faith of the martyrs.*

Flung to the heedless winds,
Or on the waters cast,
Their ashes shall be watched,
And gathered at the last,
And from that scattered dust,
Around us and abroad,
Shall spring a plenteous seed
Of witnesses for God.

Jesus hath now received
Their latest living breath—
Yet vain is Satan's boast
Of victory in their death.
Still, still, though dead, they speak,
And, trumpet-tongued, proclaim,
To many a waking land,
The one availing Name!

Doubtless Adrian would have persisted in those violent measures—the failure of his efforts to arrest the progress of the Reformation, his own orthodoxy, his zeal, his inflexibility, even his conscientiousness would have made him an unrelenting persecutor. Providence ordained otherwise. He expired on the 14th of September, 1523; and the Romans, overjoyed at being rid of the stern foreigner, suspended a crown of flowers at the door of his physician, with an inscription—"To the saviour of his country."

Julio de Medicis, cousin to Leo X., succeeded Adrian, under the name of Clement VII. From the day of his election, all ideas of religious reformation were at an end. The new pope, like many of his predecessors, thought only of maintaining the privileges of the papacy, and employing its resources for his own aggrandisement.

Anxious to repair the indiscretions of Adrian, Clement dispatched a legate of a character resembling his own, Cardinal Campeggio, the ablest prelate of his court, and a man of large experience, well acquainted with most of the German princes. After a pompous reception in his passage through the Italian cities, the Legate soon noticed the change that had taken place in the Empire. On entering Augsburg, he proposed, according to custom, to give his benediction to the people; but those to whom he spoke met the proposal by a smile. The hint was enough; and he entered Nuremberg incognito, without repairing to St. Sebald's church, where the clergy were waiting for him. No priests in sacerdotal vestments were seen advancing to greet him—no cross was borne in solemn state before him; but one might have thought a private individual was taking his journey through the city.† Everything indicated that the reign of the Papacy was drawing to its close.

The diet had met again in session, at Nuremberg, in January, 1525. A storm was impending over the government of the nation, owing to the firmness of Frederic. The Suabian league, comprising the richest cities of the empire, and, above all, Charles the Fifth,

had combined for his destruction. He was charged with favouring the newly-broached heresy. Accordingly, it was decided that the executive powers should be so entirely changed as not to retain one of the old members. Frederic, overwhelmed with grief, instantly took his departure from Nuremberg.

Easter drew nigh. Osiander and the gospel preachers redoubled their activity. The former preached publicly to the effect, that *Antichrist* entered Rome the very day that Constantine had quitted it to fix his residence at Constantinople. The ceremony of Palm Sunday and others were omitted: four thousand persons partook of the supper under both kinds; and the Queen of Denmark, sister to the Emperor, publicly received it in like manner at the Castle. "Oh!" exclaimed the Archduke Ferdinand, losing all self-command, "would that you were not my sister."—"The same mother bore us," replied the Queen; "and I would give up everything but God's truth to serve you."

Campeggio trembled at witnessing such audacity; nevertheless, affecting to despise the jeers of the people, and the harangues of the preachers—and relying on the authority of the Emperor and of the Pope, he referred the Diet to the edict of Worms, and demanded that the Reformation should be put down by force. On hearing this, some of the princes and deputies gave vent to their indignation. "And pray," asked they, addressing Campeggio, "what has become of the memorial of grievances presented to the Pope by the people of Germany?" The Legate, acting upon his instructions, assumed an air of bland surprise: "Three versions of that memorial have been received in Rome," said he; "but it has never been officially communicated; and I could never believe that so unseemly a paper could have emanated from your Highnesses."

The Diet was stung by this reply. If this be the spirit in which the Pope receives their representations, they also know what reception to give to such as he should address to them. Several deputies remarked, that such was the eagerness of the people for the Word of God, that the attempt to deprive them of it would occasion torrents of bloodshed.

The Diet straightway set about preparing an answer to the Pope. As it was not possible to get rid of the edict of Worms, a clause was added to it, which had the effect of rendering it null. "We require," said they, "that all should conform to it—*so far as is possible*."† But several of the states had declared that it was *impossible* to enforce it. At the same time calling to mind the unwelcome remembrance of the Councils of Constance and of Bale, the Diet demanded the convocation in Germany of a General Council of Christendom.

The friends of the Reformation did not stop there. What could they look for from a Council which might perhaps never be called together, and which, in any case, would be sure to be composed of bishops of all nations? Will Germany humble her anti-Roman inclinations in deference to prelates assembled from Spain, France, England, and Italy? The government of the nation had been already set aside. It is necessary that in its place should be a 'national assembly' charged with the defence of the popular interest.

Vainly did Hannart, the Spanish envoy of Charles, supported by the adherents of Rome and of the Emperor, oppose the suggestion; the majority of the Diet were unshaken. It was arranged that a diet or secular assembly should meet in November at Spire, to regulate all questions of religion, and that the States should invite their divines to prepare a list of

* Die Asche will nicht lassen ab,
Sie staubt in allen Landen,
Wie hilft kein Bach, Loch, noch Grab . . . (L. Opp. xviii. p. 481.)

† Obligingly rendered by John Alex. Messenger; to whose friendly pen the publisher is indebted for the touching hymns of Zwingle, [see Vol. ii. p. 329–332.] as well as for the translation of a considerable portion of the Second Volume; besides other assistance, and many valuable suggestions.

† Communi habitu quod per sylvas et campos ierat, per medium urbem . . . sine clero, sine prævia cruce. (Cochl. p. 82.)

* Wolle sich des Wortes Gottes halten. (Secken. p. 13.)
† Quantum eis possibile sit . . . (Cochl. p. 84.)

controverted points to be laid before that august assembly.

No time was lost. Each province prepared its memorial, and never had Rome reason to apprehend so great an explosion. Franconia, Brandenburg, Henneberg, Windsheim, Wertheim, Nuremberg, declared for the truth of the Gospel as opposed to the seven sacraments, the corruptions of the mass, the worship of the saints, and the Pope's supremacy. "There is coin for you of the genuine stamp," said Luther. Not one of the questions which engaged the popular mind seemed likely to be passed over in silence, in that council of the nation. The majority would make a stand for general measures. The unity of Germany, its independence, and its reformation, would yet be safe!

When news of what was passing reached the Pope, he could not restrain his anger. What! do any presume to set up a secular tribunal to decide questions of religion in contempt of his authority! If this unprecedented step be taken, doubtless Germany will be saved—but Rome is ruined! A consistory was hastily called together, and one who watched the dismay of the senators might have thought the Germans were in full march upon the Capital. "As to the Elector Frederic," exclaimed Aleander, "we must take off his head;" and another Cardinal gave counsel that the kings of England and of Spain should overawe the free cities by threatening to break off all commercial intercourse with them. In conclusion, the consistory came to the decision, that the only way of safety lay in moving heaven and earth to prevent the proposed assembly at Spire.

The Pope wrote directly to the Emperor:—"If I am called to be foremost in making head against the storm, it is not because I am the only one threatened by the tempest, but because I am at the helm. The imperial authority is yet more invaded than even the dignity of the court of Rome."

While the Pope was sending this letter to Castile, he was seeking to strengthen himself by alliances in Germany. It was not long before he gained over one of the most powerful reigning families of the Empire, the Dukes of Bavaria. The edict of Worms had been as much a dead letter there as elsewhere; and the doctrine of the Gospel had made its way extensively. But, subsequent to the close of 1521, the princes of that country, urged on by Doctor Eck, who was chancellor in their university of Ingolstadt, had again made advances toward Rome, and passed a law enjoining their subjects to adhere faithfully to the religion of their forefathers.†

The Bavarian bishops showed some signs of alarm at this intervention of the secular authority. Eck set out immediately for Rome to solicit from the Pope an extension of the authority lodged in the princes. The Pope granted all their desires, and even went so far as to make over to them a fifth of the revenues of the church in their country.

Here we see Roman Catholicism, at a time when the Reformation had no regular settlement, resorting to established institutions for support, and Catholic princes, aided by the Pope, seizing the revenues of the Church long before the Reformation had ventured to touch them. What then must be thought of the oft-repeated charges of Catholics on this head!

Clement VII. was secure of the assistance of Bavaria in quelling the dreaded assembly of Spire. It was not long before the Archduke Ferdinand, the

Archbishop of Salzburg, and others of the princes, were likewise gained over.

But Campeggio was bent on something more. His aim was to divide Germany into two hostile camps—Germans were to be opposed to Germans.

During a previous residence at Stutgard, the Legate had concerted with Ferdinand the project of a league against the Reformation. "There is no telling what may be the result of an assembly in which the voice of the people will be heard," observed he: "The diet of Spire may be the ruin of Rome and the salvation of Wittenberg. Let us close our ranks and be prepared for the onset."* It was settled that Ratisbon should be the point of rendezvous.

Prevailing over the jealousies that estranged the reigning houses of Bavaria and Austria, Campeggio contrived to assemble in that city, toward the end of 1524, the Duke of Bavaria and the Archduke Ferdinand. The Archbishop of Salzburg, and the Bishops of Trent and of Ratisbon, joined them. The Bishops of Spire, Bamberg, Augsburg, Strasburg, Bale, Constance, Freesingen, Passau, and Brixen, sent deputies to the assembly.

The Legate opened the subject of the meeting, depicting in moving language the dangers resulting from the Reformation both to princes and the clergy, and concluded by calling upon them to extirpate heresy and rescue the Church.

For fifteen days the conferences were continued in the town-hall of Ratisbon. At the expiration of that time, a ball, which continued till daybreak, served as a relaxation to the first Catholic assembly convened by the Papacy to resist the infant Reformation!—and, after this, measures were agreed upon for the destruction of the heretics.

The Princes and Bishops bound themselves to enforce the edicts of Worms and Nuremberg—to allow of no innovations in public worship—to tolerate no married priest—to recall the students of their states who might be resident in Wittenberg, and to employ all the means in their power for the extirpation of heresy. They enjoined the preachers to take for their guides, in interpreting difficult scriptures, the Latin Fathers, Ambrose, Jerome, Augustine, and Gregory. Not daring, in the face of the Reformation, to invoke again the authority of the Schools, they contented themselves with laying the foundations of Roman orthodoxy.

But, not able to close their eyes against the scandals and profligate morals of the clergy,† they agreed on a programme of reform in which they studiously selected such grievances of the Germans as least involved or affected the court of Rome. They prohibited priests from dealings in the way of barter, from frequenting taverns, being present "at dances," and disputing over their bottle about points of faith!

This was the issue of the confederation of Ratisbon.‡ In the very act of taking up arms against the Reformation, Rome yet conceded a something—and we discern in these regulations the earliest influence of the Reformation, in inducing an interior renovation in Catholicism itself. Wherever the Gospel develops its resources, its enemies are sure to have their counterfeits at hand. Emser had produced a translation of the Bible to counteract that by Luther. Eck, in like manner, put forth his *Loci Communes* in opposition to Melancthon's,||—and then it was that Rome began to oppose to the Reformation those partial

* Winter, Gesch. der Evang. Lehre in Baiern, i. p. 166.

† Ranke, Deutsche Gesch. ii. p. 159.

‡ Improbis clericorum abusibus et perditis moribus. (Cochl. p. 91.)

§ Ut Lutherana factioni efficacius resistere possint, ultro-ne confederatione sese constrinxerunt. (Ibid.)

|| Enchiridion, seu loci communes contra hæreticos.

* Pontifex ægerrime tulit . . . intelligens novum de religione tribunal eo pacto excitari citra ipsius auctoritatem. (Palav. i. p. 132.)

† Erstes bairisches Religions Mandat. (Winter, Gesch. der Evang. Lehre in Baiern, i. p. 310.)

changes which have given to Roman Catholicism its present aspect. But, in truth, these expedients were but subtle devices to escape impending dangers. Branches, plucked indeed from the tree of the Reformation, but set in a soil which doomed them to decay: the principle of *life* was wanting, and thus it will ever be with all similar attempts.

Another fact is here presented to us. The Romanist party, by the league which they formed at Ratisbon, were the first to violate the unity of Germany. It was in the Pope's camp that the signal of battle was given. Ratisbon was the birth-place of that schism and political rending of their country which so many of the Germans to this hour deplore. The national assembly of Spire was called to insure the unity of the Empire by sanctioning and extending the Reformation of the Church. The conventicle of separatists that met at Ratisbon for ever divided the nation in two parties.* Yet the schemes of Campeggio were not at first attended with the results anticipated. But few of the chiefs responded to the call. The most decided opponents of Luther, Duke George, of Saxony, the elector Joachim, of Brandenburg, the ecclesiastical Electors, and the imperial cities, declined taking any part. An opinion prevailed that the Pope's legate was forming a Romanist faction opposed to the national mind. The popular sympathies counterbalanced the antipathies of religion; and it was not long before the *Ratisbon Reformation* was an object of public ridicule. But a first step had been taken—an example had been set. It was expected that, with a little pains, it would be easy eventually to confirm and enlarge this Roman league. Those who then hesitated would be decided by the course of events. To the legate, Campeggio, is ascribed the glory of having laid the train which was to bring little less than destruction upon the liberties of Germany, and the safety of the Empire and the Reformation. From that hour the cause of Luther was no longer of a nature purely religious; and the contest with the Wittenberg monk ranked among the political events of Europe. Luther, in this new sphere, would pass under eclipse, and Charles V., the Pope, and the reigning Princes, would be the chief actors on the stage where the grand drama of the sixteenth century was to be performed.

But the prospect of the assembly at Spire was continually present to the minds of the people. Its measures might remedy the mischiefs that Campeggio had occasioned at Ratisbon. Accordingly, Rome strained every nerve to prevent its assembling. "What!" exclaimed the Pope's deputies to Charles V., as also to his ally, Henry VIII., and other princes, "will these presumptuous Germans pretend to decide points of faith in the national assembly? They seem to expect that kings, the imperial authority, all Christendom, and the whole world, are to bend to their decisions."

The moment was not ill-chosen for influencing the Emperor. The war between that prince and Francis the First was at its height. Pescara and the Constable of Bourbon had left Italy, and entering France in the month of May, laid siege to Marseilles. The Pope, who looked with an evil eye on this attack, might effect a powerful diversion in the rear of the Imperial forces. Charles, who, under these circumstances, must have feared to give umbrage to his Holiness, did not hesitate to sacrifice the independence of the Empire, that he might purchase the favour of Rome, and humble his rival, the king of France.

On the 15th July, Charles issued an edict, dated at Burgos, in Castile, "in which he haughtily and angrily declared, that to the Pope alone belonged the right to convoke a Council, and to the Emperor that of de-

manding one; that the meeting appointed to be held at Spire neither ought to be, nor could be allowed: that it was strange that the German people should undertake to do that, which all the nations of the earth, with the Pope at their head, could not lawfully do: and that it was necessary, without delay, to carry into effect the decree of Worms against the modern Mahomet."

Thus it was from Spain and Italy the blow was struck which arrested the development of the Gospel among the people of Germany. Charles was not satisfied with this. In 1519 he had offered to duke John, the Elector's brother, to give his sister, the Archduchess Catharine, in marriage to his son, John Frederic, heir to the electorate. But was not that reigning house of Saxony the grand support of those principles of religious and political independence which Charles detested? He decided to break off all intercourse with the troublesome and guilty champion of Gospel principles and the nation's wishes—and accordingly gave his sister in marriage to John III., king of Portugal. Frederic, who in 1519 had manifested some indifference to the overtures of the king of Spain, was enabled in 1524, to suppress his indignation at this conduct of the Emperor. But Duke John haughtily intimated his feeling of the affront put upon him.

Thus, an observer might have distinguished, as they fell slowly into the line, the rival hosts by whose struggle for mastery the Empire was to be so long convulsed.

The Romanists went a step further. The compact of Ratisbon was to be no empty form; it was necessary that it should be sealed with blood. Ferdinand and Campeggio descended the Danube from Ratisbon to Vienna, and, during their journey, mutually pledged themselves to cruel measures. Instantly a persecution was set on foot in the Austrian provinces.

A citizen of Vienna, by name Gaspard Tauber, had circulated Luther's writings, and had himself written against the invocation of saints, purgatory, and transubstantiation.* Being thrown into prison, he was required by his judges, both divines and jurisconsults, to retract his errors. It was believed that he had given way, and every preparation was made in Vienna to gratify the populace with the solemn spectacle of his recantation. On St. Mary's day, two pulpits were erected over the cemetery of St. Stephen's, the one for the leader of the choir, whose office was to chaunt the heretic's repentance, the other for Tauber himself. The formula of his recantation was put into his hands.† The people, the choristers, and the priests, were in silent expectation. Whether it was that Tauber had given no promise to recant, or whether, in the appointed moment of abjuration, he suddenly received fresh energy of faith—he exclaimed aloud, "*I am not convinced, and I appeal to the holy Roman Empire.*" Ecclesiastics, choristers, and by-standers, were struck with astonishment and dismay. But Tauber continued calling for death rather than that he should deny the Gospel. He was beheaded—his body burned;‡ and his firmness left an indelible impression on the memory of the citizens of Vienna.

At Buda, in Hungary, a bookseller, named John, who had received the truth in the love of it, had distributed copies of the New Testament, and also some of Luther's writings. The persecutors bound him to a stake, and then forming a pile of his books, so as to enclose him within them, set fire to the whole. The

* Atque etiam proprios ipse tractatus perscripserim. (Cochlæus, p. 92, verso.)

† See Cochlæi, lb. Cum igitur ego Casparus Tauber, etc.

‡ Credo te vidisse Casparis Tauber historiam martyris novi Viennæ, quem cæsum capite scribunt et igne exustum pro verbo Dei. (Luther to Hausmann, 12 Nov. 1524, ii. p. 563.)

poor man manifested an unshaken courage, rejoicing, amidst the flames, that he was counted worthy to suffer for his Lord's name. "Blood follows blood," cried Luther, when he heard of this martyrdom,* "but that innocent blood that Rome delights to shed, will one day choke the Pope, with his kings and their kingdoms."†

The zeal of the fanatics burnt every day more fiercely. Gospel preachers were expelled, magistrates banished, and sometimes the most horrible torments were inflicted. In Wurtemberg an inquisitor, named Reichler, caused the Lutherans, especially their preachers, to be hanged upon the trees. Monsters were found, who deliberately nailed by their tongues to the stake the ministers of God's word—so that the sufferers, tearing themselves in their agony from the wood to which they were fastened, endured a frightful mutilation in their efforts to liberate themselves—and were thus deprived of that gift of speech which they had long used in the preaching of the Gospel.‡

The same persecutions were set on foot in the other states of the Catholic League. In the neighbourhood of Salzburg, a minister of the Gospel, who had been sentenced to imprisonment for life, was on his way to the prison: while the constables who had charge of him were stopping to drink at a house by the wayside, two country youths, moved with compassion, contrived, by eluding their vigilance, to favour the escape of the pastor. The rage of the Archbishop broke forth against these poor people, and without so much as any form of trial, he commanded that they should be beheaded. They were secretly taken outside the town, at an early hour. Coming to the plain where they were to die, the executioner's heart failed him:—"For," said he, "they have not been condemned." "Do your duty," said the Archbishop's emissary, sternly, "and leave to the Prince to answer for it:—"and the heads of the youths were immediately struck off.§

The persecution raged with most violence in the states of the Duke of Bavaria. Priests were degraded; nobles expelled from their castles; spies traversed the country; and suspicion and terror filled the hearts of all. Bernard Fichtel, a magistrate, was on his way to Nuremberg, called thither by the Duke's affairs; on the road, he was joined by Francis Bourkard, a professor, from Ingolstadt, and a friend of Eck. Bourkard accosted him, and they travelled in company. After supping together, the professor began to speak on matters of religion. Fichtel having some knowledge of his company, reminded him that the recent edict prohibited such topics of conversation. "Between us," answered Bourkard, "there is nothing to fear." On this Fichtel remarked, "I don't think the edict can be enforced;" and he went on to express himself in a tone of doubt respecting purgatory, observing, "that it was a dreadful thing to visit religious differences with death." At hearing this, Bourkard could not control himself. "What more just," exclaimed he, "than to strike on the heads of all those scoundrel Lutherans!" He soon took a kind leave of Fichtel;—but hastened to lodge information against him. Fichtel was thrown into prison, and the unhappy man, who had no desire of the martyr's crown—his religious convictions not being at all deep—escaped death only by a shameful recantation. Confidence was at an end; and no one was safe.

But that death which Fichtel avoided, others met.

* Idem accidit Budæ in Ungaria bibliopolæ cuidam Johanni, simul cum libris cirois eum positus exusto, fortissimeque passo pro Domino. (Ibid.)

† Sanguis sanguinem tangit, qui suffocabit papam cum regibus et regnis suis. (Ibid.)

‡ Ranke, Deutsche Gesch. ii. p. 174.

§ Zauner, Salzburger Chronik IV. p. 391.

It was in vain that the Gospel was not only privately preached.* The Duke urged on its pursuers; following it even in the darkness, in secret places, in private dwellings, and mountain recesses.

"The cross and persecution are in full career in Bavaria," said Luther: "those wild beasts are carrying all before them."†

Even the north of Germany was not exempted from these atrocities. Bogislas, Duke of Pomerania, dying, his son, who had been brought up in the court of Duke George, set on foot a persecution of the Gospel. Svaen and Knipstrow were compelled to seek refuge in flight.

But it was in Holstein, that one of the most memorable instances of fanaticism occurred.

Henry Zuphten, who, as has been seen, had escaped from the convent at Antwerp, was engaged in preaching the Gospel at Bremen. Nicholas Boye, pastor at Mehlendorf, in the country of the Dittmarches, and several devout persons of the neighbouring districts, having invited him to come over and declare Jesus Christ; he complied. Immediately, the prior of the Dominicans and the vicar of the official of Hamburg concerted measures. "If he is allowed to preach, and the people give ear," said they, "we are undone." The prior passed a disturbed night; and, rising early in the morning, repaired to the wild and barren heath on which the forty-eight regents of the country are accustomed to hold their meetings. "The monk from Bremen is come amongst us," said he, addressing them, "and will bring ruin on the Dittmarches." Those forty-eight simple-minded and unlearned men, deceived into the belief that they would earn imperishable renown by delivering the world from the heretical monk, decided on putting him to death without so much as giving him a hearing.

It was Saturday—and the prior was bent on preventing Henry's preaching on the following Sunday. In the middle of the night he knocked at the door of the pastor, Boye, armed with the mandate of the forty-eight regents. "If it be the will of God that I should die among the Dittmarches," said Henry Zuphten; "Heaven is as easily reached from thence as from anywhere else.‡ I will preach."

He ascended the pulpit, and spoke with earnestness. His hearers, moved and roused by his Christian eloquence, had scarcely quitted the church, when the prior delivered to them the mandate of the forty-eight regents forbidding the monk to preach. They immediately sent a deputation to the heath, and the Dittmarches, after long discussion, agreed that, considering their total ignorance, further measures should be deferred till Easter. But the prior, irritated at this, approached certain of the regents, and stirred up their zeal afresh. "We will write to him," said they. "Have nothing to do with him," replied the prior; "if he begins to speak, we shall not be able to withstand him. We must seize him during the night, and burn him without giving him time to open his lips."

Everything was arranged accordingly. The day after Conception day, at nightfall, *Ave Maria* was rung. At the signal, all the peasants of the adjacent villages assembled, to the number of five hundred, and their leaders having broached three butts of Hamburg beer, by this means stimulated their resolution. The hour of midnight struck as the party entered Mehlendorf; the peasants were under arms; the monks carried torches; all went forward in disorder, exchanging shouts of fury. Arrived at the village, there was a deep silence

* Verbi non palam seminati. (L. Epp. ii. p. 559.)

† In Bavaria multum regnat crux et persecutio . . . (Ibid.)

‡ Der Himmel wäre da so nahe als anders wo. (L. Opp. xix. 330.)

lest Henry, receiving intimation of danger, should effect his escape.

Of a sudden, the gates of the parsonage were burst open—the drunken peasantry rushed within, striking everything in their way—tossing, pell-mell, dishes, kettles, cups, and articles of apparel. They seized any money that they could find, and then rushing on the poor pastor, they struck him down, shouting, "Kill him! kill him!" and then threw him into the mud. But Henry was their chief object in the attack. They pulled him out of bed, tied his hands behind him, and dragged him after them, naked as he was, in the piercing cold. "What are you come here for?" cried they; and as Henry answered meekly, they exclaimed, "Down with him! down with him! if we listen to him we shall become heretics like himself." They had dragged him naked over ice and snow, his feet were bleeding profusely, and he begged to be set on horseback. "A fine thing truly," said they, "for us to furnish horses for heretics! On, on!"—and they continued dragging him behind them till they arrived at the heath. A woman, who stood at the door of the house just as the servant of God was passing, burst into tears. "My good woman," said Henry, "weep not for me." The bailiff pronounced his sentence. Then one of his ferocious escort, with a sword, smote the preacher of Jesus Christ on the head. Another struck him with a club. A monk was ordered to approach, and receive his confession. "My brother," said Henry, "have I done *you* any wrong?" "None," replied the monk. "Then," returned Henry, "I have nothing to confess to you, and you have nothing to forgive." The monk retired in confusion. Many attempts were made to set fire to the pile; but the wood would not catch. For two hours the martyr stood thus in presence of the infuriated peasantry—calm, and lifting his eyes to heaven. While they were binding him, that they might cast him into the flame, he began to confess his faith. "First burn," said a countryman, dealing him a blow with his fist on the mouth; "burn; and after that, speak." They threw him on the pile, but he rolled down on one side. John Holme, seizing a club, struck him upon the breast, and laid him dead upon the burning coals. "Such is the true story of the sufferings of that holy martyr, Henry Zuphten."*

While the Romanists were, on all sides, unsheathing the sword against the Reformation, the work itself was passing through new stages of development. Not to Zurich—nor Geneva, but to Wittenberg, the focus of Luther's revival, must we go to find the beginnings of that Reformed Church, of which Calvin ranks as the most distinguished doctor: There was a time when these two great families of believers slept in the same cradle. Concord ought to have crowned their matured age; but when once the question of the Supper was raised, Luther threw away the proper element of the Reformation, and took his stand for himself and his church in an exclusive Lutheranism. The mortification he experienced from this rival teaching was shown in his loss of much of that kindness of manner which was so natural to him, and communicated, in its stead, a mistrust, an habitual dissatisfaction, and an irritability which he had never before manifested.

It was between the two early friends—the two champions who, at Leipsic, had fought side by side against Rome—between Carlstadt and Luther that the controversy broke forth. Their attachment to contrary views was the result, with each of them, of a turn of mind that has its value. Indeed, there are two extremes in religious views; the one tends to materialize all

things; the other, to spiritualize everything. The former characterized Rome; the latter is seen in the Mystics. Religion resembles man himself in this—namely, that it consists of a body and a soul; pure idealists, equally with materialists in questions of religion, as of philosophy—both err.

This was the great question which lay hid in the dispute concerning the Supper. While a superficial observer sees in it nothing but a paltry strife about words, a deeper observation discerns in it one of the most important controversies that can engage the mind of man.

Here the Reformers diverge, and form two camps; but each camp carries away a portion of the truth. Luther, with his adherents, think they are resisting an exaggerated spiritualism. Carlstadt and those of the reformed opinion, believe they are opposing a detestable materialism. Each turns against the error which, to his mind, seems most noxious, and, in assailing it, goes—it may be—beyond the truth. But this being admitted, it is still true that both are right in the prevailing turn of their thoughts, and though ranking in different hosts, the two great teachers are nevertheless found under the same standard—that of Jesus Christ, who alone is TRUTH, in the full import of that word.

Carlstadt was of opinion that nothing could be more prejudicial to genuine piety than to lean upon outward observances, and a sort of mysterious efficacy in the sacraments. "The outward participation in the Supper brings Salvation," had been the language of Rome; and that doctrine had sufficed to materialize religion. Carlstadt saw no better course for again exalting its spiritual character than to deny all presence of Christ's body; and he taught that the Supper was simply a pledge to believers of their redemption.

As to Luther, he now took an exactly opposite direction. He had at first contended for the sense we have endeavoured to open. In his tract on the Mass, published in 1520, he thus expressed himself:—"I can every day enjoy the advantages of the Sacraments, if I do but call to mind the word and promise of Christ, and with them feed and strengthen my faith." Neither Carlstadt, nor Zwingle, nor Calvin, have said anything more strong than this. It appears, indeed, that at that period, the thought would often occur to him, that a symbolical explanation of the Supper would be the mightiest engine to overturn the Papal system; for, in 1525, we find him saying, that five years before, he had gone through much trial of mind on account of this doctrine;* and that any one, who could then have proved to him that there is only the bread and wine in the Supper would have done him the greatest service.

But new circumstances arose, and threw him into a position in which he was led to oppose, and sometimes with much heat, opinions to which he had made so near an approach. The fanaticism of the Anabaptists may account for the turn which Luther then took.—These enthusiasts were not content with disparaging what they termed the outward Word—that is, the Bible, and setting up a claim to special communications of the Holy Spirit, they went so far as to despise the Sacrament of the Supper as an external act, and to speak of the inward as the only true communion. From that time, in every attempt to exhibit the symbolical import of the Supper, Luther saw only the danger of weakening the authority of the Scriptures, and of admitting, instead of their true meaning, mere arbitrary allegories spiritualizing all religion, and making it consist, not in the gifts of God, but in man's impressions; and, by this means, substituting, in place of genuine Christianity, a mystic doctrine, or theosophy, or fana-

* Das ist die wahre Historie, etc. (L. Opp. (L.) xix. p. 233.)

* Ich habe wohl so harte Anfechtungen da erhtten. (L. Epp. ii. p. 677.)

ticism, which would be sure to be its grave. It must be confessed, that but for the energetic resistance of Luther, this tendency to mysticism (enthusiastic and subjective in its character) might have rapidly extended itself, and turned back the tide of blessings which the Reformation was to pour upon the world.

Carlstadt, impatient at finding himself hindered from opening his views without reserve in Wittemberg : and having no rest in his spirit, from his desire to combat a system which, in his view, "lowered the value of Christ's death, and set aside his righteousness," resolved "to give a public testimony for the advantage of poor deluded Christians." He left Wittemberg, in the beginning of the year 1524, without previous intimation of his intention to the university or the chapter, and repaired to the small town of Orlamund, the church of which was placed under his superintendence. Dismissing the vicar, he procured himself to be appointed its pastor, and, in opposition to the wishes of the chapter, of the university, and of the elector, established himself in his new office.

He soon began to disseminate his doctrines : "It is not possible," said he, "to name any advantage derived from the *real presence*, which does not already flow from faith—it is, therefore, useless." To explain Christ's words in the institution of the Supper, he resorted to an interpretation which is not received in the Reformed churches. Luther, during the discussion at Leipsic, had explained the words—"Thou art Peter, and on this rock I will build my church"—separating the two propositions, and applying the latter to the person of our Saviour. "Just so," said Carlstadt, "'take, eat,' was spoken in reference to the bread ; but, 'this is my body,' is to be understood of Jesus Christ, who then pointed to himself—and intimated by the symbol of the broken bread, that the body was about to be broken."

Carlstadt did not stop there. Scarce had he emancipated himself from Luther's oversight, when he felt his zeal revive against the use of images. His bold addresses and enthusiastic appeals were but too likely to madden the minds of men in these agitated times. The people, thinking they heard a second Elijah, proceeded to throw down the idols of Baal. The excitement soon spread to the neighbouring villages. The Elector interfered ; but the peasants answered that it was right to obey God rather than men. On this, the prince decided to despatch Luther to Orlamund, to restore tranquillity. Luther looked upon Carlstadt as a man urged on by a love of notoriety ; * a fanatic, who would even go the length of raising war against Christ himself. Perhaps Frederic might have made a wiser choice. Luther, however, set forth ; and Carlstadt saw his troublesome rival once more appear, in order to baffle his projects of reform, and arrest his impetuosity.

Jena lay in the road to Orlamund. Arriving in that town on the 23d of August, Luther ascended the pulpit on the 24th, at seven in the morning. He preached an hour and a half to a numerous auditory against fanatics, rebels, the breakers of images, and the despisers of the real presence, protesting with vehemence against the innovations at Orlamund. He did not refer to Carlstadt by name, but everyone understood whom he had in his eye.

Either by accident or design, Carlstadt was then at Jena, and among the crowd of Luther's hearers. He lost no time in calling the preacher to account. Luther was at dinner with the prior of Wittemberg, the burgomaster, the secretary, the pastor of Jena, and several officers in the service of the Emperor, and of

the Margrave, when a letter was handed to him from Carlstadt, requesting an interview. He passed it to those near him, and returned a message by the bearer : "If Doctor Carlstadt wishes to see me, let him come in ;—if not, I have no wish to see him." Carlstadt entered. His appearance produced a lively sensation in the whole assembly. The majority, eager to see the two lions encounter one another, suspended their repast, and were all eyes, while the more timid turned pale with apprehension.

Carlstadt, at Luther's invitation, took a seat opposite to him, and then said, "Doctor, you have, in your sermon of this day, classed me with those who inculcate revolt and assassination. I declare that such a charge is false."

LUTHER.—"I did not name you ; but since the cap fits, you may wear it."

A momentary pause ensued.—Carlstadt resumed : "I am prepared to show that, in the doctrine of the sacrament, you have contradicted yourself, and, that from the days of the apostles, no one has preached that doctrine so purely as I have done."

LUTHER.—"Write then—establish your point."

CARLSTADT.—"I offer you a public discussion at Wittemberg, or at Erfurth, if you promise me a safe-conduct."

LUTHER.—"Never fear, Doctor !"

CARLSTADT.—"You bind me hand and foot, and when you have deprived me of the power to defend myself, you strike."*

Silence ensued.—Luther resumed :—

"Write against me—but openly—and not in secret."

CARLSTADT.—"If I were but assured you were in earnest in what you say, I would do so."

LUTHER.—"Set about it ;—here—take this florin."

CARLSTADT.—"Where is it ? I accept the challenge."

At these words, Luther thrust his hand in his pocket, and producing a gold florin, said, as he gave it to Carlstadt, "Take it, and attack me like a man."

Carlstadt, holding the gold florin in his hand, and turning to the assembly, said, "Dear brethren, this is to me *arabo*, a pledge that I have authority to write against Luther ; I call you all to witness this."

Then bending the florin, that he might know it again, he put it into his purse, and held out his hand to Luther. The latter pledged him. Carlstadt returned his civility. "The more vigorous your attacks, the better I shall like them," resumed Luther.

"If I fail," answered Carlstadt, "the fault will be mine."

They once more shook each other by the hand, and Carlstadt returned to his lodging.

Thus, says an historian, as from a single spark a fire often originates which consumes, in its progress, the vast forest ; so, from this small beginning, a great division in the Church took its rise.†

Luther set forward for Orlamund, and arrived there but indifferently prepared by the scene at Jena. He assembled the council and the church, and said, "Neither the Elector nor the University will acknowledge Carlstadt as your pastor."—If Carlstadt is not our pastor, replied the treasurer of the town-council, "why then, St. Paul is a false teacher, and your writings are mere falsehood—for we have chosen him."‡

* Ihr bandet mir Hände et Füße, darnach schlugt Ihr mich (L. Opp. xix. p. 160.)

† Sicut una scintilla sæpe totam sylvam comburit. (M. Adam, Vit Carlst. p. 83.) Our account is chiefly derived from the *Acts of Reinhard*, pastor of Jena, an eye-witness—but a friend of Carlstadt—and taxed with inaccuracy by Luther.

‡ How remarkable is this incident ! On this passage the translator had made a note which he will here insert for the confirmation of those who, though only 'two or three' in any

* Hue perpulit eum insana gloriæ et launis libido. (L. Epp. ii. p. 651.)

As he said this, Carlstadt entered the room. Some of those who happened to be next to Luther, made signs to him to be seated, but Carlstadt, going straight up to Luther, said, "Dear Doctor, if you will allow me, I will give you induction."

LUTHER.—"You are my antagonist. I have fixed you by the pledge of a florin."

CARLSTADT.—"I will be your antagonist so long as you are opposed to God and his truth."

LUTHER.—"Leave the room; I cannot allow of your being present."

CARLSTADT.—"This is an open meeting—if your cause is good, why fear me?"

LUTHER, to his attendant:—"Go—put the horses to: I have nothing to say here to Carlstadt; and since he will not leave, I shall go."* Luther rose from his seat, upon which Carlstadt withdrew.

After a moment's silence, Luther resumed:—"Only prove from the Scripture that it is our duty to destroy images."

ONE OF THE TOWN COUNCIL.—"Doctor, you will allow, I suppose, that Moses was acquainted with God's commandments." This said, he opened his Bible. "Well, here are his words—'*Thou shalt not make to thyself any graven image, nor any likeness,*'" &c.

LUTHER.—"The passage refers only to images for idolatrous worship. If I hang up, in my chamber a crucifix, and do not worship it; what harm can it do me?"

A SHOEMAKER.—"I have often touched my hat before an image which was in my room, or on my mantelpiece. It is an act of idolatry which robs God of the glory due to Him alone."

LUTHER.—"Would you think it necessary, then, because they are abused, to put your women to death, and pour your wine into the gutter."†

ANOTHER MEMBER OF THE CHURCH.—"No: they are God's creatures, which we are not commanded to destroy."

The conference had lasted some time. Luther and his attendant returned to their carriage, astonished at the scene they had witnessed, and having failed to convince the inhabitants, who claimed for themselves the right of interpreting and freely expounding the

one place, are acting in confidence in the sufficiency of God and the word of His grace 'to build them up.'

If the conference had been really carried on in the reverential sense of the presence of the Spirit, (Acts i. 24; Eph. ii. 22,) it might have been asked, and so have come down to us, on what passage in St. Paul these persons grounded their choosing of their pastor.

But would not the recognition of His *presence* have led to the acknowledgment of His 'dividing' gifts to the mutually dependant members, (1 Cor. xii. 25; xiv. 31,) 'according to His own will?' (1 Cor. xii. 11,) and so have prevented the assertion of a right on their part to elect—much less to elect to *exclusive* pastorate?

Luther was a brother, and one not meanly gifted for service to the body—might it not have been expected that Carlstadt calling to mind Romans xii. and 1 Cor. xiv. 3, 31, would have welcomed the word of Luther in the little church of Orlamund—and that that word would have been just the very corrective, or rather complement needed by the peculiarity of Carlstadt's teaching—for, as M. D'Aubigne has observed, the turn of mind of each had his value.

Instead of this, we find the Great Reformer saying, "The Elector and the University will not acknowledge Carlstadt as your pastor;" and the church of Orlamund replying, "We have chosen him;"—the two forms of disobedient *limiting* of the teaching of the Spirit, with which Christians have become so familiar—and which, in their want of faith, almost all are helping to perpetuate.

See the reflections at the opening of the XIth Book of this history. The heart that is exercised by these things should consider John xiv. 16, 26; xvi. 7; xvii. 21; Acts v. 3; Rom. viii. 9; 1 Cor. ii. 2; xiv. 37; Eph. iv. 16; 1 Th. iv. 18; v. 11; Heb. iii. 13.

* Spann an, spann an. (L. Opp. xix. p. 154.)

† So muss du des Missbrauchs halber auch. (Ibid. p. 155.)

Scripture. Agitation reigned in Orlamund. The people insulted Luther; and some even called after him—"Begone! in the name of all the devils; and may you break your neck before you are out of our town."* Never had the Reformer had to undergo such contemptuous treatment.

He repaired thence to Kale, the pastor of which place had also embraced the views of Carlstadt. He resolved to preach a sermon there; but on entering the pulpit, he found the broken fragments of a crucifix. At first his emotion overcame him; but recovering himself, he gathered up the pieces into one corner of the pulpit, and delivered a discourse in which he made no allusion to the circumstance. "I determined," said he, speaking of it in after life, "to revenge myself on the devil by this *contempt for him*."

The nearer the Elector's life drew to a close, the more did he appear to dread lest men should go too far in the work of Reformation. He issued orders to deprive Carlstadt of his appointments, and banished him, not only from Orlamund, but from the states of the Electorate. It was in vain that the Church of Orlamund interceded in his behalf—in vain did they petition that he might be permitted to reside among them as a private citizen, with leave occasionally to preach—in vain did they represent that the word of God was dearer to them than the whole world, or even a thousand worlds.† Frederic was deaf to their entreaties, and he even went the length of refusing the unhappy Carlstadt the funds necessarily required for his journey. Luther had nothing to do with this sternness on the part of the Prince: it was foreign to his disposition—and this he afterward proved. But Carlstadt looked at him as the author of his disgrace, and filled Germany with his complaints and lamentations. He wrote a farewell letter to his friends at Orlamund. The bells were tolled, and the letter read in the presence of the sorrowing Church.‡ It was signed—"Andrew Bodenstein, expelled by Luther, unconvicted, and without even a hearing."

It is impossible not to feel a pain at contemplating these two men, once friends, and both worthy of our esteem, thus angrily opposed. Sadness took possession of the souls of the disciples of the Reformation. What would be the end of it, when thus its bravest defenders turned one against another? Luther could discern these fears, and endeavoured to allay them. "Let us contend," said he, "as those who fight for another. It is God's cause:‡ the *care* of it belongs to God—the work, the victory, and the glory, all are His. He will fight for it, and prevail, though we should stand still. Whatever He decrees should fall, let it fall—whatever He wills should stand, let that stand. It is no cause of our own that is at stake; and we seek not our own glory."

Carlstadt sought refuge at Strasburg, where he published several writings. "He was well acquainted," says Doctor Scheur, "with Latin, Greek, and Hebrew;" and Luther acknowledged him to be his superior in learning. Endowed with great powers of mind, he sacrificed to his convictions fame, station, country, and even his bread. At a later period of his life he visited Switzerland. There, it might seem, he ought to have commenced his teaching. The independence of his spirit needed the free air breathed by

* Two of the most distinguished living historians of Germany add, that Luther was pelted by the inhabitants; but Luther tells us the contrary:—"Dass ich nit mit Steinen und Dreck ausgeworfen ward." (L. Opp. ii. p. 579.)

† Hoher als tausend Welten. (Seck. p. 628.)

‡ Quæ publice vocat per campanas lectæ sunt omnibus simul flentibus. (L. Opp. ii. 558.)

§ Causa Dei est, cura Dei est, opus Dei est, victoria Dei est, gloria Dei est. (L. Opp. ii. p. 555.)

the (Ecolampadiuses and Zwingles. His instructions soon attracted an attention nearly equal to that which had been excited by the earliest theses put forth by Luther. Switzerland seemed almost gained over to his doctrine. Bucer and Capito also appeared to adopt his views.

Then it was that Luther's indignation rose to its height; and he put forth one of the most powerful but also most outrageous of his controversial writings—his book "*Against the Celestial Prophets*."

Thus the Reformation, hunted down by the Pope, the Emperor, and the Princes, began to tear its own vitals. It seemed to be sinking under accumulated evils; and surely it would have been lost if it had been a work of man. But soon from the very brink of ruin it rose again in renewed energy.

The Catholic League of Ratisbon, and the persecutions that followed close upon it, created a powerful popular re-action. The Germans were not disposed to surrender that word of God of which they had recovered possession; and when orders to that effect came to them from Charles V., though backed by papal bulls and the faggots of Ferdinand, and other Catholic Princes, they returned for an answer, "We will not give it up."

No sooner had the members of the League taken their departure from Ratisbon, when the deputies of the towns, whose bishops had taken part in that alliance, surprised and indignant, assembled at Spire, and passed a law, that, notwithstanding the episcopal prohibitions, their preachers should confine themselves to the proclamation of the Gospel, and the Gospel only, according to the doctrine of the apostles and prophets. They proceeded to prepare a report, couched in firm and consistent terms, to be presented to the assembly of their nation.

The Emperor's letter, dated from Burgos, came unseasonably to disturb their plans. Nevertheless, toward the close of that year, the deputies of the towns and many nobles assembled at Ulm, bound themselves by solemn oaths to assist one another in case of an attack.

Thus the free cities opposed to the camp, that had been formed by Austria, and Bavaria, and the bishops, another, in which the standard of the Gospel and of the national liberty were unfurled.

While the cities were placing themselves in the van of the Reformation, several princes were, about the same time, gained over to its ranks. In the beginning of June, 1524, Melancthon was returning, on horseback, from a visit to his mother, in company with Camerarius and some other friends, when approaching Frankfort, he met a brilliant retinue;—it was Philip, Landgrave of Hesse, who, three years previously, had visited Luther at Worms, and was now on his way to the games of Heidelberg, where most of the princes of Germany were expected to be present.

Thus did Providence bring Philip successively in contact with the two leading Reformers. It was known that the celebrated Doctor was gone on a journey to his birth-place. One of the horsemen who accompanied the Landgrave remarked—"It is Melancthon, I think." Immediately the young Prince put spurs to his horse, and coming up with the Doctor, enquired—"Is your name Philip?" "It is," replied he, drawing back timidly, and preparing respectfully to alight.* "Keep your saddle," said the Prince, "turn your horse's head, and come stay one night with me; there are some things I want to speak with you about. Fear nothing." "What can I fear from a prince like yourself?" rejoined the Doctor. "Ah,

ah!" said the Landgrave, laughing, "if I were only to carry you off, and hand you over to Campeggio, he would not be a little pleased, I suspect." The two Philips rode onward, side by side—the Prince asking questions, and the Doctor answering; and the Landgrave delighted with the clear and impressive views that were opened before him. At length, Melancthon entreating him to permit him to continue his journey, Philip reluctantly parted with him. "On one condition," said he, "and that is, that, on your return home, you should treat fully the questions we have discussed,* and send me your thoughts in writing." Melancthon promised. "Go, then," said Philip, "and pass freely through my states."

Melancthon with his accustomed talent prepared an *Abridgement of the Reformed Doctrine of Christianity*;† and this tract, remarkable for its conciseness and force of argument, made a decided impression on the mind of the Landgrave. Shortly after his return from the Heidelberg games, this Prince issued an edict, in which, without connecting himself with the free towns, he opposed the League of Ratisbon, and directed that the Gospel should be preached in all its purity. He embraced it himself, with the energy that marked his character. "Rather," exclaimed he, "would I sacrifice my body, my life, my estates, and my subjects, than the word of God!" A Franciscan friar, named Ferber, perceiving this inclination of the Prince in favour of the Reformation, wrote to him a letter filled with reproaches and entreaties to continue faithful to Rome. "I am resolved," answered Philip, "to be faithful to the ancient doctrine—but as I find it set forth in the Scriptures:" and he proceeded to prove, with much clearness of statement, that man is justified by faith alone. The monk, confounded, made no reply.‡ The Landgrave was commonly spoken of as "the disciple of Melancthon."§

Other Princes followed the same course. The Elector Palatine refused to countenance the slightest persecution; the Duke of Luneburg, nephew of the Elector of Saxony, began the Reformation in his dominions; and the King of Denmark gave orders that, throughout Sleswick and Holstein, every one should be at liberty to worship God according as his conscience dictated.

The Reformation gained a victory yet more important. A Prince, whose conversion to Gospel truth involved consequences most momentous to our own times, now evinced a disposition to withdraw from Rome. One day, toward the end of June, shortly after the return of Melancthon to Wittemberg, Albert, Margrave of Brandenburg, and Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, entered Luther's apartment. This chief of the monastic knights of Germany, who then governed Prussia, had repaired to the Diet of Nuremberg, to invoke the aid of the Empire against Poland. He returned broken in spirit. On one hand, Osiander's preaching, and the reading of the New Testament, had convinced him that his monk's vow was contrary to the word of God; on the other, the suppression of the national government in Germany had deprived him of all hope of obtaining the assistance which he had come to solicit. What was to be done . . . ? The Saxon councillor, De Planitz, in whose company he had left Nuremberg, proposed to him to seek an interview with the Reformer. "What think you," said the anxious and agitated Prince to Luther, "of the rule of our order?" Luther did not hesitate; he saw that

* Ut de questionibus quas audisset moveri, aliquid diligentius conscriptum curaret. (Ibid.)

† Epitome renovatæ ecclesiasticæ doctrinæ.

‡ Seckendorf, p. 738.

§ Princeps ille discipulus Philippi fuit a quibusdam appellatus. (Camer. p. 95.)

* Honoris causa de equo descensus. (Camerarius, p. 94.)

a course of conduct in conformity with the Gospel was also, the only means of saving Prussia. "Look to God for assistance," said he, to the Grand Master, "and reject the senseless and inconsistent rule of your order; put an end to your detestable hermaphrodite principalities, neither religious nor secular;* away with mere pretended chastity, and seek that which is the true. Take a wife—and become the founder of a legitimate empire, in place of that anomalous monster."† These words set clearly before the mind of the Grand Master a state of things which he had as yet seen but indistinctly. A smile lighted up his countenance; but he was too prudent to give utterance to his thoughts.‡ Melancthon, who was present, spoke to the same effect as Luther, and the Prince set out to return to his dominions, leaving the Reformers in the confident hope that the seed which they had sown would sink down into his heart, and one day bring forth fruit.

Thus, as we have seen, Charles the Fifth and the Pope had opposed the national assembly at Spire, fearing lest the Word of God should win over all present; but the Word of God was not bound. It was denied a hearing in a hall of a town of the Lower Palatinate. But what then?—it burst forth and spread throughout the provinces, stirring the hearts of the people, enlightening the Princes, and developing that Divine power of which neither Bulls nor ordinances can ever divest it.

While nations and their rulers were thus coming to the light, the Reformers were endeavouring to remould everything by the infusion of the true principles of Christianity. Public worship first engaged their attention. The moment, anticipated by the Reformer, when returning from the Wartburg, had arrived: "Now," said he, "that hearts have been fortified by Divine Grace, we must put away those things which defile the Lord's kingdom, and attempt to do something in the Name of Jesus." He required that the communion should be taken under both kinds; that the Supper should be cleared of everything which gave to it the character of a sacrifice;§ that Christians should never assemble themselves together without having the word of God preached to them;|| that the flock, or at least the priests and students, should meet every morning at four or five o'clock, to read the Old Testament, and every evening at five or six o'clock to read the New Testament; that on Sundays the whole church should meet together, morning and afternoon, and that the great object of the services should be to sound abroad the Word of God.¶

The church of All Saints, at Wittenberg, especially called forth his indignation. In it, (to quote the words of Seckendorf,) 9,991 masses were annually celebrated, and 35,570 lbs. of wax annually consumed. Luther called it "the sacrilege of Tophet." "There are," said he, "only three or four lazy monks who still worship this shameful Mammon; and if I had not restrained the people, this abode of all Saints, or rather of all Devils, should have been brought down with a crash such as the world has never yet heard."

It was in connection with this church that the conflict began. It resembled those ancient sanctuaries of heathen worship in Egypt, Gaul, and Germa-

ny, which were ordained to fall, that Christianity might be established in their place.

Luther, earnestly desiring that the mass should be abolished in this cathedral, addressed to the chapter, on the 1st of March, 1523, a requisition to that effect, following it up by a second letter dated the 11th July.* The canons having pleaded the Elector's orders—"What, in this case, have we to do with the prince's orders?" remarked Luther: "he is but a secular prince; his business is to bear the sword, and not to interfere in the ministry of the Gospel."† Luther here clearly marks the distinction between the State and the Church. "There is," said he again, "but one sacrifice to put away sins—Christ who has offered himself *once for all*; and we are partakers thereof, not by any works or sacrifices of ours—but solely through belief of the word of God."‡

The Elector, feeling his end approaching, was averse from further change.

But entreaties from other quarters came in aid of Luther. "It is high time to act," wrote the cathedral provost, Jonas, to the Elector: "such a shining forth of Gospel truth, as that which we have at this hour, does not ordinarily last longer than a sunbeam. Let us then lose no time."§

This letter of Jonas, not having changed the Elector's views, Luther became impatient; he judged that the time had come to strike the final blow, and he addressed a letter of menace to the chapter. "I beg of you, as a friend—I desire and seriously urge it upon you, to put an end to this sectarian worship. If you refuse to do so, you shall, God helping, receive the punishment which you will have deserved. I say this for your guidance, and I request an immediate reply—yes, or no—before Sunday next, in order that I may consider what I have to do. God give you grace to follow His light.¶

MARTIN LUTHER.

"Preacher at Wittenberg."

"Thursday, Dec. 8th, 1524."

At this juncture the rector, two burgomasters, and ten councillors, waited upon the Dean, and begged him in the name of the university, of the council, and of the commune of Wittenberg, "to abolish the great and horrible impiety committed against the majesty of God, in the celebration of mass."

The chapter found it necessary to give way, and declared that, enlightened by the word of God,§ they acknowledged the abuses which had been denounced, and published a new order of service, which began to be observed on Christmas Day, 1524.

Thus fell the mass in this renowned sanctuary, where it had so long held out against the reiterated attacks of the Reformers. The elector, Frederic, suffering from gout, and drawing near his end, could not, by any efforts of his, retard this great triumph of the Reformation. He saw in it the will of God, and submitted to it. The cessation of Romish observances, in the church of All Saints, hastened their abolition in many of the churches of Christendom. In all quarters there was similar resistance, but also the like victory. Vainly did priests, and even princes, in many places, try to oppose obstacles; they could effect nothing.

It was not alone in public worship that the Reformation was ordained to work a change. Education was very early associated with the Reformed church;

* Ut loco illius abominabilis principatus, qui hermaphrodita quidam. (L. Epp. ii. p. 627.)

† Ut contempta ista stulta confusaque regula, uxorem duceret. (Ibid.)

‡ Ille tum arrisit, sed nihil respondit. (Ibid.)

§ Weise christliche Messe zu halten. (L. Opp. (L.) xxii. p. 232.)

¶ Dei christliche Gemeine nimmer soll zusammen kommen, es werde denn daselbst Gottes Wort geprediget. (L. Opp. xxii. 226.)

¶ Dass das Wort im Schwange gehe. (Ibid.)

* L. Epp. ii. p. 308, and 854.

† Welchem gehührt das Schwerdt, nicht das Predigtamt zu versorgen. (L. Opp. xviii. p. 497.)

‡ Corp. Ref. i. p. 636.

§ L. Epp. ii. p. 665

¶ Durch das Licht des heiligen göttlichen Woetes. . . (L. Opp. xviii. p. 605.)

and these two institutions, in their power to regenerate mankind, were alike invigorated by its influence. It was in intimate alliance with letters that the Reformation had made its appearance in the world ; and, in the hour of its triumph, it did not forget its ally.

Christianity is not a mere expansion of Judaism ; its great end is not again to envelop man, as the papacy seeks to do, in the "swaddling-bands of outward ordinances, and man's teaching. Christianity is a new creation ; it takes possession of the inward man, and transforms him in the innermost principles of his nature ; so that he needeth not human teaching, but, by God's help, is able of himself, and by himself, to discern that which is true, and to do that which is right."*

To bring man to that maturity which Christ has purchased for him, and to emancipate him from the tutelage in which Rome had so long held him bound, the Reformation must needs develop the whole man ; and, while by the Word of God it regenerated his heart and will, it enlightened his understanding by the study of sacred and profane literature.

Luther understood this ; he felt, that to consolidate the Reformation, he must work on the minds of the rising generation, remodel the schools, and propagate throughout Christendom the knowledge necessary for a deep study of the Holy Scriptures. This, therefore, was one of the objects of his life. He was especially impressed with this conviction at this period of his history, and, accordingly, he addressed a letter to the councillors of all the towns in Germany, urging them to found Christian schools. "Dear sirs," said he, "so much money is annually expended in arquebuses, making roads, and constructing dykes, how is it that a little is not expended in paying one or two schoolmasters to instruct our poor children ? God stands at the door, and knocks ; blessed are we if we open to Him ! Now-a-days there is no famine of God's word. My dear countrymen—buy, buy, while the market is opened before your dwellings. The Word of God and His grace resembles a shower which falls and passes on. It fell among the Jews ; but it passed away, and now they have it no longer. Paul bore it with him to Greece ; but there, also, it is passed, and Mahometanism prevails in its place. It came to Rome and the Latin territories ; but from thence it likewise departed, and now Rome has the pope.† O ! Germans—think not that you will never have that Word taken away from you. The little value you put upon it will cause it to be withdrawn. Therefore, he who would have it, must lay hold upon, and keep it.

"Let our youth be, the objects of your care," he continued, addressing the magistrates, "for many parents are like the ostrich, their hearts are hardened against their young, and, satisfied with having laid the egg, they give themselves no further trouble about it. The prosperity of a town does not consist in amassing wealth, erecting walls, building mansions, and the possession of arms. If attacked by a party of madmen, its ruin and devastation would only be the more terrible. The true well-being of a town, its security, its strength, is to number within it many learned, serious, kind, and well-educated citizens. And who is to blame that there are found, in our day, so few of this stamp, but you, magistrates, who have suffered our youth to grow up like the neglected growth of the forest ?"

Luther especially insisted on the necessity for the study of literature and languages ; "We are asked," says he, "what is the use of learning Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, when we can read the Bible in German ?

But for the languages," he replied, "we should never have received the Gospel . . . Languages are the scabbard in which the sword of the Spirit* is found ; they are the casket which holds the jewels ; they are the vessels which contain the new wine ; they are the baskets in which are kept the loaves and fishes which are to feed the multitude. If we cease to study languages, we shall not only lose the Gospel, but eventually we shall be unable either to speak or write in Latin or in German. From the hour we throw them aside, Christianity may date its decline, even to falling again under the dominion of the pope. But now that languages are once more held in estimation, they diffuse such light that all mankind are astonished—and that every one may see that the Gospel we preach is almost as pure as that of the apostles themselves. The holy fathers of other days, made many mistakes by reason of their ignorance of languages ; in our time, some, like the Vaudois of Piedmont, do not attach value to the study of them ; but though their doctrine may be sound, they often fail of the real meaning of the sacred text ; they are without a safeguard against error, and I much fear that their faith will not continue pure.‡ If a knowledge of languages had not given me the certainty of the true sense of the Word, I might have been a pious monk, quietly preaching the truth in the obscurity of the cloister ; but I should have left pope, sophists, and their anti-Christian power, in the ascendant."§

But Luther's attention was not limited to the education of ecclesiastics ; he was desirous that learning should no longer be confined to the church alone ; and proposed to extend it to the laity, who had, hitherto, been debarred from it. He suggested the establishment of libraries, not limited merely to works and commentaries of scholastic divines, and fathers of the church, but furnished with the productions of orators and poets, even though heathens, as also with books of literature, law, medicine, and history. "Such writings," said he, "are of use to make known the wonderful works of God."

This effort of Luther is one of the most important the Reformation produced. It wrested learning from the hands of the priests, who had monopolised it, like those of Egypt in ancient times—and rendered it accessible to all. From this impulse, derived from the Reformation, some of the greatest developments of later ages have proceeded. Literary men, and scholars of the laity, who, now-a-days, decry the Reformation, forget that they are themselves its offspring ; and that, but for its influence, they would at this hour be like half-educated children, subject to the tyrannical authority of the clergy. The Reformation recognised the intimate connection of all branches of learning, receiving all to learn, and opening all the avenues to learning. "They who despise general literature," said Melancthon, "make no more account of sacred theology ; their affected contempt is but a pretext to conceal their indolence."¶

The Reformation not only communicated a mighty impulse to literature, but served to elevate the arts, although Protestantism has often been reproached as their enemy. Many Protestants have willingly taken up and borne this reproach. We will not examine whether or not the Reformation ought to glory in it ; but will merely remark, that impartial history does not

* Die Sprachen sind die Scheide, darinnen dies Messer des Geistes steket. (L. Opp. W. x. p. 535.)

† Es sey oder werde nicht lauter bleiben. (L. Opp. W. x. p. 535.)

‡ Ich hätte wohl auch können fromm seyn und in der Stille rechte predigen. (Ibid.)

§ Hunc titulum ignavia sue pretextunt. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 613.)

* Heb. chap. viii. 11.

† Aber hin ist hin ; sie haben nun den papst. (L. Opp. W. x. 536.)

confirm the premises on which the charge rests. Let Roman Catholicism pride itself on being more favorable than Protestantism to the arts. Be it so : Paganism was even more so ; while Protestantism hath somewhat else to glory in. There are some religions in which the disposition in man to a taste for the fine arts has a place assigned to it above that given to his moral nature. Christianity is distinguished from these by the fact that the moral element is its essence. Christian principle manifests itself, not in the productions of the fine arts, but in the fruits of a Christian life. Every sect that forgets this bearing of Christianity upon morals, forfeits its claim to the name of Christian. Rome has not entirely renounced this essential characteristic, but Protestantism cherishes it in far greater purity. It takes pleasure in deep acquaintance with morals, discriminating religious actions, not by their outward appearance and effect upon the imagination, but according to their inherent worth, and their bearing upon the conscience ; so that, if the papacy is strongly marked as an esthetic system, as has been proved by an able writer,* Protestantism is equally characterised as a moral system.

Nevertheless, the Reformation, while primarily appealing to the moral sense, addressed the whole man. We have seen how it spoke to his understanding, and what it did for literature ; it spoke also to his sensibility and imagination, and thereby contributed to the development of the arts. The church was no longer composed exclusively of priests and friars ; it was the assembly of the faithful. All were to take part in the worship, and congregational singing was to take the place of the priest's chanting. Luther, in translating the Psalms, had in view their adaptation to be sung in churches. Thus a taste for music was disseminated throughout the nation.

"Next to theology," said Luther, "it is to music that I give the highest place and the greatest honour.† A schoolmaster," he added, "ought to know how to sing ; without this qualification I would have nothing to do with him."

One day, when some fine music was performing, he exclaimed, in transport, "If our Lord God has shed forth such wondrous gifts on this earth, which is no better than a dark nook, what may we not expect in that eternal life in which we shall be perfected." From the days of Luther, the congregated worshippers have taken part in the singing ; the Bible has been the great theme of their songs ; and the impulse communicated at that period of the Reformation, has more recently produced those noble oratorios, which have carried the art to its highest point of attainment.

Poetry participated in the movement. In singing the praises of God, Christians were not willing to restrict themselves to simple renderings of ancient hymns. The souls of Luther and his contemporaries, elevated by faith to the most sublime contemplations, roused to enthusiasm by the dangers and struggles which incessantly threatened the infant church, inspired by the poetry of the Old, and the hope of the New Testament, soon began to pour out their feelings in religious songs, in which poetry and music joined, and blended their most heavenly accents ; and thus were heard reviving in the sixteenth century, the hymns which, in the first century, soothed the sufferings of the martyrs. In 1523, Luther, as we have already said, consecrated it to the commemoration of the martyrs of Brussels ; others of the children of the Reformation followed his example. Many were the hymns composed, and rapidly circulated among the people, and greatly did they con-

tribute to arouse their slumbering minds. It was in this same year Hans Sach composed the *Nightingale of Wittenberg*. It represented the teaching that had been current in the church, for four centuries, as a moonlight time of wandering in the deserts. But the nightingale proclaimed the dawn, and, soaring above the morning mist, sang the praise of the day.

While lyric poetry was thus deriving from the Reformation its loftiest inspiration, satirical verses and dramas, from the pen of Hutten, Murner, and Manuel, were attacking the most flagrant corruptions.

It is to the Reformation that the great poets of England, Germany, and perhaps of France, are indebted for the highest flights of their muse.

Painting was, of all the arts, the least affected by the Reformation. This, nevertheless, was renovated, and, as it were, hallowed by that universal movement which was then communicated to all the powers of man. The great master of that age, Lucas Cranach, settled at Wittenberg, and became the painter of the Reformation. We have seen how he represented the points of contrast between Christ and anti-Christ, (the pope,) and was thus among the most influential instruments in that change by which the nation was transformed. As soon as he had received new convictions, he devoted his chastened pencil solely to paintings in harmony with the thoughts of a Christian, and gave to groups of children, represented as blessed by the Saviour, that peculiar grace with which he had previously invested legendary saints.

Albert Durer was one of those who were attracted by the Word of Truth, and from that time, a new impulse was given to his genius. His master-pieces were produced subsequently to conversion. It might have been discerned, from the style in which he thenceforward depicted the Evangelists and Apostles, that the Bible had been restored to the people, and that the painter derived thence a depth, power, life, and dignity, which he never would have found within himself.*

It must, however, be admitted, that, of all the arts, Painting is that one whose influence upon religion is most open to well founded and strong objection. We see it continually connected with grievous immorality or pernicious error ; and those who have studied history, or visited Italy, will look for nothing in this art of benefit to human-kind. Our general remark holds good, however, notwithstanding this exception.

Thus everything progressed, arts, literature, purity of worship—and the minds of prince and people. But this glorious harmony, which the Gospel, in its revival, everywhere produced, was on the eve of being disturbed. The melody of the Wittenberg Nightingale was to be broken in upon by the howling of the tempest, and the roaring of lions. In a moment a cloud over-spread Germany, and a brilliant day was succeeded by a night of profound darkness.

A political ferment, very different from that which the Gospel brings with it, had long been secretly working in the Empire. Sinking under secular and ecclesiastical oppression, and, in some of the states, forming part of the seigniorial property, and liable to sale with it, the people began to threaten to rise in insurrection, and burst their fetters. This spirit of resistance had shown itself long before the Reformation, by various symptoms ; and even at that time a feeling of religion had mingled with the political elements of resistance. It was impossible, in the sixteenth century, to keep asunder two principles so intimately associated with the existence of nations. In Holland, at the close of the preceding century, the peasantry had made an insurrection, representing on their banners a loaf of bread and a cheese, the two staple articles of their poor

* Chateaubriand, *Genie du Christianisme*.

† Ich gebe nach der Theologie, der Musica den nächsten Locum und höchste Ehre. (L. Opp. W. xxii. p. 233.)

* Ranke, *Deutsche Geschichte*, ii. p. 85.

country. The "*alliance of the shoes*," showed itself first in the neighbourhood of Spire, in 1503; and in 1513, being encouraged by the priests, it was re-acted at Brigau. In 1514, Wurtemberg was the scene of "the league of poor Conrad," which had for its object to sustain, by the revolt, "the right of God." In 1515, Carinthia and Hungary had been the theatre of terrible commotions. These seditious movements had been arrested by torrents of blood; but no relief had been afforded to the people. A political reform was, therefore, not less evidently needed than religious reform. In this the people were right; but it must be admitted, that they were not ripe for its enjoyment.

Since the commencement of the Reformation these popular ferments had not been repeated; men's minds were absorbed with other thoughts. Luther, whose penetrating eye had discerned the condition of people's minds, had, from his tower in the Wartburg, addressed to them some serious exhortations of a nature to pacify their agitated feelings:—

"Rebellion," he observed, "never obtains for us the benefit we seek, and God condemns it. What is rebellion? is it not to revenge oneself? The devil tries hard to stir up to rebellion such as embrace the Gospel, that it may be covered with reproach; but they who have rightly received the truths I have preached, will not be found in rebellion."*

The aspect of things gave cause to fear that the popular ferment could not be much longer restrained. The government which Frederic of Saxony had taken pains to form, and which possessed the nation's confidence, was broken up. The Emperor, whose energy would perhaps have supplied the place of the influence of the national administration, was absent; the princes, whose union had always constituted the strength of Germany, were at variance; and the new manifestoes of Charles the Fifth against Luther, by excluding all hope of a future reconciliation, deprived the Reformer of much of the moral influence, by which, in 1523, he had succeeded in calming the tempest. The barrier, which had hitherto withstood the torrent, being swept away, its fury could no longer be restrained.

The religious movement did not give birth to the political agitation; but in some quarters it was drawn into, and went along with its swelling tide. We might perhaps, go farther, and acknowledge that the movement which the Reformation communicated to the popular mind, added strength to the discontent which was everywhere fermenting. The vehemence of Luther's writings, his bold words and actions, and the stern truth he spake, not only to the Pope and the prelates, but even to the nobles, must needs have contributed to inflame minds that were already in a state of considerable excitement. Thus Erasmus failed not to remind him—"We are now gathering the fruits of your teaching."† Moreover, the animating truths of the Gospel, now fully brought to light, stirred all bosoms, and filled them with hopeful anticipations. But there were many unrenowned hearts which were not prepared by a change of thought for the faith and liberty of a Christian. They were quite willing to cast off the yoke of Rome, but they had no desire to take upon them the yoke of Christ. Thus, when the Princes who espoused the cause of Rome endeavoured, in their anger, to crush the Reformation, those who were really Christians were enabled patiently to endure those cruel persecutions—while the majority were roused to resistance, and broke forth in tumults; and, finding their desires opposed in one direction, they sought vent for

them in another. "Why is it," said they, "when the Church invites all men to a glorious liberty, that servitude is perpetuated in the state? When the Gospel inculcates nothing but gentleness, why should Governments rule only by force?" Unhappily, at the very period when a reformation of religion was hailed with joy, alike by nobles and people, a political reformation, on the contrary, encountered the opposition of the most powerful of the nation. And while the former had the Gospel for its rule and basis, the latter had ere long no principles or motives but violence and insubjection. Hence—while the one was kept within the bounds of truth, the other rapidly overpassed all bounds—like an impetuous torrent bursting its banks. But to deny that the Reformation exerted an indirect influence on the commotions which then disturbed the Empire, would subject the historian to the charge of partiality. A fire had been lighted up in Germany by religious discussions, from which it was scarcely possible but that some sparks should escape which were likely to inflame the popular minds.

The pretensions of a handful of fanatics to Divine inspiration added to the danger. While the Reformation constantly appealed from the authority claimed by the Church to the real authority of the Sacred Word, those enthusiasts rejected, not only the authority of the Church, but that of Scripture also; they began to speak only of an inward Word—an internal revelation from God; and, unmindful of the natural corruption of their hearts, they abandoned themselves to the intoxication of spiritual pride, and imagined themselves to be saints.

"The Sacred Writings," said Luther, "were treated by them as a dead letter, and their cry was, 'the Spirit! the Spirit!' But assuredly, I, for one, will not follow wither their spirit is leading them! May God, in His mercy, preserve me from a Church in which there are only such saints.* I wish to be in fellowship with the humble, the weak, the sick, who know and feel their sin, and sigh and cry continually to God from the bottom of their hearts to obtain comfort and deliverance." These words of Luther have a depth of meaning, and indicate the change which his views were undergoing as to the nature of the Church. They, at the same time, show how opposed the religious principles of the rebels were to the religious principles of the Reformation.

The most noted of these enthusiasts was Thomas Munzer; he was not without talent; had read his Bible, was of a zealous temperament, and might have done good, if he had been able to gather up his agitated thoughts, and attain to settled peace of conscience. But with little knowledge of his own heart, and wanting in true humility, he was taken up with the desire of reforming the world, and, like the generality of enthusiasts, forgot that it was with himself, he should begin. Certain mystical writings, which he had read in his youth, had given a false direction to his thoughts. He made his first appearance in public at Zwickau; quitted Wittenberg on Luther's return thither—not satisfied to hold a secondary place in the general esteem, and became pastor of the small town of Alstadt, in Thuringia. Here he could not long remain quiet, but publicly charged the Reformers with establishing, by their adherence to the written Word, a species of Popery, and with forming churches which were not pure and holy.

"Luther," said he, "has liberated men's consciences from the Papal yoke; but he has left them in a carnal

* Luther's treue Ermahnung an alle Christen sich vor Aufruhr und Empörung zu hüten. (Opp. xviii. p. 298.)

† Habemus fructum tui spiritus. (Erasm. Hyperasp. B. 4.)

* Der barmherzige Gott behüte mich ja für der christlichen Kirche, deren eitel heilige sind. (Upon John i. 2. L. Opp. (W.) vii. p. 1469.)

liberty, and has not led them forward in spirit toward God.*

He considered himself as called of God to remedy this great evil. The revelations of the *Spirit*, according to him, were the means by which the Reformation he was charged with should be effected. "He who hath the Spirit, said he, 'hath true faith, although he should never once in all his life see the Holy Scriptures. The heathen and the Turks are better prepared to receive the Spirit than many of those Christians who call us enthusiasts.'" This remark was directed against Luther. "In order to receive the Spirit," continued he, "we must mortify the flesh—wear sackcloth—neglect the body—be of a sad countenance—keep silence†—forsake the haunts of men—and implore God to vouchsafe to us an assurance of His favour. Then it is that God will come unto us, and talk with us, as he did of old with Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. If He were not to do so, he would not deserve our regard.‡ I have received from God the commission to gather together His elect in a holy and eternal union."

The agitation and ferment which were working in men's minds were not a little favourable to the spread of these enthusiastic ideas. Men love the marvellous and whatever flatters their pride. Munzer having inculcated, with his own views, a portion of his flock, abolished the practice of chaunting, and all the other ceremonies annexed to public worship. He maintained that to obey princes "devoid of understanding," was to serve, at one and the same time, God and Belial; and then setting off at the head of his parishioners to a chapel in the neighbourhood of Alstadt, to which pilgrims were accustomed to resort from all quarters, he totally demolished it. After this exploit, being obliged to leave the country, he wandered from place to place in Germany, and came as far as Switzerland, everywhere carrying with him, and communicating to all who gave ear to him, the project of a general revolution. Wherever he went he found men's minds prepared. His words were like gunpowder cast upon burning coals, and a violent explosion quickly ensued.

Luther, who had rejected the warlike enterprises of Sickingen,§ could not be led away by the tumultuous movements of the peasantry. Happily for social order, the *Gospel* kept him from falling into this error; for what would have been the consequences, had he cast his extensive influence into the scale? He resolutely maintained the distinction between spiritual and secular matters; constantly affirming, that it was to immortal souls that Christ gave liberty by His word; and while on the one hand he impugned the authority of the Church, he on the other, with equal courage, stood up for the power of rulers. "A Christian," said he, "ought to suffer a hundred deaths, rather than be mixed up in the least degree with the revolted peasantry." He wrote to the Elector—"It gives me indescribable satisfaction that these enthusiasts themselves boast, to all who will give ear to them, that they do not belong to us. 'It is,' say they, 'the Spirit which impels us;' to which I reply, 'that it must be an evil spirit, that bears no other fruits than the pillage of convents and churches; the greatest robbers on this earth might easily do as much as that.'"

At the same time, Luther, who desired for others the liberty that he claimed for himself, was dissuading

the Prince from resorting to severe measures. "Let them preach what they will, and against whom they please," said he, "for it is the Word of God alone which must go forth and give them battle. If the spirit in them be the true Spirit, any severity of ours will be unavailing; but if our Spirit be the true, He will not fear their violence! Let us leave the Spirits to struggle and contend.* A few, perhaps, may be seduced. In every battle there are some wounded; but he who is faithful in the fight shall receive the crown. Nevertheless, if they have recourse to the sword, let your Highness prohibit it, and command them to quit your dominions."

The insurrection commenced in the districts of the Black Forest, near the sources of the Danube, a country that had been often the theatre of popular commotions. On the 19th July, 1524, the Thurgovian peasantry rose against the Abbot of Reichenau, who had refused to appoint over them an evangelical preacher. Shortly after this, several thousands of them collected round the small town of Tenger—their object being to liberate an ecclesiastic who was there imprisoned. The insurrection spread, with inconceivable rapidity, from Suabia as far as the Rhenish provinces, Franconia, Thuringia, and Saxony. In January, 1525, all these countries were in a state of open insurrection.

Toward the close of that month, the peasantry put forth a declaration in twelve articles, wherein they claimed the liberty of choosing their own pastors, the abolition of small tithes, servitude, and the taxes on inheritance; the right to hunt, fish, cut wood, &c. Each demand was backed by a passage from the Bible: and they concluded with the words—"If we are wrong, let Luther set us right by the Scriptures."

They requested to have the opinions of the divines of Wittenberg. Melancthon and Luther each gave his judgment separately; and the decision of each reminds us of the difference that marked their characters. Melancthon, who regarded any disturbance as a serious crime, overstepped the limits of his habitual mildness, and seemed to labour to express the strength of his indignation. According to him, the peasantry were public criminals, on whom he invoked all laws—divine and human. If amicable communications should fail of effect, he would have the magistrates to pursue them, as they would robbers and assassins. "Nevertheless," adds he—(and some one feature, at least, we need to find, that shall remind us of Melancthon)—"think of the orphans before you have recourse to capital punishment!"

Luther took the same view of the revolt as Melancthon, but he had a heart which deeply felt for the miseries of the people. He manifested, on this occasion, a noble impartiality, and frankly spoke truth to both parties. He first addressed the princes—and more particularly the bishops:—

"It is you," said he, "who have caused the revolt; it is your declamations against the *Gospel*, it is your guilty oppression of the poor of the flock—which have driven the people to despair. My dear Lords, it is not the peasants who have risen against you—it is God Himself who is opposing your madness.† The peasants are but instruments He is employing to humble you. Think not you can escape the punishment reserved for you. Even though you should succeed in exterminating all the peasantry, God could from these stones raise up others to chastise your pride. If I were bent on avenging my own wrongs, I might laugh in my sleeve—and quietly look on, while the peasantry

* Fuhrete sie nicht weiter in Geist und zu Gott. (L. Opp. xix. 294.)

† Saur sehen, den Bart nicht abschneiden. (L. Opp. xix. p. 294.)

‡ The expression used by Munzer is low and irreverent: Er willt in Gott scheissen wenn er nicht mit ihm redet, wie mit Abraham. (Hist. of Munzer, by Melancthon, Ibid. p. 296.)

§ Vol I. book i. p. 113.

* Man lasse die Geister auf einander platzen und treffen. (L. Opp. ii. p. 547.)

† Gott ist's selber der setzt sich wider euch. (L. Opp. xix. p. 264.)

were acting—or even inflame their rage—but the Lord keep me from it! My dear Lords, for the love of God! calm your irritation; grant reasonable conditions to these poor people, as phrenzied and misled persons; appease these commotions by gentle methods, lest they give girth to a conflagration which shall set all Germany in a flame. Some of their twelve articles contain just and reasonable demands."

Such an exordium was calculated to gain for Luther the confidence of the peasantry, and to induce them to listen to the truths which he was about to press upon them. After admitting that some of their demands were founded in justice, he declared that rebellion was the act of heathens: that Christians were called to suffer, not to fight: that if they persisted in their revolt in the name of the Gospel, but contrary to the very precepts of the Gospel, he should consider them as worse enemies than the Pope. "The Pope and the Emperor," continued he, "combined against me; but the more the Emperor and the Pope stormed, the more did the Gospel make its way. Why was this? Because I neither took up the sword, nor called for vengeance, nor had recourse to tumult or revolt; I committed all to God—and waited for Him to interpose by His mighty power. The Christian conflict is not to be carried on by sword or arquebuss, but by endurance and the cross. Christ, their Captain, would not have his servants smite with the sword—he was hanged upon a tree."

But in vain did Luther inculcate these Christian precepts. The people, under the influence of the inflammatory harangues of the leaders of the revolt, were deaf to the words of the Reformer. "He is playing the hypocrite," said they, "and flatters the nobles: he has himself made war against the Pope, and yet expects that we should submit to our oppressors."

Instead of subsiding, the insurrection grew more formidable. At Weinsburg, Count Louis of Helfenstein, and the seventy men under his command, were doomed to death. A body of peasantry drew up in close ranks, with advanced pikes, while others drove the Count and his retainers against the points of this forest of weapons.* The wife of the ill-fated Helfenstein, a natural daughter of the Emperor, Maximilian, holding her infant in her arms, implored them, on bended knees, to spare the life of her husband, and vainly endeavoured to avert this barbarous murder. A lad who had served under the Count, and had afterward joined the rebels, gamboled in mockery before him, and played the dead march upon his life, as if he had been leading his victims in a dance. All perished; the infant was wounded in its mother's arms, and she herself thrown upon a dung-cart, and thus conveyed to Heilbrunn.

At the news of these atrocities, a cry of horror was uttered by the friends of the Reformation, and Luther's feeling heart was violently agitated. On one hand, the peasantry, ridiculing his counsel, asserted that they had a revelation from Heaven, impiously perverted the threatenings contained in the Old Testament, proclaimed an equality of conditions, and a community of goods, defended their cause with fire and sword, and rioted in barbarous executions. On the other hand, the enemies of the Reformation, with malicious sneers, enquired if the Reformer did not know that it was easier to kindle a fire than to extinguish it. Indignant at these excesses, and alarmed at the thought that they might check the progress of the Gospel, Luther no longer hesitated; he laid aside his former forbearance, and denounced the rebels with all the energy of his character, overpassing, perhaps, the just bounds within which he should have contained himself.

* Und ichten ein Grassen durch die Spiess. (Mathesius, p. 46.)

"The peasantry," said he, "are guilty of three horrible crimes against God and man; and thus deserve both the death of the body and that of the soul. In the first place, they rebel against their rulers, to whom they have sworn allegiance; next, they rob and plunder convents and castles; and, to crown all, they cloak their crimes under the profession of the Gospel! If you neglect to shoot a mad dog, yourself and all your neighbours will perish. He who dies in the cause of the magistrates will be a true martyr, provided he fight with a good conscience."

Luther then proceeds to comment severely upon the guilty violence of the peasantry, in compelling simple and peaceable men to join their ranks, and thus bringing them into the same condemnation. He then proceeds: "On this account, my dear Lords, I conjure you to interpose for the deliverance of these poor people. I say to him who can bear arms, strike and kill. If thou shouldst fall, thou canst not have a more blessed end; for thou meetest death in the service of God, and to save thy neighbour from hell!"

Neither gentle nor violent measures could arrest the popular torrent. The church bells were rung no longer for divine worship. Whenever their deep and prolonged sounds were heard in country places, it was known as the tocsin, and all flew to arms.

The people of the Black Forest had enrolled themselves under John Muller, of Bulgenbach. With an imposing aspect, wrapped in a red cloak, and wearing a red cap, this chief daringly proceeded from village to village, followed by his peasantry. Behind him, on a wagon, decorated with boughs and ribands, was exhibited a tri-coloured flag, black, red, and white—the standard of revolt. A herald, similarly decorated, read aloud the twelve articles, and invited the people to join in the insurrection. Whoever refused to do so, was banished from the community.

Their progress, which at first was pacific, became more and more alarming. "We must," they exclaimed, "compel the lords of the soil to submit to our conditions"—and by way of bringing them to compliance they proceeded to break open the granaries, empty the cellars, draw the fish-ponds, demolish the castles of the nobles, and set fire to the convents. Opposition had inflamed to frenzy these misguided men: Equality could no longer satisfy them; they thirsted for blood; and swore to make every man who wore a spur bite the dust.

At the approach of the peasantry, those towns which were incapable of withstanding a siege opened their gates, and made common cause with them. In every place they entered, the images of the saints were defaced—the crucifixes broken to pieces—while women, armed with weapons, passed through the streets threatening the fives of the monks. Beaten and repulsed in one place, they re-assembled in another, and braved the most formidable regular troops.

A committee chosen by the peasants stationed themselves at Heilbrunn. The Counts of Lowenstein were captured, stripped, and clothed in common blouse, a white staff was placed in their hands, and they were compelled to swear adhesion to the twelve articles. "Brother George, and you, brother Albert," said a brazier to the Counts of Hohenlohe, who visited their camp, "swear to us to act the part of brothers—for yourselves are now peasants and no longer lords." Equality of ranks, that dream of democrats, was established in aristocratic Germany.

Many persons of the upper classes, some from fear, and some from motives of ambition, joined the insurrection. The celebrated Gotz, of Berlichingen, finding himself unable to maintain his authority over his vas-

* Deinen Nehesten zu retten aus der Hölle. (L. Opp. xix. p. 266.)

sals, prepared to seek a refuge in the states of the Elector of Saxony, but his wife, who was then in child-bed, wishing to keep him at home, concealed from him the Elector's letter. Gotz, hemmed in on all sides, was compelled to put himself at the head of the rebel forces. On the 7th of May, the peasants entered Wurtzburg, where they were received with acclamations. The troops of the princes and of the knights of Suabia and Franconia, who were stationed in that city, evacuated it, and withdrew in confusion within the citadel, the last refuge of the nobility.

But already had the commotion spread to other parts of Germany. Spires, the Palatinate, Alsace, Hesse, had adopted the twelve articles, and the peasants threatened Bavaria, Westphalia, the Tyrol, Saxony, and Lorraine. The Margrave of Baden, having scornfully rejected the articles, was compelled to seek refuge in flight. The Coadjutor of Fulda acceded to them with a laugh. The smaller towns submitted, alleging that they had no spears to resist the insurgents. Mentz, Treves, Frankfurt, obtained the immunities on which they had insisted.

Throughout the Empire, a wide-spreading revolution was in full career. The ecclesiastical and secular privileges, which bore so heavily on the peasantry, were to be suppressed; church property was to be diverted to secular uses, to indemnify the chiefs, and meet the exigencies of the state; taxes were to be abolished, with exception of a tribute payable every ten years; the power of the Emperor, as recognized by the New Testament, was to be maintained supreme; all other reigning princes were to come down to the level of citizens; sixty-four free courts were to be instituted, and men of all ranks to be eligible as judges; all conditions were to return to their primitive positions; the clergy were to be restricted to the pastorship of their several churches; princes and nobles were to be defenders of the weak; uniform weights and measures were to be introduced; and one coin to be struck, and be the only currency of the whole Empire.

Meanwhile the nobles were recovering from their first stupor, and George Truchsess, commander-in-chief of the Imperial forces, advanced in the direction of the lake of Constance. On the 7th of May, he drove back the peasants at Beblingen, and directed his march upon the town of Weinsberg, where the unfortunate Count of Helfenstein had lost his life. He set fire to it, and burned it to the ground, giving orders that its ruins should be left as a lasting memorial of the treason of its inhabitants. At Furfield, he effected a junction with the Elector Palatine and the Elector of Treves, and the combined army advanced upon Franconia.

The Frauenberg, the citadel of Wurtzburg, had held out for the cause of the nobles, and the main army of the peasants still lay before its walls. On receiving intelligence of the approach of Truchsess, they resolved on an assault, and on the 15th of May, at nine in the evening, the trumpets sounded, the tri-colour flag was unfurled, and the peasants rushed to the assault with frightful shouts. Sebastian Rotenhan, one of the staunchest partisans of the Reformation, was commandant in the castle. He had organized the means of defence on an efficient footing, and when he harangued the soldiers, and exhorted them to repel the attack, they had all sworn to do so, raising their three fingers, to wards heaven. A fierce struggle ensued. The reckless and despairing efforts of the peasants were answered from the walls of the fortress by petards and showers of sulphur and boiling pitch, and discharges of cannon. The peasants, thus struck by their unseen enemy from behind the ramparts, for an instant faltered, but their fury rose above it all. Night closed in, and the contest still raged. The fortress, lighted up by a thou-

sand battle-fires, seemed, in the darkness of the night, to resemble a towering giant pouring forth flames, and contending in the midst of bursts of thunder for the salvation of the Empire from the savage bravery of infuriated hordes. At two in the morning, the peasants, failing in all their efforts, at last retreated.

They tried to open negotiations with the garrison, on the one side, and with Truchsess, who was approaching at the head of his army, on the other. But negotiation was not their forte. Violence and conquest offered their only chance of safety. After some hesitation, they decided to advance against the Imperial forces; but the cannon and charges of the Imperial cavalry made fearful havoc in their ranks. On reaching Konigshofen, they were completely routed. Then it was that the princes, nobles, and bishops, cruelly abusing their victory, gave loose to unheard-of cruelties. Those who were taken prisoners, were hanged at the road-side. The bishop of Wurtzburg, who had taken flight, returning to his diocese, passed over it, attended by executioners, who shed, without distinction, the blood of rebels, and of such as were living quietly in subjection to God's word. Gotz de Berlichingen was sentenced to imprisonment for life. The Margrave Casimir of Anspach, deprived of their sight no less than eighty peasants, who, in the rebellion, had declared, with an oath, that their eyes should never look upon that prince,—casting the victims of their cruelty on the wide world, blind, and holding each other by the hand, to grope their way, and beg their bread. The unfortunate youth who had played, on his life, the death-march of Helfenstein, was chained to a stake, and a fire lighted round him, the knights being present, and laughing at his horrid contortions.

Everywhere public worship was restored, under its ancient forms. In the most flourishing and populous districts of the Empire, the traveller was horror-struck with the sight of heaps of dead bodies and smoking ruins. Fifty thousand had perished; and almost everywhere the people lost what little liberty they had previously possessed. Such, in southern Germany, was the dreadful result of the Revolt.

But the evil was not confined to the south and west of Germany. Munzer, after traversing part of Switzerland, Alsace, and Suabia, had again turned his steps toward Saxony. Some townsmen of Mulhausen, in Thuringia, invited him to their town, and elected him as their pastor. The town-council having offered resistance, Munzer degraded it,—appointing another in its stead, composed of his own friends, and presided over by himself. Contemning the Christ full of grace, whom Luther preached, and resolved on recourse to violent means, his cry was,—“We must exterminate with the sword, like Joshua, the Canaanitish nations.” He set on foot a community of goods,* and pillaged the convents. “Munzer,” wrote Luther to Amsdorff, on the 11th of April, 1525, “Munzer is king and emperor of Mulhausen, and no longer its pastor.” The lower classes ceased to work. If any one wanted a piece of cloth, or a supply of corn, he asked his richer neighbour: if the latter refused, the penalty was hanging. Mulhausen being a free town, Munzer exercised his power, unmolested, for nearly a year. The revolt of Southern Germany led him to imagine that the time was come to extend his new kingdom. He cast some large guns in the convent of the Franciscans, and exerted himself to raise the peasantry and miners of Mansfeld. “When will you shake off your slumbers,” said he, in a fanatical address: “Arise, and fight the battle of the Lord!—The time has come.—France, Germany, and Italy, are up and doing. Forward, Forward, Forward!—*Dran, Dran, Dran!* Heed not the cries of

* Omnia simul communia. (L. Opp. xix. p. 292)

the ungodly. They will weep like children,—but be you pitiless—*Dran, Dran, Dran!*—Fire burns;—let your pious be ever tinged with blood! *—*Dran, Dran, Dran!*—Work while it is day." The letter was signed—Munzer, God's servant against the ungodly."

The country people, eager for plunder, flocked in crowds to his standard. Throughout the district of Mansfeld, Stolberg, Schwarzburg, Hesse, and Brunswick, the peasantry rose *en masse*. The convents of Michelstein, Isenburg, Walkenried, Rossleben, and many others in the neighborhood of the Hartz mountains, or in the plains of Thuringia, were plundered. At Reinhardsbrunn, the place which Luther had once visited, the tombs of the ancient landgraves were violated, and the library destroyed.

Terror spread far and wide. Even at Wittemberg, some anxiety began to be felt. The Doctors, who had not feared Emperors nor Pope, felt themselves tremble in presence of a madman. Curiosity was all alive to the accounts of what was going on, and watched every step in the progress of the insurrection. Melancthon wrote—"We are here in imminent danger. If Munzer be successful, it is all over with us; unless Christ should appear for our deliverance. Munzer's progress is marked by more than Scythian cruelty.† His threats are more dreadful than I can tell you."

The pious elector had hesitated long what steps he should take. Munzer had exhorted him, as well as the other reigning princes, to be converted: "For," said he, "their time is come: and he had signed his letters—"Munzer, armed with the sword of Gideon." It was Frederic's earnest desire to try gentle methods for reclaiming these deluded men. Dangerously ill, he had written, on the 14th of April, to his brother John—"Possibly more than one cause for insurrection has been given to these wretched people. Oh, in many ways are the poor oppressed by their temporal, as well as by their spiritual rulers!" And when his councillors adverted to the humiliation, confusions, and dangers to which he would expose himself by neglecting to stifle the rebellion in its infancy, he made answer—"In my time, I have been a potent elector with horses and chariots in great abundance, if, at this time, God will take them away, I will go on foot."‡

Philip, the young Landgrave of Hesse, was the first of the reigning princes who took up arms. His knights and retainers swore to live or die with him. Having put the affairs of his states in order, he moved toward Saxony. On their side, Duke John, the elector's brother, Duke George, of Saxony, and Duke Henry, of Brunswick, advancing, effected a junction with the Hessian troops. As the combined force came into sight, the peasants, in alarm, took their station on a hill, and, without observing any discipline, set about constructing a sort of rampart, composed of their wagons. Munzer had not even provided powder for his immense guns. No help appeared—the troops hemmed them in, and a panic spread through the rebel host. The princes, through motives of humanity, proposed to them to capitulate—and they showed signs of willingness to do so. Then it was, that Munzer had recourse to the most powerful lever of enthusiasm: "This day," said he, "this day we shall behold the mighty arm of God, and destruction shall fall upon our enemies!" Just at that moment a rainbow was seen in the clouds—and the fanatic multitude, whose standard bore the representation of a rainbow, beheld in it a sure omen of the Divine protection. Munzer took advantage of

it: "Never fear," said he to the burghers and peasantry; "I will receive all their balls in my sleeve,"* and at the same moment, he gave direction that a young gentleman, Maternus Geholfen, an envoy from the princes, should be cruelly put to death, in order that the rebels might thus know themselves beyond the hope of pardon.

The Landgrave harangued his soldiers—"I well know," said he, "that we princes are often to blame—for we are but men; but it is God's will that the powers that be should be respected. Let us save our wives and children from the fury of these murderers. The Lord will give us the victory, for hath He not said, 'He that resisteth the power, resisteth the ordinance of God.'" Philip then gave the signal for the attack. It was the 15th of May, 1525. The army put itself in motion—but the crowd of peasants standing still, struck up the hymn, "Come, Holy Spirit"—expecting heaven to interpose in their behalf. But the artillery soon opened a breach in their rude fortification, and scattered confusion and death in their midst. On this, their fanaticism and resolution at once forsook them; a panic spread throughout their host, and breaking from their ranks they fled in the utmost disorder. Five thousand were slain in the pursuit. After the battle the princes and their victorious troops entered Frankenhausen. A soldier, who had mounted to the loft of the house in which he was quartered, perceived a man crouching in concealment.† "Who are you?" demanded he; "are you one of the rebels?"—then catching sight of a writing case, he opened it, and found therein letters addressed to Thomas Munzer—"Is that your name?" inquired the trooper.—"No," answered the sick man. But the soldier, uttering dreadful threats, Munzer—For he it was—confessed he was the man. "You are my prisoner," rejoined the other. Being taken before Duke George and the Landgrave, Munzer persisted in maintaining that he was justified in chastising the nobles, since they were opposers of the gospel. "Wretch!" said they, "think of those whose death thou hast occasioned." But he made answer, smiling in the midst of his anguish, "They would have it so." He took the sacrament under one kind, and was beheaded on the same day as his Lieutenant, Pfeiffer. Mulhausen was taken, and the peasant loaded with chains.

One of the nobles, who had remarked in the crowd of prisoners a peasant whose appearance interested him, drew near, and said—"Well, my boy, what government is most to your mind—the peasant's or the prince's?" The poor youth sighing deeply, replied—"Ah, my dear lord, no edge of sword inflicts such suffering as the rule of a peasant over his fellow."‡

What remained of the rebellion was quenched in blood: Duke George was particularly inflexible. In the states of the elector, there were neither executions nor punishments; § God's word, preached in its purity, had been proved sufficient to control the tumultuous passions of the people.

In truth, Luther had, from its very beginning, withstood the rebellion: to which it never appeared the forerunner of final judgments. He had spared neither advice, entreaties, nor irony. To the twelve articles which the rebels had drawn up at Erfurt, he had subjoined as a thirteenth: "Item, the following article omitted above. From this day forth the honourable council shall be powerless—its functions shall be to

* Lasset euer Schwerdt nicht kalt werden von Blut. (L. Opp. xix. 299.)

† Moncerus plus quam Scythiam crudelitatem præ se fert. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 741.)

‡ So wolle er hinkünftig zu fuss gehen. (Seck. p. 685.)

* Ihr sollt sehen dass ich alle Büchsesteine in Ermel fassen will. (L. Opp. xix. p. 297.)

† So findet er einen am Bett.

‡ Kein Messer scherpfert schirrt denn wenn ein Baur des andern Herr wird. (Mathesius, p. 48.)

§ Hic nulla carnificina, nullum supplicium. (Corp. Ref. I. p. 792.)

do nothing—it shall sit as an idol or as a log—the commune shall chew its meat for it, and it shall govern bound hand and foot. From this day, the wagon shall guide the horses, the horses shall hold the reins, and all shall go on prosperously, in conformity with the glorious system set forth in the foregoing articles."

Luther was not satisfied with using his pen. Just when the confusion was at its height, he left Wittenburg, and traversed some of the districts where the agitation was greatest. He preached, he laboured to soften the hearts of his hearers, and being strengthened from above in his work, he guided, quieted, and brought back into their accustomed channels, the impetuous and overflowing torrents.

The reformed teachers everywhere exerted a similar influence. At Halle, Brentz, by the power of the divine promises, revived the drooping spirits of its inhabitants, and four thousand of the peasants fled before six hundred of its citizens.* At Ichterhausen, where a body of peasants had met, intending to demolish certain castles, and putting their owners to death, Frederic Myconius ventured alone among them, and such was the power of his eloquence, that they at once abandoned their purpose †

Such was the part taken by the reformers and the reformation during the continuance of the revolt. They contended, as far as they were enabled, by the sword of the Word, and boldly asserted the principles which alone have power at all times to preserve order and subjection among nations. Hence we find Luther asserting, that if the wholesome influence of sound doctrine had not withstood the madness of the people, the revolt would have extended its ravages far more widely, and would everywhere have overturned both church and state. Every thing inclines us to believe that this melancholy anticipation would have been realized.

If, as we have seen, the reformers stood up against sedition, they nevertheless, did not escape without being wounded. That moral agony which Luther had first undergone in his cell at Erfurth, was perhaps at its height after the revolt of the peasants. On the side of the princes it was repeated, and in many quarters believed, that Luther's teaching had been the cause of the rebellion; and, groundless as was the charge, the reformer could not but feel deeply affected by the credit attached to it. On the side of the people, Munzer and all the leaders of the sedition represented him as a vile hypocrite and flatterer of the great,‡ and their calumnies easily obtained belief. The strength with which Luther had declared against the rebels, had given offence even to men of moderate opinions. The partisans of Rome exulted; § all seemed against him, and he bore the indignation of that generation: but what most grieved him was, that the work of heaven should be thus degraded by being classed with the dreams of fanatics. He contemplated the bitter cup presented to him, and foreseeing that ere long he would be forsaken by all, he exclaimed, "Soon shall I also have to say, 'All ye shall be offended because of me in that night!'"

Yet in the midst of this bitter experience, his faith was unshaken. "He," said he, "who has enabled me to tread the enemy under foot when he came against me as a roaring lion, will not suffer that enemy to crush me, now that he approaches with the treacherous leer of the basilisk.¶ I mourn over the late calamities.

Again and again have I asked myself whether it might not have been better to have allowed the Papacy to pursue its course unmolested, rather than be a witness to the breaking out of such commotions. But no—it is better to have extricated a few from the jaws of the devil, than that all should be left under his murderous fangs.**

At this period we must note the completion of that change in Luther's views which had commenced at the time of his return from the Wartburg. A principle of internal life no longer satisfied him; the Church and her institutions assumed a high importance in his estimate. The fearlessness with which he had thrown down all that stood in the way of his reforms, drew back in the prospect of a work of destruction, far more radical and sweeping: he felt the necessity for preserving, ruling, building up—and it was in the centre of the blood-watered ruins with which the war of the peasants had covered Germany, that the structure of the new Church rose slowly from its foundations.

The troubles we have been narrating left a deep and enduring impression on the minds of that age. Nations were struck with consternation. The masses who had sought in the Reformation nothing but political freedom, withdrew from it of their own accord, when they saw that spiritual liberty was the only liberty it offered. Luther's opposition to the peasants involved the renunciation of the inconstant favour of the people. It was not long before a seeming tranquillity was restored, and the silence of terror succeeded to the outbreaks of enthusiasm and sedition.

Thus the popular passions, the cause of revolution, and radical equality, were quelled and passed away; but the Reformation did not pass away. The two movements, by many confounded with each other, were exhibited in the distinctness of their character by the diversity of their results. The revolt was a thing of earthly origin, the Reformation was from above—some cannon and soldiers sufficed to put down the former, but the latter never ceased to grow and strengthen, in spite of the reiterated assaults of the imperial or ecclesiastical powers.

And yet the cause of the Reformation itself seemed likely to perish in the gulf in which the liberties of the people were lost. A melancholy event appeared likely to hasten its ruin. At the time the princes were in full march against Munzer, and ten days before the final defeat of the peasants, the aged Elector of Saxony, the man whom God had raised up to defend the Reformation against external dangers, descended to the tomb.

His strength had been daily declining; and his feeling heart was wrung by atrocities which stained the progress of the war of the peasants. "Oh!" cried he, with a deep sigh, "if it were the will of God, I would gladly be released from this life. I see nothing left, neither love, truth, or faith, or anything good upon this earth.††"

Turning from the thought of the confusions that prevailed throughout Germany, the pious prince quietly prepared himself to depart. He had taken up his abode in his castle of Lochau. On the 4th of May, he asked for his chaplain, the faithful Spalatin: "You do well to visit me," said he to him as he entered the room, "for it is well to visit the sick." Then directing that his couch should be moved toward the table where Spalatin was seated, he desired his attendants to leave

trivit leonem et draconem, non sinet etiam basiliscum super me calcare. (Ibid. p. 671.)

* Es ist besser einige aus dem Rachen des Teufels heraus-reissen. (L. Opp. ii. Ed. ix. p. 961.)

† Ea res incussit . . . vulgo terrorem, ut nihil usquam moveatur. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 752.)

‡ Noch etwas gutes mehr in de Welt. (Seckend. p. 702.)

* Eorum animos fractos et perturbatos verbo Dei erexit. (M. Adam. Vit. Brentii. p. 441.)

† Agmen rusticorum qui convenerant ad demolienda arces, unica oratione sic compescuit. (M. Adam. Vit. Fred. Myconii. p. 178.)

‡ Quod adulator principum vocer. (L. Epp. ii. p. 671.)

§ Gaudent papiste de nostro dissidio. (Ibid. p. 612.)

¶ Qui cum toties hactenus sub pedibus meis calcavit et con-

the room, and affectionately taking his friend's hand, spoke to him familiarly of Luther, of the peasants, and of his approaching end. At eight that same evening Spalatin returned; the aged prince opened his mind to him, and confessed his sins, in the presence of God. The next morning, the 5th, he received the communion under both kinds. No member of his family was present: his brother and his nephew had both left with the army; but according to the ancient custom of those times, his domestics stood round the bed gazing in tears* upon the venerable prince whom it had been their sweet pleasure to serve: "My little children," said he, tenderly, "if I have offended any one of you, forgive me for the love of God; for we princes often offend against such little ones, and it ought not so to be." In this way did Frederic conform himself to the apostle's direction that the rich humble himself when he is brought low, "because as the flower of the grass he shall pass away."†

Spalatin never left him. He set before him with glowing earnestness the glorious promises of the Gospel; and the pious Elector drank in its strong consolations with unspeakable peace. That evangelical doctrine was then to his soul no longer a sword, turned against false teaching, searching it in all its refuges of lies, and triumphing over it at every turn: it was a shower—a gentle dew, distilling on his heart, and causing it to overflow with hope and joy. God and eternity were alone present to his thought.

Feeling his death rapidly drawing nigh, he destroyed a will he had made some years before, in which he had commended his soul to "the Mother of God," and dictated another in which he cast himself on the spotless and availing merit of Jesus Christ "for the forgiveness of his sins," and expressed his firm assurance that "he was redeemed by the precious blood of his beloved Saviour."‡ This done, he added—"My strength fails me, I can say no more;" and at five the same evening he "fell asleep." "He was a son of Peace," remarked his physician, "and in peace he is departed."—"Oh!" said Luther, "how bitter to his survivors was that death."§

It is remarkable that Luther, who just at that time was on a mission of peace, trying to allay the excitement left, by recent events, on the minds of the people of Thuringia, had never seen the Elector, but at a distance—as at Worms, when the latter was seated beside Charles the Fifth. But from the moment the Reformation appeared, these two remarkable men had been together in spirit. Frederic in quest of the national interest and independence—Luther in quest of truth and reformation. It cannot be doubted that the Reformation was, *in principle*, a work of the Spirit; but, in order to its gaining footing on the earth, it was perhaps necessary that it should be linked with a something connected with the interests of the nation. Hence—no sooner had Luther stood up against indulgences, than the alliance between the monk and the prince was tacitly concluded—an alliance in its nature simply moral, without form of contract, without writing, without even verbal communication—an alliance in which the stronger lent no aid to the weaker party, but that which consisted in leaving him unmolested to his work. But now that the mighty oak, under the shelter of which the Reformation had grown up, was felled to the dust—now that the opposers of the Gospel gave more free expression to their hatred, and its supporters were obliged to retire or to be silent, it

seemed as if nothing was left to defend it against the sword of those who were pursuing it.

The confederates of Ratisbon, after the complete defeat of the peasants of the southern and western provinces, proceeded to vent their revenge on the Reformation, as well as on those who had taken part in the revolt. At Wurtzburg, at Bamberg, inoffensive citizens were put to death,—including some who had even opposed themselves to the peasants. "It matters not," it was openly said, "they were of the Gospellers,"—and they were beheaded.*

Duke George sought opportunity to infuse into the minds of the Landgrave and Duke John his own prejudices and antipathies. "See," said he, after the rout of the peasants, pointing to the field of carnage, "what miseries Luther has occasioned." John and Philip showed signs of acquiescence. "Duke George," remarked the Reformer, "flatters himself he shall succeed, now that Frederic is dead; but Christ still reigns in the midst of his enemies. Gnash their teeth as they will, the desire of them shall perish."†

George lost no time in informing, in northern Germany, a confederacy similar to that of Ratisbon. The Electors of Mentz and Brandenburg,—Dukes Henry, Eric, and George, assembled at Dessau, and these concluded a treaty of alliance in the interest of Rome.‡ In the month of July, George urged the new Elector and his son-in-law, the Landgrave, to accede to it. Then, as if to give intimation of the objects of the confederation, he beheaded two citizens of Leipsic, who had been proved to have in their possession the Reformer's writings.

Just at this time letters from Charles the Fifth, dated from Toledo, reached Germany, by which another Diet was convoked at Augsburg. Charles wished to give the Empire such a constitution as would allow him to dispose, at will, of the military force of Germany. The divisions in religion favoured his design. He had but to let loose the Catholics against the Gospellers; and when both should have exhausted their strength, he might gain an easy victory over both. "Away with the Lutherans,"§ was therefore the cry of the Emperor.

Thus, all conspired against the Reformation. Never could Luther's spirit have been bowed down by such manifold apprehensions. The surviving sectaries of Munzer had vowed to take his life. His sole protector was no more. "Duke George," wrote some, "intended to arrest him in Wittemberg itself."|| The Princes who could have defended him, one after another bowed before the storm, and seemed to be abandoning the cause of the Gospel. The University, already lowered in credit by the recent confusions, was, according to rumor, on the point of being suppressed by the new Elector. Charles, after his victory at Pavia, had just convoked another Diet, that a finishing blow might be dealt against the Reformation. What dangers, then, must he not have foreseen? The anxious mental struggles that had so often drawn sobbs from his bosom again wrung his heart. How should he bear up against such multiplied enemies? In the very crisis of this agitation, with all these accumulated dangers staring him in the face,—the corpse of Frederic scarcely cold, and the plains of Germany still strewed with the unburied bodies of the peasants—Luther,—none surely could have imagined such a thing,—Luther married!

In the monastery of Nimptsch, near Grimma, in Sax-

* Hanke, Deutsche Ges. ii. p. 226.

† Dux Gorgius, mortuo Frederico, putat se omnia posse. (L. Epp. iii. p. 22.)

‡ Habito conciliabulo conjuraverunt restituros sese esse omnia . . . (Ibid.)

§ Steidan. Hist. de la Ref. i. p. 214.

|| Keil. Luther's Leben, p. 160.

* Dass alle Umstehende zum weinen bewegt. (Ibid.)

† St James, 1 ch. 10th ver.

‡ Durch das theure Blut meines allerliebsten Heylandes erlöset. (Seck. p. 703.)

§ O mors amara? (L. Epp. ii. p. 659.)

ony, resided, in the year 1523, nine nuns, who had devoted themselves to the reading of God's word, and had discerned the contrast that existed between the Christian life and the daily routine of their cloister. The names of these nuns were Magdalene Staupitz, Elisa Canitz, Ave Grossen, Ave and Margaret Schonfeld, Laneta Golis, Margaret and Catherine Zeschau, and Catherine Bora. The first step taken by these young women, after their minds were delivered from the superstitions of their monastery, was to write to their relations—"Our continuance in a cloister," said they, "is incompatible with the salvation of our soul."* Their parents, dreading the trouble such a resolution was likely to occasion to themselves, repelled with harshness the entreaties of their children. The poor nuns were overwhelmed with distress. How to leave their nunnery! their timidity took alarm at so desperate a decision. At last, their horror of the Papal services prevailed, and they mutually promised not to part company, but together to find their way to some respectable quarter with decency and order.† Two respected and pious citizens of Torgau, Leonard Koppe and Wolff Tomitzsch, tendered their assistance;—they welcomed it as of God's sending, and quitted the convent of Nimptsch without any hinderance being interposed, as if the hand of the Lord set open its gates.‡ Koppe and Tomitzsch were in waiting to receive them in their wagon—and on the 7th of April, the nine nuns, amazed at their own boldness, drew up in deep emotion at the gate of the old convent of the Augustines where Luther resided.

"This is not my doing," said Luther, as he received them, "but would to God I could, in this way, give liberty to enslaved consciences, and empty the cloisters of their tenants. A breach is made, however."|| Several persons proposed to the doctor to receive the nuns into their houses, and Catherine Bora found a welcome in the family of the burgomaster of Wittenberg.

If Luther had then before him the prospect of any solemn event, it was that he should be called to ascend the scaffold, not the steps of the altar. Many months after this, he answered those who spoke of marriage—"God may change my purpose, if such be His pleasure; but at present I have no thought of taking a wife; not that I am insensible to the charms of a married life; I am neither wood nor stone; but I every day expect death and the punishment of a heretic."¶

And yet all was moving onward in the church. The habits of monastic life, invented by man, were on all sides giving place to the habits of domestic life, instituted by God. On Sunday, the 9th of October, Luther, on rising, laid aside his monk's gown, assumed the garb of a secular priest, and then made his appearance in the church, where this transformation caused a lively satisfaction. Christianity, in its renewed youth, hailed with transport everything that announced that the old things were passed away.

It was not long before the last monk quitted the convent. Luther remained behind; his footsteps alone re-echoed in its long corridors—he sat silent and alone in the refectory, so lately vocal with the babble of the monks. A speaking silence! attesting the triumph of the Word of God. The convent had, indeed, ceased to have any existence. Luther, toward the end of December, 1524, transmitted to the Elector the keys of the monastery, together with a mes-

* Der Seelen Seligkeit halber. (L. Epp. ii. p. 323.)

† Mit aller Zucht und Ehre an redliche Stätte und Orte kommen. (Ibid. p. 322.)

‡ Per honestos cives Torgavienses adductæ. (Ibid. p. 319.)

§ Mirabiliter evaserunt. (Ibid.)

|| Und alle Klöster ledig machen. (Ibid. p. 322.)

¶ Cum expectam quotidie mortem et meritum hæretici sup-
plicium. (L. Epp. ii. p. 670, 30th Nov. 1524.)

sage; that himself would see where it might be God's will to feed him.* The Elector made over the convent to the university, and desired Luther to continue to reside in it. The abode of the monks was, ere long, to become the home of a Christian family.

Luther, who had a heart happily constituted for relishing the sweetness of domestic life, honoured and loved the marriage state. It is even likely that he had some preference for Catherine Bora. For a long while his scruples and the thought of the calumnies which such a step would occasion, had hindered his thinking of her; and he had offered the hand of poor Catherine first to Baumgartner of Numerberg,† and afterwards to Doctor Glatz, of Orlamund. But when Baumgartner declined, and Catherine herself refused Glatz, he began more seriously to consider whether he himself ought not to think of making her his wife.

His aged father, who had been so much grieved when he first took upon him the profession of an ecclesiastic, urged him to marry.‡ But one thought above all was present in much power to the conscience of Luther. Marriage is God's appointment—celibacy is man's. He abhorred whatever bore the stamp of Rome. "I desire," said he, to his friends, "to have nothing left of my papistic life."§ Night and day he besought the Lord to put an end to his uncertainty. At last a thought came to break the last ties which held him back. To all the considerations of consistency and personal obedience which taught him to apply to himself that word of God—*It is not good that man should be alone*—was added a higher and more powerful motive. He recognized, that if as a man he was called to the marriage state, he was also called to it as a Reformer.—This thought decided him.

"If that monk marries," said his friend, Schurf, the jurisconsult, "he will cause men and devils to shout with laughter, and bring ruin on all that he has hitherto effected." This remark had upon Luther an effect the very reverse of what might have been expected. To brave the world, the devil, and his enemies, and, by an act in man's judgment the most likely to ruin the Reformation, make it evident that its triumph was not to be ascribed to him, was the very thing he most of all desired. Accordingly, lifting up his head, he boldly replied—"I'll do it! I will play this trick to the world and the devil!—I'll content my father, and marry Catherine!" Luther, by his marriage, broke even more irrevocably with the institutions of the Papacy. He sealed his doctrine by his own example—and emboldened the timid to an entire renunciation of their delusions.** Rome had seemed to be here and there recovering the ground she had lost, and might have been indulging in dreams of victory:—but here was a loud explosion that carried wonder and terror into her ranks, and discovered, more clearly than ever, the courage of the enemy she had pictured to herself defeated and depressed. "I am determined," said Luther, "to bear witness to the Gospel, not by my words alone, but by my actions. I am determined, in the face of my enemies, who already are triumphing and exulting over me, to marry a nun—that they may know that they have not conquered me.†† I do not take a wife that I may live long with her; but, seeing people and princes letting loose their fury against

* Muss und will Ich sehen wo mich Gott ernähret. (Ibid. p. 582.)

† Si vis Ketam tuam a Bora tenere. (L. Epp. ii. p. 355.)

‡ Aus Begehren meines lieben Vaters. (L. Epp. ii. p. 553.)

§ Genesis ii. 18.

¶ Risturos mundum universum et diabolum ipsum. (M. Ad. Vit. Luth. p. 130.)

** Ut confirmem facto quæ docui, tam multos invenio pusillanimes in tanta luce Evangelii. (L. Epp. iii. p. 13.)

†† Nonna ducta uxore in despectum triumphantium et clamantium Io! Io! hostium. (Ibid. p. 21.)

me—in the prospect of death, and of their again troubling my doctrine under foot, I am resolved to edify the weak, by leaving on record a striking confirmation of the truth of what I have taught.”*

On the 11th of June, Luther repaired to the house of his friend and colleague, Amsdorff. He requested Pomeranus, whom he dignified with the special character of the Pastor, to give them the nuptial benediction. Lucas Cranach and Doctor John Apelles witnessed their marriage. Melancthon was not present.

No sooner had Luther's marriage taken place than all Christendom was roused by the report of it. On all sides accusations and calumnies were heaped upon him. “It is incest,” exclaimed Henry the Eighth. “A monk has married a vestal!”† said some. “Antichrist must be the fruit of such an union,” said others; “for it has been predicted that he will be the offspring of a monk and a nun.”‡ To which Erasmus made answer with malicious sneer—“If that prophecy be true, what thousands of Antichrists the world has before now seen.”§ But while these attacks were directed against Luther, some prudent and moderate men, in the communion of the Church of Rome, undertook his defence. “Luther,” said Erasmus, “has taken to wife, a female of the noble house of Bora—but she brought him no dowry.”¶ One whose testimony carries still more weight, bore witness in his favour. Philip Melancthon, the honoured teacher of Germany, who had at first been alarmed by so bold a step, now remarked with that grave conscientiousness which commanded respect even from his enemies: “If it is asserted that there has been anything unbecoming in the affair of Luther's marriage, it is a false slander.¶ It is my opinion, that, in marrying, he must have done violence to his inclination. The marriage state, I allow, is one of humility—but it is also one of sanctity—if there be any sanctity in this world; and the Scriptures everywhere speak of it as honourable in God's sight.”

At first Luther was disturbed by the reproaches and indignities showered upon him. Melancthon showed more than his usual kindness and affection toward him;¶ and it was not long before the Reformer was enabled to discern, in men's opposition, one mark of God's approval. “If the world were not scandalized by what I have done,” said he, “I should have reason to fear that it was not according to God's mind.”***

Eight years had elapsed between the period when Luther first preached against indulgences, and the time of his union with Catherine Bora. It would be difficult to attribute, as is sometimes done, his zeal against the corruptions of the Church to an eager desire to enter into the marriage state. He was already turned forty-two; and Catherine had passed two years at Wittenberg since leaving the convent.

Luther's marriage was a happy one: “the greatest of earthly blessings,” said he, “is a pious and amiable wife—who fears God and loves her family, one with whom a man may live in peace, and in whom he may repose perfect confidence.”

Some time after, in writing to one of his friends, he intimated that his Catherine might soon present him with a child;†† and, in fact, just one year after their

* Non duxi uxorem ut diu viverem, sed quod nunc propriorem finem meum suspicarer. (Ibid. p. 32.)

† Monachus cum vestali copularetur. (M. Ad. Vit. Luth. p. 131.)

‡ Quot Antichristorum millia jam olim habet mundus. (Er. Epp. p. 739.)

§ Erasmus adds;—Partu maturo sponsæ vanus erat rumor. (Er. Epp. p. 790, 789.)

¶ Oti ψένδος ρότρο καὶ διαβολή ἐστι. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 753. ad Cam.)

¶ Πάσα σπουδή καὶ ἐντολή. (Ibid.)

** Offenditur etiam in carne ipsius divinitas et creatoris, he adds, (L. Epp. iii. p. 32.)

†† 31st of Oct. 1525. Caterina mea simulat vel vere implet illud Genes. 3. Tu dolore gravis eris. (L. Epp. iii. p. 35.)

marriage, Catherine was delivered of a boy.* The charms of domestic life soon dispelled the dark clouds raised around him by the wrath of his adversaries.—His Ketha, as he called her, manifested toward him the tenderest affection, comforting him when cast down, by reciting passages of the Bible, relieving him from the cares of the household, sitting by him in his intervals of leisure, while she worked his portrait in embroidery, or reminded him of the friends he had neglected to write to, and amused him by the simplicity of her questions. A sort of dignity seems to have marked her deportment, for Luther occasionally spoke of her as “My Lord Catherine.” On one occasion he said, jesting, that if he ever had to marry again, he would chisel an obedient wife in stone, for, added he, “there is no possibility of finding a real one.” His letters were full of tenderness for Catherine, whom he styled, “his dear and gracious wife,”—“his dear and amiable Ketha.” Luther's manner acquired more playfulness from the society of his Catherine; and that happy flow of Spirits continued from that time, and was never lost even in the most trying circumstances.

Such was the almost universal corruption of the clergy, that the priestly office had fallen into almost general disrepute: the isolated virtue of a few faithful servants of God had not sufficed to redeem it from contempt. Family peace and conjugal fidelity were continually being disturbed, both in towns and rural districts, by the gross passions of priests and monks;—none were safe from their seductions. The free access allowed them to families, and sometimes even the confidence of the confessional, was basely perverted into an opportunity of instilling deadly poison, that they might gratify their guilty desires. The Reformation, by abolishing the celibacy of the ecclesiastics, restored the sanctity of wedlock. The marriage of the clergy put an end to an untold amount of secret profligacy. The Reformers became examples to their flocks in the most endearing and important of all human relationships—and it was not long before the people rejoiced to see the ministers of religion in the character of husbands and fathers.

On a hasty view, Luther's marriage had indeed seemed to multiply the difficulties in the way of the Reformation. It was still suffering from the effects of the revolt of the peasants; the sword of the Emperor and of the princes was unsheathed against it; and its friends, the Landgrave Philip, and the new Elector John, appeared discouraged and silenced.

Nevertheless, this state of things was of no long duration. The young Landgrave, ere long, boldly raised his head. Ardent and fearless as Luther, the manly spirit of the Reformer had won his emulation. He threw himself with youthful daring into the ranks of the Reformation, while he at the same time studied its character with the grave intelligence of a thoughtful mind.

In Saxony, the loss of Frederic's prudence and influence was but ill supplied by his successor; but the Elector's brother, Duke John, instead of confining himself to the office of a protector, intervened directly and courageously in matters affecting religion: “I desire,” said he, in a speech communicated to the assembled clergy, on the 16th August, 1525, as he was on the point of quitting Weimar, “that you will in future preach the pure word of God, apart from those things which man has added.” Some of the older clergy, not knowing how to set about obeying his directions, answered with simplicity—“But we are not forbidden to say mass for the dead, or to bless the water and salt!”—“Everything—no matter what,”

* Mir meine liebe Kethe einen Hansen Luther bracht hat, gestern um zwei. (8th of June, 1526. Ibid. p. 119.)

—replied the Elector, "must be conformed to God's word."

Soon after, the young Landgrave conceived the romantic hope of converting Duke George, his father-in-law. Sometimes he would demonstrate the sufficiency of the Scriptures—another time he would expose the Mass, the Papacy, and compulsory vows. His letters followed quick upon each other, and the various testimony of God's word was all brought to bear upon the old Duke's faith.*

These efforts were not without results. Duke George's son was won to the new opinions. But Philip failed with the father.—"A hundred years hence," said the latter, "and you will see who is right."—"Awful speech!" observed the Elector of Saxony: "What can be the worth, I pray you, of a faith that needs so much previous reflection?—Poor Duke! he will hold back long—I fear God has hardened his heart, as Pharaoh's, in old time."

In Philip, the friends of the Gospel possessed a leader, at once bold, intelligent, and capable of making head against the formidable assaults its enemies were planning. But is it not sad to think, that from this moment the leader of the Reformation should be a soldier, and not simply a disciple of God's word? Man's part in the work was seen in due expansion, and its spiritual element was proportionably contracted. The work itself suffered in consequence, for every work should be permitted to develop itself, according to the laws of its own nature—and the Reformation was of a nature essentially spiritual.

God was multiplying external supports. Already a powerful state on the German frontier—Prussia—unfurled with joy the standard of the Gospel. The chivalrous and religious spirit that had founded the Teutonic order, had gradually become extinct with the memory of the ages in which it arose. The knights, intent only upon their private interests, had given dissatisfaction to the people over whom they presided. Poland had seized the opportunity to impose her suzerainty on the order. People, knights, grand master, Polish influence, were so many different interests conflicting, and rendering the prosperity of the country impossible.

In this state of things, the Reformation found them, and all men saw in it the only way of deliverance for that unfortunate people. Brisman, Speratus, Poliander, (who had been secretary to Eck, at the time of the Leipzig discussion,) and others besides, preached the Gospel in Prussia.

One day a beggar, coming from the lands under the rule of the Teutonic knights, arrived in Wittemberg; and, stopping before the residence of Luther, sang slowly that noble hymn of Poliander's,

"At length redemption's come."†

The reformer, who had never heard this Christian hymn, listened, rapt in astonishment. The foreign accent of the singer heightened his joy. "Again, again," cried he, when the beggar had ended. Afterward he enquired where he had learned that hymn, and tears filled his eyes, when he heard from the poor man that it was from the shores of the Baltic that this shout of deliverance was sounding as far as Wittemberg:—then, clasping his hands, he gave thanks to God.‡

In truth Redemption *was* come even thither!

"Take compassion on our weakness," said the people of Prussia to the Grand Master, "and send us

preachers who may proclaim the pure Gospel of Jesus Christ." Albert at first gave no answer, but he entered into parley with Sigismund, king of Poland, his uncle and suzerain lord.

The latter acknowledged him as hereditary Duke of Prussia,* and the new prince made his entry into his capital of Königsberg, amid the ringing of bells, and acclamations of the inhabitants, who had decorated their houses, and strewed their streets with flowers. "There is but one religious order," said Albert, "and it is as comprehensive as Christianity itself!" The monastic orders vanished, and that divinely appointed order was restored.

The bishops surrendered their secular rights to the new Duke; the convents were converted into hospitals; and the Gospel carried into the poorest villages; and in the year following, Albert married Dorothy, daughter of the king of Denmark, whose faith in the one Saviour was unshaken.

The Pope called upon the Emperor to take measures against the "apostate" monk;—and Charles placed Albert under interdict.

Another prince of the house of Brandenburg, the Cardinal-Archbishop of Mentz, was just then on the point of following his relation's example. The revolt of the peasants was especially menacing in its aspect toward the ecclesiastical principalities; the Elector, Luther, and all Germany thought a great revolution was at hand. The Archbishop seeing no better way to preserve his principality than to render it secular, privately requested Luther to sound the minds of the people preparatory to so decided a step!—which Luther accordingly did, in a letter written with a view to its being made public, wherein he said that the hand of God was heavy on the clergy, and that nothing could save them.‡ However, the war of the peasants having been brought to an earlier termination than had been looked for: the Cardinal retained possession of his temporalities—his uneasiness subsided, and all thoughts of secularizing his position were dismissed!

While John of Saxony, Philip of Hesse, and Albert of Prussia, were openly taking part with the Reformation, and thus, in place of the cautious Frederic, three princes of bold and decided character were standing forward in its support, the blessed Word was working its way in the Church, and among the nations. Luther besought the Elector to establish generally the preaching of the Gospel in the place of the ministrations of Romish priests, and to direct a general visitation of the churches.§ About the same time at Wittemberg they began to exercise the episcopal function, and ordained ministers; "Let not the Pope, the bishops, or the monks, exclaim against us," said Melancthon, "*we* are the Church;—he who separates from us separates himself from the Church." There is no other Church—save the assembly of those who have the word of God, and who are purified by it."||

All this could not be said and done without occasioning a strong reaction. Rome had thought the Reformation extinguished in the blood of the rebel peasants—but in all quarters its flame was rising more bright and powerful than ever. She decided on making one more effort. The Pope and the Emperor wrote menacing letters, the former from Rome, the latter from Spain. The Imperial government took measures for restoring the ancient order of things, and preparations were made for finally crushing the Reformation at the approaching Diet.

* Sleidan, Hist. de la Ref. p. 320.

† Seckend. p. 712.

‡ Er muss herunter. (L. Epp. ii. p. 674.)

§ L. Epp. iii. p. 28, 38, 51, &c.

|| Dass Kirche sey allein diejenige, so Gottes Wort haben und damit gereinigt werden. (Corp. Ref. i. p. 763.)

* Rommels Urkundenbuch. I. p. 2.

† Was das für ein Glaube sey, der eine solche Erfahrung erford. (Seckend. p. 730.)

‡ Es ist das Reyl uns kommen her.

§ Dankte Gott mit Freuden. (Seck. p. 668.)

The electoral Prince of Saxony, and the Landgrave, in some alarm, met on the 7th of November in the castle of Friedewalt, and came to an agreement that their deputies at the Diet should act in concert. Thus in the forest of Sullingen arose the earliest elements of an evangelical association in opposition to the leagues of Ratisbon and Dessau.

The Diet opened on the 11th of December, at Augsburg. The princes favourable to the Gospel were not present, but the deputies from Saxony and Hesse spoke out fearlessly: "The rising of the peasants," said they, "was the effect of impolitic and harsh usage. God's truth is not to be torn from the heart by fire and sword: if you are bent on resorting to violence against the reformed opinions, you will bring down upon us calamities more terrible than those from which we have but just escaped."

It was felt that the resolution of the Diet must be most important in its results. Every one desired, by postponing the decisive moment, to gain time to strengthen his own position. It was accordingly resolved, that the Diet should re-assemble at Spire in the month of May following; and in the meanwhile the rescript of Nuremberg was to continue in force. "When the Diet meet again," said they, "we will go fully into the questions of 'the holy faith—public rights—and the general peace.'"

The Landgrave pursued his plan. Toward the end of February, 1526, he had a conference with the Elector at Gotha. The two princes came to an understanding, that if attacked on account of the word of God, they would unite their forces to resist their adversaries. This alliance was formally ratified at Torgau, and was destined to be fruitful in important consequences.

However, the alliance he had concluded was of itself not enough to satisfy the Landgrave. Convinced that Charles was at work to compact a league "against Christ and his holy word," he addressed letter after letter to the Elector, urging upon him the necessity of uniting with other states: "For myself," said he, "rather would I die than deny the word of God, and allow myself to be driven from my throne."*

At the Elector's court much uncertainty prevailed. In fact, a very serious difficulty stood in the way of union between the princes favourable to the Gospel; and this difficulty originated with Luther and Melancthon. Luther insisted that the doctrine of the Gospel should be defended by God alone. He thought that the less man meddled in the work, the more striking would be God's intervention in its behalf. All the political precautions suggested, were in his view attributable to unworthy fear and sinful mistrust. Melancthon dreaded lest an alliance between the evangelical princes should hasten that very struggle which it was their object to avert.

The Landgrave was not to be deterred by such considerations, and laboured to gain over the neighbouring states to the alliance, but he failed in his endeavours. The Elector of Treves abandoned the ranks of the opposition, and accepted a pension from the Emperor. Even the Elector Palatine, whose disposition was known to be favourable to the Gospel, declined Philip's advances.

Thus, in the direction of the Rhine, the Landgrave had completely failed; but the Elector, in opposition to the advice of the reformed divines, opened negotiations with the princes who had in all times gathered round the standard of the powerful chief of Saxony. On the 12th day of June, the Elector and his son, the Dukes Philip, Ernest, Otho and Francis of Brunswick and Lunenburg, Duke Henry of Mecklenburg, Prince Wolf of Anhalt, Counts Albert and Gebhard of Mans-

feldt, assembled at Magdeburg, and there, under presidency of the Elector, they contracted an alliance similar to that of Torgau.

"Almighty God," said the princes, "having in his unspeakable mercy again brought forward among men his holy and eternal word, the food of our souls, and our richest treasure on this earth—and great efforts being made by the clergy and their adherents to suppress and extirpate it, we—being well assured that He who has sent it forth to glorify his name upon earth, will know how to maintain it, mutually engage to preserve that blessed word to our people, and to employ for this end our goods, and our lives, the resources of our states, and the arms of our subjects, and all that we have, putting our trust not in our armies, but solely in the almighty power of the Lord, of whom we desire to be but the instruments."* So spoke the princes.

Two days after, the city of Magdeburg was received into the alliance, and Albert of Brandenburg, the new Duke of Prussia, acceded to it by a separate convention.

The Evangelic Union was formed; but the dangers it was destined to ward off seemed every day to become more threatening. The priests, and such of the princes as adhered to the Romish party, had seen the Reformation, which they had thought stifled, suddenly growing up before them to a formidable height. Already the partisans of the Reformation were nearly as numerous as those of the Pope. If they should form a majority in the Diet, the consequences to the ecclesiastical states might be imagined. Now or never! It was no longer a heresy to be refuted, but a powerful party to be withstood. Victories of a different kind from those of Eck were needed on this occasion.

Vigorous measures had been already taken. The metropolitan chapter of the church of Mentz had convoked an assembly of its suffragans, and adopted the resolution to send a deputation to the Emperor and the Pope, entreating them to interpose for the deliverance of the Church.

At the same time, Duke George of Saxony, Duke Henry of Brunswick, and the Cardinal-Elector Albert, had met at Halle, and addressed a memorial to Charles. "The detestable doctrine of Luther," said they, "is making extensive progress; every day attempts are made to seduce ourselves, and failing to persuade us, they seek to compel us by exciting our subjects to revolt. We implore the Emperor's intervention."† On the breaking up of this conference, Brunswick himself set out for Spain to induce Charles to take the decisive step.

He could not have arrived at a more favourable juncture: the Emperor had just concluded with France the famous peace of Madrid. He seemed to have nothing left to apprehend from that quarter, and his undivided attention was now directed to the affairs of Germany. Francis the First had offered to defray half the expenses of a war either against the heretics or against the Turks!

The Emperor was at Seville; he was on the eve of marriage with a princess of Portugal, and the banks of the Guadalquivir resounded with joyous festivity. A dazzling train of nobles, and vast crowds of people thronged the ancient capital of the Moors. The pomp and ceremonies of the Church were displayed under the roofs of its noble cathedral. A Legate from the Pope officiated; and never before, even under Arabian rule, had Andalusia witnessed a spectacle of more magnificence and solemnity.

* Allein auf Gott den Allmächtigen, als dessen Werkzeuge sie bendeln. (Hortleber, Ursache des deutschen Krieges, l. p. 1490.)

† Schmidt, Deutsche Gesch. viii. p. 202.

* Seckendorf, p. 768.

Just at that time, Henry of Brunswick arrived from Germany, and solicited Charles to save the Church and the Empire from the attacks of the monk of Wittenberg. His request was immediately taken into consideration, and the Emperor resolved on vigorous measures.

On the 23d of March, 1526, he addressed letters to several of the princes and free cities that still adhered to Rome. He also specially commissioned the Duke of Brunswick to communicate to them that he had learned with grief that the continued progress of Luther's heresy threatened to fill Germany with sacrilege, havoc, and bloodshed; and at the same time, to express the great pleasure he felt in the fidelity of the majority of the States, and to acquaint them that, laying aside all other business, he was about to leave Spain and repair to Rome, to concert measures with the Pope, and from thence to pass into Germany, and there oppose that abominable Wittenberg pest; adding, that it behoved them to continue steadfast in their faith, and in the event of the Lutherans seeking to seduce or oblige them to a renunciation of it, to repel their attempts by a united and courageous resistance: that he himself would shortly be among them and support them with all his power.*

When Brunswick returned into Germany, the Catholic party joyfully lifted up their heads. The Dukes of Brunswick, Pomerania, Albert of Mecklenburg, John of Juliers, George of Saxony, the Dukes of Bavaria, and all the dignitaries of the Church, on reading the menacing letters of the conqueror of Francis the First, thought their triumph secure. It was decided they should attend the approaching Diet, and humble the heretical princes; and in the event of the latter resisting, quell them with the sword. "I may be Elector

of Saxony any day I please,"** was an expression ascribed by report to Duke George—words to which he afterward endeavoured to attach another meaning. "The Lutheran party cannot long hold together," said his Chancellor to the Duke, in a tone of exultation; "let them mind what they are about:" and truly Luther was on his guard, though not in the sense their words conveyed. He attentively observed the designs of the opposers of God's word: he, like Melancthon, expected that thousands of swords would ere long be unsheathed against the Gospel. But he sought a strength far above the strength of men. Writing to Frederic Myconius, he observed, "Satan is raging; ungodly priests take counsel together, and we are threatened with war. Exhort the people to contend earnestly before the throne of the Lord, by faith and prayer, that our adversaries, being overcome by the Spirit of God, may be constrained to peace. The most urgent of our wants—the very first thing we have to do, is to *pray*: let the people know that they are at this hour exposed to the edge of the sword, and the rage of the devil: let them *pray*."†

Thus everything indicated a decisive conflict. The Reformation had on its side the prayers of Christians, the sympathy of the people and an ascendant in men's minds that no power could stay. The Papacy had with it the established order, the force of early habit, the zeal and hatred of powerful princes, and the authority of an Emperor whose dominion extended over both hemispheres, and who had just before deeply humbled the pride of Francis the First.

Such was the condition of affairs when the Diet of Spire was opened. Let us now turn our attention to Switzerland.

* Ranke, Deutsch Gesch. ii. p. 349. Rommel Urkunden, p. 22.

† Ut in mediis gladiis et furoribus Satanæ posito et periclitanti. (L. Epp. iii. p. 100.)

* Archives of Weimar. (Seckend. p. 768.)

BOOK XI.

We are about to contemplate the diversities, or, as they have been since called, *variations* of the Reformation. These diversities are among its most essential characters.

Unity in diversity, and diversity in unity—is a law of Nature, and also of the Church.

Truth may be compared to the light of the Sun. The light comes from heaven colourless, and ever the same; and yet it takes different hues on earth, varying according to the objects on which it falls. Thus different formularies may sometimes express the same Christian Truth, viewed under different aspects.

How dull would be this visible creation, if all its boundless variety of shape and colour were to give place to an unbroken uniformity! And may we not add, how melancholy would be its aspect, if all created beings did but compose a solitary and vast *Unity*!

The unity which comes from Heaven doubtless has its place—but the diversity of *human nature* has its proper place also. In religion we must neither leave out God nor man. Without unity your religion cannot be of *God*—without diversity, it cannot be the religion of *man*. And it ought to be of both. Would you banish from creation a law that its Divine Author has imposed upon it, namely—that of boundless diversity? "Things without life giving sound," said Paul, "whether pipe or harp, except they give a *distinction*

in the sounds, how shall it be known what is piped or harped?"* But, if in religion there is a diversity, the result of distinction of individuality, and which, by consequence, must subsist even in heaven—there is a diversity which is the fruit of man's rebellion—and this last is indeed a serious evil.

There are two opposite tendencies which may equally mislead us. The one consists in the exaggeration of *diversity*—the other, in extending the *unity*. The great doctrines of man's salvation are as a line of demarcation between these two errors. To require more than the reception of those doctrines, is to disallow the diversity:—to require anything less, is to infringe the unity.

This latter departure is that of rash and unruly minds looking beyond, or out of Jesus Christ, in the desire to set up systems and doctrines of men.

The former appears in various exclusive sects and is more especially seen in that of Rome.

It is the duty of the Church to reject Error from her bosom. If this be neglected, Christianity can not be upheld; but, pushed to an extreme, it would follow that the Church should take proceedings against the smallest deviations, and intervene in mere disputes about words; faith would be silenced, and Christian feeling reduced to slavery. Not such was the condi-

* 1 Cor. xiv. 7.

tion of the Church in those times of real Catholicity—the first ages. It cast out the sects which impugned the fundamental truths of the Gospel, but where these were received, it left full liberty to faith. Rome soon departed from these wise precedents, and, in proportion as an authoritative teaching of man established itself within the Church, there appeared a unity of man's imposing.

A system of human appointment being once devised, rigour went on increasing from age to age. Christian liberty, respected by the catholicity of the earliest ages, was first limited, then chained, and finally stifled. Conviction, which, by the laws of our nature, as well as of God's word, should be freely formed in the heart and understanding, was imposed by external authority, ready framed and squared by the masters of mankind. Thought, will, and feeling, all those faculties of our nature, which, once subjected to the Word and Spirit of God, should be left free in their working, were hindered of their proper liberty, and compelled to find vent in forms that had been previously settled. The mind of man became a sort of mirror wherein impressions to which it was a stranger were reproduced, but which, of itself, presented nothing! Doubtless there were those who were taught of God—but the great majority of Christians received the convictions of other men;—a personal faith was a thing of rare occurrence: the Reformation it was that restored this treasure to the Church.

And yet there was, for a while, a space within which the human mind was permitted to move at large—certain opinions, at least, which Christians were at liberty to receive or reject at will. But, as a besieging army, day by day, contracts its lines, compelling the garrison to confine their movements within the narrow enclosure of the fortress, and, at last, obliging it to surrender at discretion, just so, the hierarchy, from age to age, and almost from year to year, has gone on restricting the liberty allowed for a time to the human mind, until, at last, by successive encroachments, there remained no liberty at all. That which was to be believed—loved—or done—was regulated and decreed in the courts of the Roman chancery. The faithful were relieved from the trouble of examining, reflecting, and combating; all they had to do was to repeat the formularies that had been taught them!

From that period, whenever, in the bosom of Roman Catholicism, a man has appeared inheriting the Catholicity of apostolic times, such a one, feeling his inability to act out the life imparted to him, in the bonds in which he is held, has been led to burst those bonds, and give to the astonished world another example of a Christian walking at liberty in the acknowledgment of no law but the law of God.

The Reformation, in restoring liberty to the Church, must therefore restore to it its original diversity, and people it with families united by the great features of resemblance derived from their common head, but varying in secondary features, and reminding us of the varieties inherent in human nature. Perhaps it might have been desirable that this diversity should have been allowed to subsist in the Universal Church without leading to sectarian divisions, and yet we must remember that *Sects* are only the expression of this diversity.

Switzerland, and Germany, which had till now developed themselves independently, came in contact with each other in the years we are about to retrace, and they afforded an example of that diversity of which we have spoken, and which was to be one of the characteristics of Protestantism. We shall have occasion to behold men perfectly agreeing in the great doctrines of the Faith, yet differing on certain secondary

questions. True it is that human passion found an entrance into these discussions, but while deploring such minglings of evil, Protestantism, far from seeking to disguise the diversity, publishes and proclaims it. Its path to unity is indeed long and difficult, but the unity it proposes is real.

Zwingle was advancing in the Christian life. While the Gospel had to Luther brought deliverance from the deep melancholy in which he had been plunged when in the convent of Erfurth, and developed in him a cheerfulness which often amounted to gaiety, and of which, from that time, the Reformer gave such repeated evidence, even when exposed to the greatest dangers, Christianity had had quite a contrary effect on the joyous child of the mountains of the Tockenurg. Reclaiming Zwingle from his thoughtless and worldly career, it had stamped upon his character a seriousness which was not natural to him. This seriousness was indeed most needed. We have seen how, toward the close of 1522, numerous enemies appeared to rise against the Reformation.* From all sides reproaches were heaped upon Zwingle, and contentions would at times take place even in the churches.

Leo Juda, who, to adopt the words of an historian, was a man of small stature,† with a heart full of love for the poor, and zeal against false teachers, had arrived in Zurich about the end of 1522, to take the duty of pastor of St. Peter's church. He had been replaced at Einsidlen by Oswald Myconius.‡ His coming was a valuable acquisition to Zwingle and the Reformation.

One day, soon after his arrival, being at church, he heard an Augustine monk preaching with great earnestness that man was competent, by his own strength, to satisfy the righteousness of God. "Reverend father prior," exclaimed Leo, "listen to me for an instant; and you, my dear fellow-citizens, keep your seats—I will speak as becomes a Christian: and he proceeded to show the unscriptural character of the teaching he had just been listening to.§ A great disturbance ensued in the church. Instantly several persons angrily attacked the little priest from Einsidlen. Zwingle, repairing to the council, presented himself before them, and requested permission to give an account of his doctrine, in presence of the bishop's deputies; and the council, desiring to terminate the dissensions, convoked a conference for the 29th of January. The news spread rapidly throughout Switzerland. "A vagabond diet," observed his mortified adversaries, "is to be held at Zurich. All the vagrants from the high-road will be there."

Wishing to prepare for the struggle, Zwingle put forth sixty-seven theses. In them the mountaineer of the Tonkenburg boldly assailed the pope, in the face of all Switzerland.

"They," said he, "who assert that the Gospel is nothing until confirmed to us by the church, blaspheme God."

"Jesus Christ is the only way of salvation to all who have been, are, or shall be."

"Christians are all the brethren of Christ, and of one another; and they have no 'fathers' upon earth: away, therefore, with religious orders, sects, and parties."

"No compulsion should be employed in the case of such as do not acknowledge their error, unless by their seditious conduct they disturb the peace of others."

Such were some of the propositions put forth by Zwingle.

* Vol. II. Book 8, to the end,

† Er war ein kurzer Mann. (Füsslin Beyträge. iv. p. 44.)

‡ Ut post habitum Leonis, monachis aliquid legam. (Zw. Epp. p. 253.)

§ J. J. Hottinger, Helw. Kirch. Gesch. iii. p. 105.

On the morning of Thursday, the 29th of January, more than six hundred persons were collected in the hall of the great council, at Zurich. Many from the neighbouring cantons, as well as Zurichers, the learned, the higher classes, and the clergy, had responded to the call of the council. "What will be the end of all this?" was the question asked. None ventured to answer; but the breathless attention, deep feeling, and agitation, which reigned in the meeting, sufficiently showed that important results were looked for.

The burgomaster, Roust, who had fought in the battle of Marignan, presided at the conference. The knight, James Anwyll, grand master of the bishop's court, at Constance, Faber, the vicar-general, and several doctors of divinity, attended on the part of the bishop. Schaufhausen had deputed Doctor Sebastian Hofmeister: he was the only deputy from the cantons—so weak, as yet, was the Reformation in Switzerland. On a table, in the centre of the hall, was deposited a Bible, and seated before it was Zwingle. "I am driven and beset on all sides," he had said, "yet I stand firm,† leaning on no strength of my own, but on Christ, the rock, by whose help I can do all things."

Zwingle stood up. "I have proclaimed," said he, "that salvation is to be found in Christ alone; and it is for this that, throughout Switzerland, I am charged with being a heretic, a seducer, and rebellious man. Here, then, I stand, in God's name!"‡

On this, all eyes were turned to Faber, who, rising from his seat, thus replied: "I am not sent to dispute, but to report." The assembly, in surprise, began to smile. "The Diet of Nuremberg," continued Faber, "has promised a council within one year; we must wait for its assembling."

"What!" said Zwingle, "is not this large and intelligent meeting as competent as a council!" then, turning to those who presided, he added—"Gracious Lords; defend the word of God."

A solemn silence ensued on this appeal. At last it was interrupted by the burgomaster. "If any one present has anything to say," said he, "let him say on." Still all were silent. "I implore all those who have accused me—and I know that some are here present," said Zwingle, "to come forward, and rebuke me for the truth's sake." Not a word! Again and again Zwingle repeated his request, but to no purpose. Faber, thus brought to close quarters, lost sight, for an instant, of the reserve he had imposed on himself, and stated that he had convicted of his error the pastor of Filispach, who was at that time in durance; but having said this, he again relapsed into silence. It was all in vain that he was urged to bring forward the arguments by which he had convinced that pastor; he would give no answer. This silence on the part of the Romish doctors mortified the impatience of the assembly. A voice from the further end of the hall was heard exclaiming: "Where have they got to, those braggarts whose voices are so loud in our streets? § Come forward; there's the man you want." On this the burgomaster observed, smiling: "It seems that the sharp-edged sword, that succeeded against the pastor of Filispach, is fast fixed in its scabbard;" and he proceeded to break up the meeting.

In the afternoon, the parties being again assembled, the council resolved that Master Ulrich Zwingle, not being reproved by any one, was at liberty to continue

to preach the Gospel; and that the rest of the clergy of the canton should be enjoined to advance nothing but what they could establish by the Scriptures.

"Thanks be to God, who will cause his word to prevail in heaven and in earth!" exclaimed Zwingle. On this, Faber could not suppress his indignation. "The theses of Master Ulrich," said he, "are incompatible with the honour due to the church, and opposed to the doctrine of Christ—and I can prove it." "Do so," retorted Zwingle. But Faber declined, except it should be in Paris, Cologne, or Friburg. "I acknowledge no authority but that of the Gospel," said Zwingle: "before you can shake one word of that, the earth itself will open before you."* "That's always the cry," remarked Faber; "the Gospel, nothing but the Gospel! Men might lead holy lives, in peace and charity, if there were no Gospel!"† At these words the auditors indignantly rose from their seats, and the meeting finally broke up.

The Reformation was gaining ground. It was, at this period, called to new conquests. After the skirmish at Zurich, in which the ablest champions of the papacy kept silence, who could be so bold as to oppose the new doctrines? But methods of another kind were tried. The firmness of Zwingle, and the republican freedom of his bearing, overawed his enemies. Accordingly, recourse was had to suitable methods for subduing him. While Rome was pursuing Luther with anathemas, she laboured to win the Reformer of Zurich by persuasions. Scarcely was the conference closed over, when Zwingle was surprised by a visit from the captain of the pope's guards—the son of the burgomaster Roust, accompanied by Einsius, the legate, who was the bearer of a brief from the pontiff—in which Adrian addressed Zwingle as his "well-beloved son," and assured him of his special favor. At the same time the pope set others upon urging Zink to influence Zwingle.‡ "And what," inquired Oswald Myconius, "does the pope authorise you to offer him?" "Everything short of the pontiff's chair," § answered Zink, earnestly.

There was nothing, whether mitre, crozier, or cardinal's hat, which the pope would not have given to buy over the Reformer of Zurich. But Rome altogether mistook her man—and vain were all her advances. In Zwingle, the church of Rome had a foe even more determined than Luther. He had less regard for the long-established notions and the ceremonies of former ages—it was enough to draw down his hostility, that a custom, innocent in itself, had been connected with some existing abuses. In his judgment, the word of God alone was to be exalted.

But if Rome had so little understanding of the events then in progress in Christendom, she wanted not for counsellors to give her the needful information.

Faber, irritated at the pope's thus humbling himself before his adversary, lost no time in advising him. A courtier, dressed in smiles, with honied words upon his tongue, those who listened to him might have thought him friendly to all, and even toward those whom he charged with heresy—but his hatred was mortal. Luther, playing on his name (Faber), was accustomed to say: "The Vicar of Constance is a blacksmith . . . of lies. Let him take up arms like a man, and see how Christ defends us."||

* *Es müß das Erdrych brechen.* (Zw. Opp. p. 148.)

† *Man möchte dennoch fröhlich, fridlich und tugendlich lähen, wenn gleich kein Evangelium were.* (Bull. Chron. p. 107. Zw. Opp. i. p. 152.)

‡ *Cum de tua egregia virtute specialiter nobis sit cognitum.* (Zw. Epp. p. 266.)

§ *Serio respondit: Omnia certe præter sedem papalem.* (Vit. Zwingli, per Osw. Myc.)

|| *Prodeant volo, palamque arma capiant.* . . . (Zw. Epp. p. 292.)

* *Ein grosses Verwunderen, was doch aus der Sach werden wollte.* (Bullinger, Chron. i. p. 97.)

† *Immotus tamen maneo, non meis nervis nixus, sed petra Christo in quo omnia possum.* (Zw. Epp. p. 261.)

‡ *Nun wohlhan in dem Namen Gottes, hie bin ich.* (Bullinger, Chron. p. 98.)

§ *i. e.—the monks. Wo sind nun die grossen Hansen.* . . . (Zw. Opp. i. p. 124.)

These words were no uncalled-for bravado, for all the while that the pope, in his communications with Zwingle, was complimenting him on his distinguished virtues, and the especial confidence he reposed in him, the Reformer's enemies were multiplying throughout Switzerland. The veteran soldiers, the higher families, and the herdsmen of the mountains, were combined in aversion to a doctrine which ran counter to all their inclinations. At Lucerne, public notice was given of the performance of "Zwingle's Passion;" and the people dragged about an effigy of the Reformer, shouting that they were going to put the heretic to death; and laying violent hands on some Zurichers, who were then at Lucerne, compelled them to be spectators of this mock execution. "They shall not disturb my peace," observed Zwingle; "Christ will never fail those who are his." Even in the Diet threats against him were heard.* "Beloved confederates," said the councillor of Mullinen, addressing the cantons, "make a stand against Lutheranism while there is yet time. At Zurich no man is master in his own house."

This agitation in the enemy's ranks, proclaimed, more loudly than anything else could have done, what was passing in Zurich. In truth, victory was already bearing fruits, the victorious party was gradually taking possession of the country; and every day the Gospel made some new progress. Twenty-four canons, and a considerable number of the chaplains, came of their own accord to petition the council for a reform of their statutes. It was decided to replace those sluggish priests by men of learning and piety, whose duty it should be to instruct the youth of Zurich, and to establish, instead of their vespers and Latin masses, a daily exposition of a chapter in the Bible, from the Hebrew and Greek texts, first for the learned, and then for the people.

Unhappily there are found, in every army, ungovernable spirits, who leave their ranks, and make onset too early, on points which it would be better, for a while, to leave unattacked. Louis Ketzler, a young priest, having put forth a tract in German, entitled the *Judgment of God against Images*, a great sensation was produced, and a portion of the people could think of nothing else. It is ever to the injury of essentials that the mind of man is pre-occupied with secondary matters. Outside one of the city gates, at a place called Stadelhofen, was stationed a crucifix, elaborately carved, and richly ornamented. The more ardent of the Reformed, provoked at the superstitious veneration still paid this image, could not suppress their indignation, whenever they had occasion to pass that way. A citizen, by name Claudius Hottinger, "a man of family," says Bullinger, "and well acquainted with the Scriptures," meeting the miller of Stadelhofen, to whom the crucifix belonged, inquired when he meant to take away his idols. "No one requires you to worship them," was the miller's reply. "But, do you not know," retorted Hottinger, "that God's word forbids us to have graven images?" "Very well," replied the miller, "if you are empowered to remove them, I leave you to do so." Hottinger thought himself authorised to act, and he was soon after seen to leave the city, accompanied by a number of the citizens. On arriving at the crucifix, they deliberately dug round the image, until, yielding to their efforts, it came down with a loud crash to the earth.

This daring action spread alarm far and wide. One might have thought religion itself had been overturned with the crucifix of Stadelhofen. "They are sacrilegious disturbers,—they are worthy of death," exclaimed the partisans of Rome. The Council caused the iconoclasts to be arrested.

* *Christum suis nunquam defecit urum.* (Zw. Epp. p. 278.)

"No," exclaimed Zwingle, speaking from his pulpit, "Hottinger and his friends have not sinned against God, nor are they deserving of death*—but they may be justly punished for having resorted to violence without the sanction of the magistrates."†

Meanwhile acts of a similar kind were continually recurring. A Vicar of St. Peter's, one day observing before the porch of that church a number of poor persons ill clad and famished, remarked to one of his colleagues, as he glanced at the images of the saints decked in costly attire—"I should like to strip those wooden idols and clothe those poor members of Jesus Christ." A few days after, at three o'clock in the morning, the saints and their fine trappings were missing. The Council sent the vicar to prison, although he protested that he had no hand in removing them. "Is it these blocks of wood," exclaimed the people, "that Jesus enjoined us to clothe? Is it of such images as these that he will say to the righteous—"I was naked, and ye clothed Me?" . . . Thus the Reformation, when resisted, rose to a greater height; and the more it was compressed, with the more force did it break forth and threaten to carry all before it.

These excesses conducted to some beneficial results. Another struggle was needed to issue in further progress—for in spiritual things, as in the affairs of earthly kingdoms, there can be no conquest without a struggle—and since the adherents of Rome were inert, events were so ordered that the conflict was begun by the irregular soldiery of the Reformation. In fact, the magistrates were perplexed and undecided: they felt the need of more light in the matter; and for this end they resolved on appointing a second public meeting, to discuss in German, and on grounds of Scripture, the question as to images.

The bishops of Coira, Constance, and Bale, the university of the latter city, and the twelve cantons, were accordingly requested to send deputies to Zurich. But the bishops declined compliance, recollecting the little credit their deputies had brought them on occasion of the first meeting, and having no wish for a repetition of so humiliating a scene. Let the Gospel party discuss if they will—but let it be among themselves. On the former occasion, silence had been their policy—on this they will not even add importance to the meeting by their presence. Rome thought perhaps that the combat would pass over for want of combatants. The bishops were not alone in refusing to attend. The men of Unterwald returned for answer that they had no philosophers among them—but kind and pious priests alone—who would persevere in explaining the Gospel as their fathers had done; that they accordingly must decline sending a deputy to Zwingle, and the like of him; but that only let him fall into their hands, and they would handle him after a fashion to cure him of his inclination for such irregularities. The only cantons that sent representatives were Schaffhausen‡ and Saint Gall.

On Monday, the 26th of October, more than nine hundred persons—among whom were the members of the Grand Council—and no less than three hundred and fifty priests, were assembled after sermon in the large room of the Town Hall. Zwingle and Leo Juda were seated at a table on which lay the Old and New Testaments in the originals. Zwingle spoke first, and soon disposing of the authority of the hierarchy and its councils, he laid down the rights of every Christian

* The same principles are seen in the speeches of M. M. de Broglie and Royer-Collard, on occasion of the celebrated debates on the law of Sacrilege.

† *Dorum habend i unser Herren kein rächt zuinen*, sv zu töden. (Bull. Chr. p. 127.)

‡ So wollten wir ihm den Lohn geben, dass er's nimmer mehr thäte. (Simmler Samml. M. S. C. ix.)

church, and claimed the liberty of the first ages, when the Church had as yet no council either œcumenical or provincial. "The Universal Church," said he, "is diffused throughout the world, wherever faith in Jesus Christ has spread: in India as well as in Zurich. . . . And as to particular churches, we have them at Berne, at Schaffhausen, and even here. But the Popes, with their cardinals and councils, are neither the Universal Church, nor a particular Church.* This assembly which hears me," exclaimed he, with energy, "is the church of Zurich—it desires to hear the word of God, and can rightfully decree whatever it shall see to be conformable to the Scriptures."

Here we see Zwingle relying on the Church—but on the true Church,—not on the clergy, but on the assembly of believers. He applied to particular churches all those passages of Scripture that speak of the Church Catholic. He could not allow that a church that listened with docility to God's word could fall into error. The church was, in his judgement, represented both politically and ecclesiastically by the Great Council.† He began by explaining each subject from the pulpit; and when the minds of his hearers were convinced, he proposed the different questions to the Council, who, in conformity with the ministers of the Church, recorded such decisions as they called for.‡

In the absence of the bishops' deputies, Conrad Hoffman an aged canon, undertook to defend the Pope. He maintained that the Church, the flock, the "third estate," was not authorized to discuss such matters. "I resided," said he, "for no less than twelve years at Heidelberg, in the house of a man of extensive learning named Doctor Joss—a kind and pious man—with whom I boarded and lived quietly for a long time, but then he always said that it was not proper to make such matters a subject of discussion; you see, therefore!" On this every one began to laugh. "Thus," continued Hoffman, "let us wait for a Council—at present I shall decline taking part in any discussion whatever, but shall act according to the bishop's orders, even though he himself were a knave!"

"Wait for a Council!" interrupted Zwingle, "and who, think you, will attend a Council?—the Pope and some sleepy and ill-taught bishops, who will do nothing but what pleases them. No, that is not the Church: Hong and Küssnacht (two villages in the neighborhood of Zurich,) are more of a Church than all the bishops and popes put together."

Thus did Zwingle assert the rights of Christians in general, whom Rome had stript of their inheritance. The assembly he addressed was in his view not so much the church of Zurich as its earliest representative. Here we see the beginnings of the Presbyterian system. Zwingle was engaged in delivering Zurich from the jurisdiction of the bishops of Constance—he was likewise detaching it from the hierarchy of Rome; and on this thought of the *flock* and the *assembly of believers*, he was laying the foundations of a new church order, to which other countries would afterwards adhere.

The discussion was continued. Several priests having defended the use of images, without deriving their arguments from Scripture, Zwingle, and the rest of the reformers, refuted them by passages from the Bible. "If," said one of the presidents, "no one defends the images by the Scriptures, we shall call upon some of their advocates by name." No one coming forward,

the curate of Wadischwyl was called. "He is asleep," exclaimed one of the crowd. The curate of Horgen was next called. "He has sent me in his stead," said his vicar, "but I cannot answer for him." It was plain that the power of the word of God was felt in the assembly. The partisans of the Reformation were buoyant with liberty and joy; their adversaries, on the contrary, were silent, uneasy, and depressed. The curates of Laufen, Glattfelden, and Wetzikon, the rector and curate of Pfaffikon, the dean of Elgg, the curate of Barettschwyl, the Dominicans and Cordeliers, known for their preaching in defence of image worship and the saints, were one after another invited to stand forward. They all made answer that they had nothing to say in their defence, and that, in future, they would apply themselves to the study of the truth. "Until to-day," said one, "I have put my faith in the ancient doctors, but now I will transfer my faith to the new."—"It is not us," interrupted Zwingle, "that you should believe. It is *God's word*. It is only the Scriptures of God that never can mislead us." The sitting had been protracted—night was closing in. The president, Hofmeister, of Schaffhausen, rose and said: "Blessed be God, the Almighty and Eternal, who, in all things, giveth us the victory," and he ended by exhorting the Town-Council of Zurich to abolish the worship of images.

On Tuesday, the assembly again met, Vadian being president, to discuss the doctrine of the Mass. "My brethren in Christ," said Zwingle, "far from us be the thought that there is anything unreal in the body and blood of Christ.* Our only aim is to prove that the Mass is not a sacrifice that can be offered to God by one man for his fellow, unless indeed any will be bold enough to say, that a man can eat and drink for his friend."

Vadian having twice inquired if any of those present had anything to say in defence of the doctrine impugned, and no one coming forward, the canons of Zurich, the chaplains, and several ecclesiastics, declared themselves of Zwingle's opinion.

But scarcely had the Reformers overcome the partisans of the ancient doctrines, when they were called to contend against the impatient spirits of men clamorously demanding abrupt and violent changes, instead of prudent and gradual reformation. The unfortunate Conrad Grebel rose, and said: "It is not sufficient that we should talk about the Mass; it is our duty to do away with the abuses of it."—"The Council," answered Zwingle, "will put forth an edict on the subject." On this, Simon Stumpf exclaimed, "The Spirit of God has already decided—why then refer the matter to the Council's decision?"†

The commandant, Schmidt, of Küssnacht, rose gravely, and in a speech marked by much wisdom, said—"Let us teach Christians to receive Christ into their hearts.‡ Until this hour you have all been led away after idols. The dwellers in the plain have made pilgrimages to the hills—those of the hill country have gone on pilgrimages to the plain; the French have made journeys into Germany, and the Germans into France. You now know whither you ought to go. God has lodged all things in Christ. . . . Worthy Zurichers, go to the true source, and let Jesus Christ re-enter your territory, and resume his ancient authority."

This speech made a deep impression, and no one standing up to oppose it, Zwingle rose with emotion,

* Der Pabste, Cardinale und Bischöffe Concilia sind nicht die christliche Kirche. (Rüssl Beytr. III. p. 20)

† Diaconus Senatus summa est potestas Ecclesie vico. (Zw Opp. p. 339.)

‡ Ante omnia multitudinum de questione probe docere ita factum est, ut quidquid deciosii (the grand council), cum verbi ministris ordinarent, jamdudum in animis fidelium ordinatum esset. (Zw. Opp. III. p. 339.)

* Dass einigerly Betrug oder Falsch syg in dem reinen Blut und Fleisch Christi. (Zw. Opp. i. p. 498.)

† Der Geist Gottes urtheilet. (Zw. Opp. i. p. 529.)

‡ Wie sy Christum in iren Herzen sollind hilden und machen. (Ibid. p. 634.)

and spoke as follows :—"My gracious lords, God is with us. He will defend His own cause. Now then, in the name of our God, let us go forward." Here Zwingle's feelings overcame him—he wept, and many of those near him also shed tears.

Thus ended the conference. The president rose—the burgo-master thanked them, and the veteran, turning to the Council, said in a grave tone, with that voice that had been so often heard in the field of battle.—"Now then, let us take in hand the sword of the Word . . . and may God prosper his own work!"

This dispute, which took place in the month of October, 1533, was decisive in its consequences. The greater number of the priests, who were present at it, returned full of zeal to their stations in different parts of the canton; and the effect of those memorable days was felt in every corner of Switzerland. The church of Zurich, which, in its connection with the see of Constance, had always maintained a certain measure of independence was now completely emancipated. Instead of resting through the bishop, on the Pope, it rested henceforth, through the people, on the Word of God. Zurich had recovered the rights of which Rome had deprived her. The city and its rural territory vied with each other in zeal for the work of the Reformation, and the Great Council merely obeyed the impulse of the people at large. On every important occasion, the city and the villages signified the result of their separate deliberations. Luther had restored the Bible to the Christian community—Zwingle went further—he restored their rights. This is a characteristic feature of the Reformation in Switzerland. The maintenance of sound doctrine was entrusted, under God, to the people; and recent events have shown, that the people can discharge that trust better than priests or pontiffs.

Zwingle did not allow himself to be elated by victory; on the contrary, the Reformation, under his guidance, was carried on with much moderation. "God knows my heart," said he, when the Council demanded his opinion, "He knows that I am inclined to build up, and not to cast down. There are timid spirits whom it is needful to treat tenderly; let the mass, therefore, for some time longer, be read on Sundays in the churches, and let those who celebrate it be carefully protected from insult."*

The Council issued a decree to this effect. Hottinger, and Hochrutiner, one of his friends, were banished from the canton for two years, and forbidden to return without an express permission.

The Reformation at Zurich proceeded thus in a steady and Christian course. Raising the city day by day to a higher pitch of moral elevation, it cast a glory round her in the eyes of all who loved the word of God. Throughout Switzerland, therefore, those who welcomed the day-spring which had visited the Church, felt themselves powerfully attracted to Zurich. Oswald Myconius, after his expulsion from Lucerne, had spent six months in the valley of Einsiden, when, returning one day, wearied and overpowered by the heat of the weather, from a journey to Glaris, he was met on the road by his young son, Felix,† who had run out to bring him tidings of his having been invited to Zurich, to take charge of one of the schools there. Oswald could hardly credit the happy intelligence, and hesitated for a while between hope and fear. "I am thine," was the reply which, at length, he addressed to Zwingle. Geroldsek dismissed him with regret, for

gloomy thoughts had taken possession of his mind. "Ah!" said he, "all who confess Christ are flocking to Zurich: I fear that one day we shall all perish there together!"* A melancholy foreboding, which was but too fully realized when Geroldsek, and so many other friends of the Gospel, lost their lives on the plain of Cappel.

At Zurich, Myconius had at last found a secure retreat. His predecessor, nicknamed at Paris, on account of his stature, "the tall devil," had neglected his duty. Oswald devoted his whole heart and his whole strength to the fulfilment of his. He explained the Greek and Latin classics; he taught rhetoric and logic; and the youth of the city listened to him with delight.† Myconius was to become, to the rising generation, all that Zwingle was already to those of maturer years.

At first Myconius felt some alarm at the number of fullgrown scholars committed to his care; but by degrees he gathered courage, and it was not long before he distinguished among his pupils a young man of four-and-twenty, whose intelligent looks gave sufficient indication of his love of study. This young man, whose name was Thomas Plater, was a native of the Valais. In that beautiful valley, through which the torrent of the Viege rolls its tumultuous waters, after escaping from the sea of glaciers and snow that encircles Mount Rosa—seated between St. Nicholas and Standen, upon the hill that rises on the right of the river, is still to be seen the village of Grächen. This was Plater's birth-place. From under the shadow of those colossal Alps, emerged one of the most remarkable characters that figured in the great drama of the sixteenth century. At the age of nine he had been consigned to the care of a curate, a kinsman of his own—by whom the little rustic was often so severely beaten, that his cries, he tells us himself, were like those of a kid under the hands of the butcher. One of his consins took him along with him to visit the schools of Germany. But removing in this way from school to school, when he had reached the age of twenty, he scarcely knew how to read.‡ On his arrival at Zurich, he made it his fixed determination that he would be ignorant no longer, took his post at a desk, in one corner of the school over which Myconius presided, and said to himself: "Here thou shalt learn, or here thou shalt die!" The light of the Gospel quickly found its way to his heart. One morning, when it was very cold, and fuel was wanting to heat the school-room stove, which it was his office to tend, he said to himself: "Why need I be at a loss for wood, when there are so many idols in the church?" The church was then empty, though Zwingle was expected to preach, and the bells were already ringing to summon the congregation. Plater entered with a noiseless step, grappled an image of St. John, which stood over one of the altars, carried it off and thrust it into the stove, saying, as he did so—"Down with thee, for in thou must go." Certainly neither Myconius nor Zwingle would have applauded such an act.

It was by other, and better means, that unbelief and superstition were to be driven from the field. Zwingle and his colleagues had stretched out the hand of fellowship to Myconius; and the latter now expounded the New Testament in the church of the Virgin, to a numerous and eager auditory.§ Another public disputation, held on the 13th and 14th of January, 1524, terminated in renewed discomfiture to the cause of Rome; and the appeal of the canon, Koch, who exclaimed—"Popes, cardinals, bishops, councils—these

* Ohne dass jemand sich unterstehe die Messpriester zu beschimpfen. (Wirtz H. K. G. v. p. 208.)

† Insuper nuntio excepti me filius redunt ex Glareano. (Zw. Epp. p. 322.)

‡ Inter spem ac metum. (Ibid.)

* Ac deinde omnes simul pernemus. (Ibid. p. 323.)

† Faventis illum lubens audit. (Ibid. p. 264.)

‡ See his Autobiography.

§ Weisse Füsslin Boyter. iv. p. 66.

are the church for me!" awakened no sympathetic response.

Everything was moving forward at Zurich: men's minds were becoming more enlightened—their hearts more steadfast. The Reformation was gaining strength. Zurich was a fortress, in which the new doctrine had entrenched itself, and from within whose enclosure it was ready to pour itself abroad over the whole confederation.

The enemies were aware of this. They felt that they must no longer delay to strike a vigorous blow. They had remained quiet long enough. The strong men of Switzerland, her iron-sheathed warriors, were up at last, and stirring; and who could doubt, when they were once aroused, that the struggle must end in blood?

The Diet was assembled at Lucerne. The priests made a strenuous effort to engage that great council of the nation in their favour. Friburg and the Forest Cantons proved themselves their docile instruments. Berne, Basle, Soleure, Glaris, and Appenzel, hung doubtfully in the balance. Schaffhausen was almost decided for the Gospel; but Zurich alone assumed a determined attitude as its defender. The partisans of Rome urged the assembly to yield to their pretensions, and adopt their prejudices. "Let an edict be issued," said they, "enjoining all persons to refrain from inculcating or repeating any new or Lutheran doctrine, either secretly or in public; and from talking or disputing on such matters in taverns, or over their wine."* Such was the new ecclesiastical law which it was attempted to establish throughout the confederation.

Nineteen articles to this effect were drawn up in due form—ratified on the 26th of January, 1523, by all the states—Zurich excepted, and transmitted to all the bailiffs, with injunctions that they should be strictly enforced—"which caused," says Bullinger, "great joy among the priests, and great grief among the faithful." A persecution, regularly organized by the supreme authority of the confederation, was thus set on foot.

One of the first who received the mandate of the diet, was Henry Flackenstien, of Lucerne, the bailiff of Baden. It was to his district that Hottinger had retired when banished from Zurich, after having overthrown the crucifix at Stadelhoven; and he had here given free utterance to his sentiments. One day, when he was dining at the Angel Tavern, at Zurzach, he had said that the priests expounded holy scriptures amiss, and that trust ought to be reposed in none but God alone.† The host, who was frequently coming into the room to bring bread or wine, lent an attentive ear to what seemed to him very strange discourse. On another occasion, when Hottinger was paying a visit to one of his friends—John Schutz, of Schneysingen—"Tell me," said Schutz, after they had finished their repast, "what is this new religion that the priests of Zurich are preaching?"—"They preach," replied Hottinger, "that Christ has offered himself up *once only* for all believers, and by that one sacrifice has purified them and redeemed them from all iniquity; and they prove by holy scripture that the Mass is a mere delusion."

Hottinger had afterwards (in February, 1523,) quitted Switzerland, and repaired on some occasion of business, to Waldshut, on the other side of the Rhine. In the meanwhile, measures had been taken to secure his person; and when the poor Zurichers, suspecting no danger, recrossed the Rhine about the end of Fe-

bruary, he had no sooner reached Coblenz, a village on the left bank of the river, than he was arrested. He was conveyed to Klingenau, and as he there fearlessly confessed his belief, Flackenstien said, in an angry tone, "I will take you to a place where you shall meet with those who will give you a fitting answer." Accordingly the bailiff dragged his prisoner first before the magistrates of Klingenau, next before the superior tribunal of Baden, and ultimately, since he could not elsewhere obtain a sentence of condemnation against him, before the diet assembled at Lucerne. He was resolved that in one quarter or another he would find judges to pronounce him guilty.

The diet was prompt in its proceedings, and condemned Hottinger to lose his head. When this sentence was communicated to him, he gave glory to Jesus Christ. "Enough, enough," cried Jacob Trogger, one of the Judges, "we do not sit here to listen to sermons—thou shalt babble some other time."—"He must have his head taken off for this once," said the bailiff, Am-Ort, with a laugh, "but if he should recover it again, we will embrace his creed."—"May God forgive those who have condemned me!" exclaimed the prisoner; and when a monk presented a crucifix to his lips, "It is the heart," said he, pushing it away, "that must receive Jesus Christ."

When he was led forth to death, there were many among the spectators who could not restrain their tears. He turned toward them, and said, "I am going to everlasting happiness." On reaching the place of execution, he lifted up his eyes to heaven, saying, "Oh, my Redeemer, into thy hands I commend my spirit!" and a moment after, his head rolled upon the scaffold.

No sooner had the blood of Hottinger been shed, than the enemies of the Reformation seized the opportunity of inflaming the anger of the confederates to a higher pitch. It was in Zurich that the root of the mischief must be crushed. So terrible an example as that which had now been set, could not fail to intimidate Zwingle and his followers. One vigorous effort more—and the Reformation itself would share the fate of Hottinger. The diet immediately resolved that a deputation should be sent to Zurich, to call on the councils and the citizens to renounce their new faith.

The deputies were admitted to an audience on the 21st of March. "The ancient unity of the Christian church is broken," said they; "the evil is gaining ground; the clergy of the four Forest cantons have already intimated to the magistrates that aid must be afforded them, or their functions must cease. Confederates of Zurich! join your efforts to ours; root out this new religion;* dismiss Zwingle and his disciples; and then let us all unite to remedy the abuses which have arisen from the encroachments of popes and their courtiers."

Such was the language of the adversary. How would the men of Zurich now demean themselves? Would their hearts fail them? Had their courage ebbed away with the blood of their fellow citizens?

The men of Zurich left neither friends nor enemies long in suspense. The reply of the council was calm and dignified. They could make no concessions in what concerned the word of God; and their very next act was a reply more emphatic still.

It had been the custom ever since the year 1351, that, on Whit Monday, a numerous company of pilgrims, each bearing a cross, should go in procession to Einsiden, to worship the virgin. This festival,†

* Es soll nieman in den Wirtzhüseren oder sunst hinter dem Wyn von Lutherischen oder neuen Sachen uzid reden. (Bull. Chron. p. 144.)

† Wie wir unser pitt Hoffnung und Trost allein uf Gott. (Bull. Chr. p. 146.)

* Zurich selbigen ausreuten und untertrucken helfe. (Holt. Helv. K. G. iii. p. 170.)

† Uff einen creitzgang sieben unehelicher kintzen überkommen wurdend. (Bullinger Chr. p. 160.)

instituted in commemoration of the battle of Tatwyl, was commonly attended with great disorders. It would fall, this year, on the 7th May. At the instance of the three pastors, it was now abolished, and all the other customary processions were successively brought under due regulation.

Nor did the council stop here. The relics, which had given occasion to so many superstitions, were honourably interred.* And then, on the farther requisition of the three pastors, an edict was issued, decreeing that, inasmuch as God alone ought to be honoured, the images should be removed from all the churches of the canton, and their ornaments applied to the relief of the poor. Accordingly, twelve councillors—one for each tribe, the three pastors, and the city architect—with some smiths, carpenters, and masons, visited the several churches; and having first closed the doors, took down the crosses, obliterated the paintings, whitewashed the walls, and carried away the images, to the great joy of the faithful, who regarded this proceeding, Bullinger tells us, as a glorious act of homage to the true God. In some of the country parishes the ornaments of the churches were committed to the flames, "to the honour and glory of God." Soon after this, the organs were suppressed, on account of their connexion with many superstitious observances; and a new form of baptism was established from which everything unscriptural was carefully excluded.†

The triumph of the Reformation threw a joyful radiance over the last hours of the burgo-master, Roust, and his colleague. They had lived long enough; and they both died within a few days after the restoration of a purer mode of worship.

The Swiss Reformation here presents itself to us under an aspect rather different from that assumed by the Reformation in Germany. Luther had severely rebuked the excesses of those who broke down the images in the churches of Wittenburg; and here we behold Zwingle, presiding in person over the removal of images from the temple of Zurich. This difference is explained by the different light in which the two reformers viewed the same object. Luther was desirous of retaining in the church all that was not expressly contradicted by Scripture—while Zwingle was intent on abolishing all that could not be proved by Scripture. The German Reformer wished to remain united to the church of all preceding ages, and sought only to purify it from everything that was repugnant to the word of God. The reformer of Zurich passed back over every intervening age till he reached the times of the apostles; and, subjecting the church to an entire transformation, laboured to restore it to its primitive condition.

Zwingle's Reformation, therefore, was the more complete. The work which Divine Providence had intrusted to Luther, the re-establishment of the doctrine of Justification by Faith, was undoubtedly the great work of the Reformation; but when this was accomplished, other ends, of real, if not of primary importance, remained to be achieved; and to these, the efforts of Zwingle were more especially devoted.

Two mighty tasks, in fact, had been assigned to the Reformers. Christian Catholicism taking its rise amidst Jewish Pharisaism, on the one hand, and the Paganism of Greece, on the other, had, by degrees, contracted something of the spirit of each of those systems, and had thus been transformed into *Roman Catholicism*. The Reformation, therefore, whose mission it was to purify the church, had to clear it alike from the Jewish and the Pagan element.

The Jewish element had incorporated itself chiefly

with that portion of Christian doctrine which relates to man. Catholicism had borrowed from Judaism the pharisaic notions of inherent righteousness, and salvation obtainable by human strength or works.

The Pagan element had allied itself principally with that other portion of Christian doctrine which relates to God. Paganism had corrupted the Catholic notion of an infinite Deity, whose power, being absolutely all-sufficient, acts everywhere and at every moment. It had set up in the church the dominion of symbols, images, and ceremonies; and the saints had become the demi-gods of Popery.

The Reformation, in the hands of Luther, was directed essentially against the Jewish element. With this he had been compelled to struggle at the outset, when an audacious monk, on behalf of the Pope, was bartering the salvation of souls for paltry coin.

The Reformation, as conducted by Zwingle, was directed mainly against the Pagan element. It was this that he had first encountered, in the chapel of the Virgin at Einsidlen, when crowds of worshippers, benighted as those of old who thronged the temple of Ephesian Diana, were gathered from every side to cast themselves down before a gilded idol.

The Reformer of Germany proclaimed the great doctrine of justification by faith—and, in so doing, inflicted a death blow on the pharisaic righteousness of Rome. The Swiss Reformer, undoubtedly, did the same. The inability of man to save himself is the fundamental truth on which all reformers have taken their stand. But Zwingle did something more. He brought forward, as practical principles, the existence of God, and His sovereign, universal, and exclusive agency; and by the working out of these principles, Rome was utterly bereft of all the props that had supported her paganized worship.

Roman Catholicism had exalted man, and degraded God. Luther reduced man to his proper level of abasement; and Zwingle restored God, (if we may so speak,) to his unlimited and undivided supremacy.

Of these two distinct tasks, which were specially, though not exclusively, allotted to the two Reformers, each was necessary to the completion of the other. It was Luther's part to lay the foundation of the edifice—Zwingle's to rear the superstructure.

To an intellect gifted with a still more capacious grasp, was the office reserved of developing on the shores of the Leman, the peculiar characters of the Swiss and the German Reformation—blending them together and imprinting them, thus combined, on the Reformation as a whole.*

But while Zwingle was thus carrying on the great work, the disposition of the cantons was daily becoming more hostile. The government of Zurich felt how necessary it was to assure itself of the support of the people. The people, moreover—that is to say, "the assembly of believers," was, according to Zwingle's principles, the highest earthly authority to which an appeal could be made. The Council resolved, therefore, to test the state of public opinion, and instructed the bailiffs to demand of all the townships, whether they were ready to endure everything for the sake of our Lord Jesus Christ, "who shed his precious blood," said the Council, "for us poor sinners."† The whole canton followed close upon the city in the career of Reformation—and, in many places, the houses of the peasants had become schools of Christian instruction, in which the Holy Scriptures were constantly read.

The proclamation of the Council was received by all the townships with enthusiasm: "Only let our

* Litterarischer Anzeiger, 1840, No 27.

† Der sin rosenfarw blut alein fur uns arme sunder verges-son hat. (Bull. Chr. p. 180.)

* Und es eerlich bestattet hat. (Bull. Chr. p. 161.)

† Habend die nach innen zu beschlosssen.

magistrates hold fast and fearlessly to the word of God," answered they, "we will help them to maintain it;* and, if any should seek to molest them, we will come like brave and loyal citizens to their aid." The peasantry of Zurich showed, on that occasion, as they have recently shown again, that the strength of the Church is in the Christian people.

But the people were not alone. The man whom God had placed at their head, answered worthily to their call. Zwingle seemed to multiply himself for the service of God. Whosoever, in any of the cantons of Switzerland, suffered persecution for the Gospel's sake, addressed himself to him.† The weight of business, the care of the churches,‡ the solicitude inspired by that glorious struggle which was now beginning to be waged in every valley of his native land—all pressed heavily on the Evangelist of Zurich. At Wittemberg, the tidings of his courageous deportment were received with joy. Luther and Zwingle were the two great luminaries of Upper and Lower Germany; and the doctrine of salvation, which they proclaimed so powerfully, was fast diffusing itself over all those vast tracts of country that stretch from the summit of the Alps to the shores of the Baltic and the German Ocean.

While the word of God was pursuing its victorious course over these spacious regions, we cannot wonder that the Pope in his palace, the inferior clergy in their presbyteries, the magistrates of Switzerland in their councils, should have viewed its triumphs with alarm and indignation. Their consternation increased every day. The people had been consulted; the Christian people had again become something in the Christian Church; their sympathies and their faith were now appealed to, instead of the decrees of the Roman chancery. An attack so formidable as this must be met by a resistance more formidable still. On the 18th April, the Pope addressed a brief to the Confederates; and, in the month of July, the Diet assembled at Zug, yielding to the urgent exhortations of the Pontiff, sent a deputation to Zurich, Schaffhausen, and Appenzel, to notify to those states their fixed determination that the new doctrine should be entirely suppressed, and its adherents subjected to the forfeiture of property, honours, and even life itself. Such an announcement could not fail to excite a strong sensation at Zurich; but a resolute answer was returned from that canton, that in matters of faith, the word of God alone must be obeyed. When this reply was communicated to the assembly, the liveliest resentment was manifested on the part of Lucerne, Schwitz, Uri, Unterwalden, Friburg, and Zug, and, forgetting the reputation and the strength which the accession of Zurich had formerly imparted to the infant Confederation, forgetting the precedence which had been assigned to her, the simple and solemn oaths of fidelity by which they were bound to her—the many victories and reverses they had shared with her—these states declared that they would no longer sit with Zurich in the Diet. In Switzerland, therefore, as well as in Germany, the partisans of Rome were the first to rend asunder the federal union. But threats and breaches of alliance were not enough. The fanaticism of the cantons were clamorous for blood; and it soon appeared what were the weapons which Popery intended to wield against the word of God.

The excellent Cæxlin,§ a friend of Zwingle, was the

pastor of Burg, a village in the vicinity of Stein, upon the Rhine. The bailiff, Amberg, who had previously appeared to favour the cause of the Gospel,* being anxious to obtain that bailiwick, had pledged himself to the leading men of the canton of Schwitz, that he would put down the new religion. Cæxlin, though not resident within his jurisdiction, was the first object of his persecution.

On the night of the 7th of July, 1524, near midnight, a loud knocking was heard at the pastor's door; it was opened;—they were the soldiers of the bailiff. They seized him, and dragged him away prisoner, in spite of his cries. Cæxlin, believing that they meant to put him to death, shrieked out, "Murder!" The inhabitants rose from their beds in affright, and the whole village immediately became a scene of tumult, the noise of which was heard as far as Stein. The sentinel, posted at the castle of Hohenklingen, fired the alarm gun, the tocsin was sounded, and the inhabitants of Stein, Stammheim, and the adjacent places, were shortly all a-foot and clustering together in the dark, to ask each other what was the matter.

Stammheim was the residence of the deputy-bailiff, Wirth, whose two eldest sons, Adrian and John, young priests full of piety and courage, were zealously engaged in preaching the Gospel. John especially was gifted with a fervent faith, and stood prepared to offer up his life in the cause of his Saviour. It was a household of the patriarchal cast. Anna, the mother, who had brought the bailiff a numerous family, and reared them up in the fear of God, was revered for her virtues through the whole country round. At the sound of the tumult in Burg, the father and his two sons came abroad like their neighbours. The father was incensed when he found that the bailiff of Frauenfeld had exercised his authority in a manner repugnant to the laws of his country. The sons were grieved by the tidings that their friend and brother, whose good example they delighted to follow, had been carried off like a criminal. Each of the three seized a halberd, and regardless of the fears of a tender wife and mother, father and sons joined the troop of townspeople who had sallied out from Stein with the resolute purpose of setting their pastor at liberty. Unfortunately, a band of those ill-disposed persons, who never fail to make their appearance in a moment of disorder, had mingled with the burghers in their march. The bailiff's sergeants were hotly followed; but warned by the tocsin and the shouts of alarm which echoed on every side, they redoubled their speed, dragging their prisoner along with them, and in a little time the Thur was interposed between them and their pursuers.

When the people of Stein and Stammheim reached the bank of the river and found no means of crossing it, they halted on the spot, and resolved to send a deputation to Frauenfeld. "Oh!" said the bailiff, Wirth, "the pastor of Stein is so dear to us that I would willingly sacrifice all I possess—my liberty—my very heart's blood—for his sake."‡ The rabble, meanwhile, finding themselves in the neighbourhood of the convent of Ittengen, occupied by a company of Carthusians, who were generally believed to have encouraged the bailiff Amberg in his tyranny, entered the building, and took possession of the refectory. They immediately gave themselves up to excess, and a scene of riot ensued. In vain did Wirth entreat them to quit the place; § he was in danger of personal ill treatment among them. His son, Adrian, had remained outside

* Meine Herrn sollten auch nur dapfer bey dem Gottsworte verbleiben. (Füssli, Beytr. iv. p. 107. where the answer given by each township is recorded.)

† Scribunt e Helvetiis ferme omnes qui propter Christum præmuntur. (Zw. Epp. p. 348.)

‡ Negotiorum strepitus et ecclesiarum curæ ita me undique quantunt. (Ibid.)

§ See Vol. ii. p. 299.

* Der war anfangs dem evangelio gunstig. (Bull. Chr. p. 180.)

† Sender die kutlen in Buch sur In wagen. (Bull. Chr. p. 193.)

‡ Und bapt sy um Gottes willen uss dem Kloster zu gaud. (Ibid. p. 183.)

of the monastery; John entered it, but shocked by what he beheld within, came out again immediately.* The inebriated peasants proceeded to pillage the cellars and granaries, to break the furniture to pieces, and to burn the books.

As soon as the news of these disorders reached Zurich, the deputies of the Council were summoned in haste, and orders issued for all persons belonging to the canton who had left their homes to return to them immediately. These orders were obeyed. But a crowd of Thurgovians, drawn together by the tumult, now established themselves in the convent for the sake of the good cheer which they found there. A fire suddenly broke out, no one could tell how—and the edifice was reduced to ashes.

Five days after, the deputies of the cantons were convened at Zug. Nothing was heard in this assembly but threats of vengeance and death. "Let us march," said they, "with our banners spread, against Stein and Stammheim, and put the inhabitants to the sword." The deputy-bailiff and his two sons had long been objects of especial dislike on account of their faith. "If any one is guilty," said the deputy from Zurich, "he must be punished; but let it be by the rules of justice, not by violence." Vadian, the deputy from St. Gall, spoke to the same effect. Hereupon, the avoyer, John Hug, of Lucerne, unable any longer to contain himself, broke out into frightful imprecations.† "The heretic, Zwingle, is the father of all these rebellions; and you, Doctor of St. Gall, you favour his hateful cause, and labour for its advancement. You shall sit here with us no longer!" The deputy for Zug endeavoured to restore order, but in vain. Vadian retired; and knowing that his life was in danger from some of the lower order of the people, secretly left the town, and, by a circuitous road, reached the convent of Cappel in safety.

The magistrates of Zurich, intent upon repressing all commotion, resolved upon a provisional arrest of the individuals against whom the anger of the confederates had been more particularly manifested. Wirth and his sons were living quietly at Stammheim. "Never," said Adrian Wirth from the pulpit, "can the friends of God have anything to fear from His enemies." The father was warned of the fate that awaited him, and advised to make his escape along with his sons. "No," he replied, "I put my trust in God, and will wait for the sergeants here." When, at length, a party of soldiers presented themselves at his door—"Their worship of Zurich," said he, "might have spared themselves this trouble:—had they only sent a child to fetch me, I would have obeyed their bidding."‡ The three Wirths were carried to Zurich and lodged in the prison. Rutiman, the bailiff of Nussbaum, shared their confinement. They underwent a rigid examination; but the conduct they were proved to have held furnished no ground of complaint against them.

As soon as the deputies of the cantons were apprized of the imprisonment of these four citizens, they demanded that they should be sent to Baden, and decreed, that in case of a refusal, an armed power should march upon Zurich, and carry them off by force. "It belongs of right to Zurich," replied the deputies of that canton, "to determine whether these men are guilty or not, and we find no fault in them." Hereupon, the deputies of the cantons cried out, "Will you surrender them to us, or not?—answer yes, or no—in a single word." Two of the deputies of Zurich mounted their

horses at once, and repaired with all speed to their constituents.

Their arrival threw the whole town into the utmost agitation. If the authorities of Zurich should refuse to give up the prisoners, the confederates would soon appear in arms at their gates, and, on the other hand, to give them up, was, in effect, to consent to their death. Opinions were divided. Zwingle insisted on a refusal. "Zurich," said he, "must remain faithful to its ancient laws." At last a kind of compromise was suggested. "We will deliver up the prisoners," said they to the Diet, "but on this condition, that you shall examine them regarding the affair of Ittengen only, and not with reference to their faith." The Diet agreed to this proposition; and on the Friday before St. Bartholomew's day, (August, 1524,) the three Wirths and their friend took their departure from Zurich under the escort of four Councillors of State, and a few soldiers.

The deepest concern was manifested on this occasion by the whole body of the people. The fate which awaited the two old men and the two brothers was distinctly foreseen. Nothing but sobs was heard as they passed along. "Alas!" exclaims a contemporary writer, "what a woeful journey was that!" The churches were all thronged. "God will punish us," cried Zwingle,—"He will surely punish us." Let us at least beseech Him to visit those poor prisoners with comfort, and strengthen them in the true faith."†

On the Friday evening, the prisoners arrived at Baden, where an immense crowd was awaiting to receive them. They were taken first to an inn, and afterwards to the jail. The people pressed so closely round to see them that they could scarcely move. The father, who walked first, turned round towards his sons, and meekly said—"See, my dear children, we are like those of whom the Apostles speak—men appointed to death, a spectacle to the world, to angels and to men." (1 Cor. iv. 9.) Just then he chanced to observe, among the crowd, the bailiff, Am-Berg, his mortal enemy, and the prime author of all his misfortunes. He went up to him, held out his hand, and, grasping Am-Berg's,—though the bailiff would have turned away,—said, with much composure, "There is a God above us, and He knows all things."

The examination began the next morning. Wirth, the father, was the first who was brought before the tribunal. Without the least consideration for his character or for his age, he was put to the torture; but he persisted in declaring that he was innocent both of the pillage and the burning of Ittengen. A charge was then brought against him of having destroyed an image representing St. Anne. As to the other prisoners,—nothing could be substantiated against them, except that Adrian Wirth was married, and that he was accustomed to preach after the manner of Zwingle and Luther; and that John Wirth had given the holy sacrament to a sick man without candle or bell!‡

But the more conclusively their innocence was established, the more furious became the excitement of their adversaries. From morning till noon of that day, the old man was made to endure all the severity of torture. His tears were of no avail to soften the hearts of his judges. John Wirth was still more cruelly tormented. "Tell us," said they, in the midst of his agonies, "from whom didst thou learn thy heretical creed? Was it Zwingle, or who else, that taught it thee? And when he was heard to exclaim, "O mer-

* O weh! was elender Fahart war das! (Bern. Weyss. Füssl. Beyt. iv. p. 56)

† Sy troste und in warem glouben starckte. (Bull. Chr. p. 188.)

‡ On Kerzen, schellen und anders so bisshar göupt ist. (Bull. Chr. p. 196.)

* Dan es im leid was. (Bull. Chr. p. 195.)

† Mit fluchen und wüten. (Ibid. p. 184.)

‡ Dann hattind sy mir ain kind geschickt. (Bull. Chr. p. 196.)

ciful and everlasting God! grant me help and comfort!" "Aha!" said one of the deputies, "where is your Christ now?" When Adrian was brought forward, Sebastian von Stein, a deputy of Berne, addressing him thus:—"Young man, tell us the truth, for if you refuse to do so, I swear by my knighthood,—the knighthood I received on the very spot where God suffered martyrdom,—we will open all the veins in your body one by one." The young man was then hoisted up by a cord, and while he was swinging in the air, "Young master," said Stein, with a fiendish smile,* "this is our wedding gift;" alluding to the marriage which the youthful ecclesiastic had recently contracted.

The examination being now concluded, the deputies returned to their several cantons to make their report, and did not assemble again until four weeks had expired. The bailiff's wife,—the mother of the two young priests,—repaired to Baden, carrying a child in her arms, to appeal to the compassion of the judges. John Escher, of Zurich, accompanied her as her advocate. The latter recognised among the judges Jerome Stocker, the landamman of Zug, who had twice been bailiff of Frauenfeld. "Landamman," said he, accosting him, "you remember the bailiff Wirth; you know that he has always been an honest man." "It is most true, my good friend Escher," replied Stocker; "he never did any one an injury; countrymen and strangers alike were sure to find a hearty welcome at his table; his house was a convent,—inn,—hospital, all in one.† And knowing this as I do, had he committed a robbery or a murder, I would have spared no effort to obtain his pardon; but since he has burned St. Anne, the grandmother of Christ, it is but right that he should die!"—"Then God take pity on us!" ejaculated Escher.

The gates were now shut, (this was on the 28th of September,) and the deputies of Berne, Lucerne, Uri, Schwitz, Unterwald, Zug, Glaris, Friburg, and Soleur, having proceeded agreeably to usage, to deliberate on their judgment with closed doors, sentence of death was passed upon the bailiff, Wirth, his son John, who, of all the accused, was the firmest in his faith, and who appeared to have gained over the others, and the bailiff, Rutiman. They spared the life of Adrian, the younger of Wirth's sons, as a boon to his weeping mother.

The prisoners were now brought forth from the tower in which they had been confined. "My son," said the father to Adrian, "we die an undeserved death, but never do thou think of avenging it." Adrian wept bitterly. "My brother," said John, "where Christ's word comes his *cross* must follow."‡

After the sentence had been read to them, the three Christian sufferers were led back to prison; John Wirth walking first, the two bailiffs next, and a vicar behind them. As they crossed the castle bridge, on which there was a chapel dedicated to St. Joseph, the vicar called out to the two old men—"Fall on your knees and invoke the saints." At these words, John Wirth, turning round, said, "Father, be firm! You know there is but one Mediator between God and man—Christ Jesus."—"Assuredly, my son," replied the old man, "and by the help of His grace, I will continue faithful to Him, even to the end." On this they all three began to repeat the Lord's Prayer, "Our Father who art in heaven" . . . And so they crossed the bridge.

They were next conducted to the scaffold. John

Wirth, whose heart was filled with the tenderest solicitude for his father, bade him a solemn farewell. "My beloved father," said he, "henceforth thou art my father no longer, and I am no longer thy son;—but we are brothers still in Christ our Lord, for whose name's sake we are doomed to suffer death.* So now, if such be God's will, my beloved brother, let us depart to be with Him who is the father of us all. Fear nothing!"—"Amen!" answered the old man, "and may God Almighty bless thee, my beloved son, and brother in Christ."

Thus, on the threshold of eternity did father and son take their leave of each other, with joyful anticipations of that unseen state in which they should be united anew by imperishable ties. There were but few among the multitude around whose tears did not flow profusely. The bailiff Rutiman prayed in silence.† All three then knelt down "in Christ's name."—and their heads were severed from their bodies.

The crowd, observing the marks of torture on their persons, uttered loud expressions of grief. The two bailiffs left behind them twenty-two children and forty-five grand-children. Anna was obliged to pay twelve golden crowns to the executioner by whom her husband and son had been deprived of life.

Now at length blood had been spilt—innocent blood. Switzerland and the Reformation were baptized with the blood of the martyrs. The great enemy of the Gospel had effected his purpose; but in effecting it he had struck a mortal blow against his own power. The death of the Wirths was an appointed means of hastening the triumph of the Reformation.

The Reformers of Zurich had abstained from abolishing the mass when they suppressed the use of images; but the moment for doing so seemed now to have arrived.

Not only had the light of the Gospel been diffused among the people—but the violence of the enemy called upon the friends of God's word to reply by some striking demonstration of their unshaken constancy. As often as Rome shall erect a scaffold, and heads shall drop upon it, so often shall the Reformation exalt the Lord's holy Word, and crush some hitherto untouched corruption. When Hottinger was executed, Zurich put down the worship of images, and now that the Wirths have been sacrificed, Zurich shall reply by the abolition of the *Mass*. While Rome fills up the measure of her severities the Reformation shall be conscious of a perpetual accession of strength.

On the 11th of August, 1525, the three pastors of Zurich, accompanied by Megander, and Oswald and Myconius, presented themselves before the Great Council, and demanded the re-establishment of the Lord's Supper. Their discourse was a weighty one,‡ and was listened to with the deepest attention;—every one felt how important was the decision which the Council was called upon to pronounce. The mass—that mysterious rite which for three successive centuries had constituted the animating principle in the worship of the Latin Church—was now to be abrogated—the corporeal presence of Christ was to be declared an illusion, and of that illusion, the minds of the people were to be dispossessed; some courage was needed for such a resolution as this, and there were individuals in the Council who shuddered at the contemplation of so audacious a design. Joachim Am-Grüt, the under secretary of state, was alarmed by the demand of the pastors, and opposed it with all his might. "The

* Furohin bist du nitt me min Vatter und ich din sun sondern wir sind brüder in Christo. (Bull. Chr. p. 204.)

† Des gnadens weyneten vil Luthen herzlich. (Ibid.)

‡ Und vermantend die ernstlich. (Bull. Chr. p. 263.)

* Alls man inn am folter seyl uffzog, sagt der zum Stein: Herri, das ist die gaab diewir uch du uwer Hussfrowen schänckend. (Ibid. p. 196.)

† Sin huss ist allwey gsin wie ein Kloster, wirtshuss und Spital. (Bull. Chr. p. 193.)

‡ Doch allwäg das crütz darbey. (Ibid.)

words, "*This is my body*," said he, "prove beyond all dispute that the bread is the very body of Christ himself." Zwingle argued that there is no other word in the Greek language than *est* (is) to express *signifies*, and he quoted several instances of the employment of that word in a figurative sense. The Great Council was convinced by his reasoning, and hesitated no longer. The evangelical doctrine had sunk deep into every heart, and moreover, since a separation from the Church of Rome had taken place, there was a kind of satisfaction felt in making that separation as complete as possible, and digging a gulf as it were between the Reformation and her. The Council decreed therefore that the *mass* should be abolished, and it was determined that on the following day, which was Maundy Thursday, the Lord's Supper should be celebrated in conformity to the apostolic model.

Zwingle's mind had been deeply engaged in these proceedings; and at night, when he closed his eyes, he was still searching for arguments with which to confront his adversaries. The subject that had occupied him during the day, presented itself to him again in a dream. He thought that he was disputing with Am-Grüt, and could not find an answer to his principal objection. Suddenly some one stood before him in his dream and said, "Why dost not thou quote the 11th verse of the 12th chapter of Exodus: *Ye shall eat the Lamb in haste; it is the Lord's Passover*?" Zwingle awoke, arose from his bed, took up the Septuagint translation, and turning to the verse, he found the same word *est* (is) whose import in that passage by universal admission, can be no other than *signifies*.

Here, then, in the very constitution of the paschal feast under the old covenant, was the phrase employed in that identical sense which Zwingle assigned to it—who could resist the conclusion that the two passages are parallel!

On the following day, Zwingle took the verse just mentioned as the text of his discourse, and reasoned so forcibly from it, that the doubts of his hearers were dispelled.

The incident which has now been related, and which is so naturally explained—and the particular expression* used by Zwingle to intimate that he had no recollection of the aspect of the person whom he saw in his dream, have given rise to the assertion that the doctrine promulgated by the Reformer was delivered to him by the devil!

The altars disappeared; some plain tables, covered with the sacramental bread and wine, occupied their places, and a crowd of eager communicants was gathered round them. There was something exceedingly solemn in that assemblage. Our Lord's death was commemorated on three different days, by different portions of the community:—on Maundy Thursday, by the young people; on Good Friday, the day of his passion, by those who had reached the middle stage of life; on Easter Sunday by the aged.†

After the deacons had read aloud such passages of Scripture as related to this sacrament, the pastors addressed their flock in the language of pressing admonition—charging all those whose wilful indulgence in sin would bring dishonour on the body of Christ to withdraw from that holy feast. The people then fell on their knees; the bread was carried round on large wooden dishes or platters, and every one broke off a morsel for himself; the wine was distributed in wooden drinking cups; the resemblance to the primitive Supper was thought to be the closer. The hearts of those

who celebrated this ordinance were affected with alternate emotions of wonder and joy.*

Such was the progress of the Reformation at Zurich. The simple commemoration of our Lord's death caused a fresh overflow in the Church, of love to God, and love to the brethren. The words of Jesus Christ were once more proved to be 'spirit and life.' Whereas the different orders and sections of the Church of Rome had kept up incessant disputes among themselves, the first effect of the Gospel, on its reappearance in the Church, was the revival of brotherly charity. The *Love* which had glowed so brightly in the first ages of Christianity, was now kindled anew. Men, who had before been at variance, were found renouncing their long-cherished enmity, and cordially embracing each other, after having broken bread together at the table of the Lord. Zwingle rejoiced at these affecting manifestations of grace, and returned thanks to God that the Lord's Supper was again working those miracles of charity, which had long since ceased to be displayed in connexion with the sacrifice of the mass.†

"Our city," said he, "continues at peace. There is no fraud, no dissension, no envy, no wrangling among us. Where shall we discover the cause of this agreement except in the Lord's good pleasure, and the harmlessness and meekness of the doctrine we profess?"‡

Charity and unity were there—but not uniformity. Zwingle, in his "*Commentary on true and false religion*,"§ which he dedicated to Francis the First, in 1525, the year of the battle of Pavia, had stated some truths in a manner that seemed adapted to recommend them to human reason, following in that respect the example of several of the most distinguished among the scholastic theologians. In this way he had attached to original corruption the appellation of a *disease*, reserving the name of *sin* for the actual violation of law.|| But these statements, though they gave rise to some objections, yet occasioned no breach of brotherly charity; for Zwingle, while he persisted in calling original sin a disease, added, by that disease, *all* men were ruined, and that the sole remedy was in Jesus Christ.¶ Here then was no taint of Pelagian error.

But while in Zurich the celebration of the sacrament was followed by the re-establishment of Christian brotherhood, Zwingle and his friends had to sustain a harder struggle than ever against their adversaries without. Zwingle was not only a Christian teacher, he was a true patriot also; and we know how zealously he always opposed the capitulations, and foreign pensions, and alliances. He was persuaded that this extraneous influence was destructive to piety, contributed to the maintenance of error, and was a fruitful source of civil discord. But his courageous protests on this head were destined to impede the progress of the Reformation. In almost every canton, the leading men, who received the foreign pensions, and the officers under whose command the youth of Switzer-

* Mit grossen verwundern vieler Lütthen und noch mit vil grössern freuden der glöubigen. (Bull. Chr. p. 264.)

† Expositio fidei. (Zw. Opp. ii. p. 241.)

‡ Ut tranquillitatis et innocentie studiosos reddat. (Zw. Opp. p. 390.)

§ De verâ et falsâ religione commentarius. Zw. Opp. iii. p. 145, 325.)

|| Peccatum ergo morbus est cognatus nobis, quo fugimus aspera et gravia, sectamur jucunda et voluptuosa; secundo loco accipitur peccatum pro eo quod contra legem fit. (Ibid. p. 204.)

¶ Originali morbo perdimur omnes; remedio verò quod contra ipsum invenit Deus, incolumitati restituimur. (De peccato originali declaratio ad Urbanum Rhægium.) (Ibid. p. 632.)

* Ater fuerit albes nihil memini, somnium enim narro.

† Fusella Beytr. iv. p. 64.

land were led out to battle, were knit together in powerful factions and oligarchies, which attacked the Reformation, not so much in the spirit of religious animosity, as in the belief that its success would be detrimental to their own pecuniary and political interests. They had already gained a triumph in Schwitz, and that canton, in which Zwingle, Leo Juda, and Oswald Myconius had preached the truth, and which seemed disposed to follow the example of Zurich, had, on a sudden, renewed the mercenary capitulations, and closed the door against the Gospel.

In Zurich itself, a few worthless persons, instigated to mischief by foreign agency, made an attack upon Zwingle, in the middle of the night, throwing stones at his house, breaking the windows, and calling aloud for "red haired Uli, the vulture of Glaris," so that Zwingle started from his sleep, and caught up his sword.* The action is characteristic of the man.

But these desultory assaults could not counteract the impulse by which Zurich was carried onward, and which was beginning to vibrate throughout the whole of Switzerland. They were like pebbles thrown to check the course of a torrent. The waters of the torrent meanwhile were swelling, and the mightiest of its obstacles were likely soon to be swept away.

The people of Berne having intimated to the citizens of Zurich, that several of the cantons had refused to sit with them any longer in the Diet:—"Well," replied the men of Zurich, with calm dignity, raising (as in times past the men of Rutli had done) their hands, toward heaven, "we are persuaded that God the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, in whose name the Confederation has been formed, will not forsake us, and will, at last, in his mercy, make us to sit at the right-hand of His majesty."†

With such a faithful spirit, there was nothing to fear for the Reformation. But would it make similar progress in the other states of the Confederation? Might not Zurich be single on the side of the word of God? Berne, Basle, and other cantons, would they remain in their subjection to Rome? It is this we are now to see. Let us then turn toward Berne, and contemplate the march of the Reformation in the most influential of the confederated states.

Nowhere was the contest likely to be so sharp as at Berne, for the Gospel had there both powerful friends and determined opponents. At the head of the reforming party was the banneret John Weingarten, Bartholomew May, member of the lesser Council, his sons, Wolfgang and Claudius, his grand-sons, James and Benedict, and, above all, the family of the Wattevelles. James Watteville, the magistrate, who, since 1512, had presided over the republic, had read the writings of Luther and Zwingle, at the time of their publication, and had often conversed concerning the Gospel with John Haller, pastor at Anseltingen, whom he had protected from his persecutors.

His son, Nicholas, then thirty-one years of age, had, for two years, filled the office of provost in the church of Berne; and, as such, by virtue of papal ordinances, enjoyed distinguished privileges; so that, Berthold Haller, in speaking of him, would call him "our Bishop."‡

The prelates and the Pope used every effort to bind him to the interests of Rome,§ and the circumstances in which he was placed, seemed likely to keep him from the knowledge of the Gospel; but the workings

of God's Spirit were more powerful than the flatteries of man. "Watteville," says Zwingle,* "was turned from darkness to the sweet light of the Gospel." As the friend of Berthold Haller, he was accustomed to read the letters which he received from Zwingle, for whom he expressed the highest admiration.†

It was natural to suppose that the influence of the two Wattevelles, the one being at the head of the state, and the other of the church, would draw after it the republic over which they presided. But the opposite party was scarcely less powerful.

Among its chiefs were the schultheiss of Erlach, the banneret, Willading, and many persons of high family, whose interests were identified with those of the convent placed under their administration. Backing these influential leaders was an ignorant and corrupted clergy, who went the length of calling Gospel truth, "an invention of hell." "Beloved colleagues," said the counsellor of Mullinen, at a full conference, held in the month of July, "be on your guard, lest this Reformation should creep in upon us. There is no safety at Zurich in one's own house: people are obliged to have soldiers to guard them." In consequence, they invited to Berne the lecturer of the Dominicans at Mentz, John Heim, who, taking his stand in the pulpit, poured forth all the eloquence of St. Thomas Aquinas against the Reformation.‡

Thus, then, the two parties were in presence of each other; a struggle seemed inevitable, but already there were indications with whom the victory would remain. In fact, a common faith united a part of the people to those distinguished families who espoused the Reformation. Berthold Haller exclaimed, full of confidence in the future, "Unless, indeed, the wrath of God should show itself against us, it is not possible that the word of the Lord should be banished from the city, for the Bernese are hungering after it."§

Two acts of the government soon appeared to incline the balance in favour of the new opinions. The Bishop of Lausanne had given notice of an episcopal visitation; the Council sent a message to him by the provost, Watteville, desiring him to abstain from it.¶ And, in the mean time, the government put forth an ordinance, which, while in appearance it left the enemies of the truth in possession of some of their advantages, at the same time sanctioned the principles on which the Reformation was founded. They directed that the ministers should preach, clear of all additions—freely and openly—the Gospel and the doctrine of God, as it is found in the books of the Old and New Testaments; and that they should not allude to any doctrine, disputation, or writing coming from Luther or other teachers.¶

Great was the surprise of the enemies of the truth, when they saw the ministers of the Gospel appealing with confidence to this decree. This ordinance, which was to furnish the ground for all those that succeeded, was, legally speaking, the commencement of the Reformation at Berne. From that time, there was more decision in the progress of this canton; and Zwingle, who attentively observed all that was passing in Switzerland, was able to write to the provost de Watteville, "Christians are all exulting on account of the faith which the pious city of Berne has just received."**

* Ex obscuris ignorantie tenebris in amenam Evangelii lucem productum. (Zw. Opp. i. ed. lat. p. 305.)

† Epistolæ tuæ et eruditiois et humanitatis testes locupletissimas. (Zw. Opp. p. 237.)

‡ Suo Thomastico Marte omnia invertere. (Ibid.)

§ Famen verbi Bernates habent. (Zw. Opp. p. 295.)

¶ Ut nec oppidum, nec pagos Bernatum visitare prætentet omnino. (Ibid.)

¶ Aleim das heilig Evangelium und die leer Gottes frey, öffentlich und unverborgen. (Bull. Chr. p. 111.)

** Alle Christen sich allenthalben fröwend des Glaubens. (Zw. Opp. i. p. 426.)

* Interea surgero Zuinglius ad ensem suum. (Zw. Opp. iii. p. 411.)

† Bey ihm zuletzt sitzen. (Kirchhofer. Ref. v. Bern. p. 55.)

‡ Episcopus noster *Vadivillius*. (Zw. Opp. p. 285.)

§ Tantum favoris et amicitie quæ tibi cum tanto summorum pontificum et potentissimorum episcoporum cœtu hactenus intercessit. (Zw. Opp. i. ed. lat. p. 305.)

"The cause is that of Christ," exclaimed the friends of the Gospel, and they exerted themselves to advance it with increased confidence.* The enemies of the Reformation, alarmed at these first advantages, closed their ranks, and resolved on striking a blow which should ensure victory on their side. They conceived the project of getting rid of those ministers whose bold preaching was turning all the ancient customs upside down; and a favourable occasion was not long wanting. There was, at Berne, in the place where now stands the hospital de l'île, a convent of nuns of the Dominican order, consecrated to St. Michael. St. Michael's day, (29th of September,) was always a solemn festival to the inmates of the nunnery. On this anniversary, many of the clergy were present, and, among others, Wittenbach de Bienne, Sebastian Meyer, and Berthold Haller. This latter, having entered into conversation with the nuns, among whom was Clara, the daughter of Claudius May, (one of those who maintained the new doctrines,) he remarked to her, in the presence of her grandmother, "the merits of the monastic state are but imaginary, while marriage is honourable, and instituted by God himself." Some nuns, to whom Clara related this conversation of Berthold, received it with outcries. It was soon rumoured in the city that Haller had asserted that "the nuns were all children of the devil." The opportunity that the enemies of the Reformation had waited for, was now arrived; and they presented themselves before the lesser Council. Referring to an ancient law, which enacted that whosoever should carry off a nun from her convent should lose his head, they proposed that the "sentence should be mitigated" so far as that, without hearing the three accused ministers in their defence, they should be banished for life! The lesser Council granted the petition, and the matter was immediately carried to the grand Council.

Thus, then, Berne was threatened with the loss of her Reformers. The intrigues of the Popish party seemed successful. But Rome, triumphant when she played her game with the higher orders, was beaten when she had to do with the people or their representatives. Hardly were the names of Haller, of Meyer, of Wittenbach—those names held in veneration by all the Swiss—pronounced in the grand Council, before an energetic opposition was manifested against the lesser Council and the clergy. "We cannot," said Tillman, "condemn the accused unheard! . . . Surely their own testimony may be received against that of a few women." The ministers were called up. There seemed no way of settling matters. "Let us admit the statements of both parties," said John Weingarten. They did so, and discharged the accused ministers—at the same time desiring them to confine themselves to the duties of their pulpits, and not to trouble themselves concerning the cloisters. But the pulpit was all they wanted: their accusers had taken nothing by their motion. It was counted a great victory gained by the Reforming party, inasmuch that one of the leading men exclaimed, "It is all over now—Luther's work must go forward."†

And go forward it did—and that in places where it could least have been expected. At Königsfeld, upon the river Aar, near the castle of Hapsburg, stood a monastery adorned with all the magnificence of the middle ages, and in which reposed the ashes of many of that illustrious house which had so often given an emperor to Germany. To this place the noble families of Switzerland and of Suabia used to send their daughters to take the veil. It was in the neighbourhood of

this convent that the Emperor Albert had fallen by the hand of his nephew, John, of Suabia, on the 1st of May, 1308, and the beautiful stained windows of the church at Königsfeld represented the horrible tortures which had been inflicted upon the relations and dependants of the perpetrators of the murder. Catherine, of Waldburg-Truchsess, abbess of the convent at the period of the Reformation, numbered among her nuns, Beatrice Landenberg, sister of the Bishop of Constance, Agnes Mullinen, Catherine Bonstettin, and Margaret Watteville, sister of the provost. The liberty enjoyed in this convent, a liberty which in earlier times had given occasion to scandalous disorders, had favoured the introduction not only of the Bible, but of the writings of Luther and Zwingle; and soon a new spring of life and joy changed the aspect of its interior. Nigh to that cell to which Queen Agnes, daughter of Albert, had retired, after bathing in torrents of blood "as in Maydews;" and where, dividing her time between spinning wool and embroidering tapestry for the church, she had mingled thoughts of vengeance with devotional exercises—Margaret Watteville had only thoughts of peace—read the Scriptures—and found time, in her spare moments, to compound of certain salutary ingredients, an excellent electuary. Retiring to her cell, the youthful nun took courage to write to the Reformer of Switzerland. Her letter discovers to us, better than any reflections could do, the Christian spirit which existed among those pious women—still, even in our days, so much calumniated.

"Grace and peace, in the Lord Jesus Christ, be given and multiplied toward you always, by God our heavenly father," was the language of the nun of Königsfeld to Zwingle: "Very learned, reverend, and most dear sir, I pray you to take in good part this letter which I now address to you. The love of Christ constrains me—especially since I have learned that the doctrines of grace are spreading from day to day through your preaching of the word of God. For this cause I give thanks to the eternal God, for that he has enlightened us anew, and has sent us, by His holy spirit, so many heralds of His blessed word; and at the same time I present before him my earnest prayers, that He will be pleased to clothe with His strength, both you and all those who publish His glad tidings—and that arming you against all enemies of the truth, He will cause His divine word to grow in all men. Most learned sir, I take the liberty of sending to your reverence this little mark of my affection: I pray you do not despise it, for it is an offering of Christian love. If this electuary should be useful to you, and you should wish to have more, pray let me know, for it would be a joy to my heart to do anything that would be agreeable to you. I am writing not my own feelings only, but those of all in our convent of Königsfeld who love the gospel. They salute you in Jesus Christ, and we together cease not to commend you to His Almighty protection.*

"Saturday before *Lactare*, 1523."

Such was the pious letter which the nun of Königsfeld wrote to the Reformer of Switzerland.

A convent into which the light of the gospel had penetrated in such power, could not long continue to adhere to monastic observances. Margaret Watteville, and her sisters, persuaded that they should better serve God in their families than in a cloister, solicited permission to leave it. The council of Berne, in some alarm, took measures to bring the nuns to reason, and the provincial and abbess alternately tried promises and threats, but the sisters, Margaret, Agnes, and Catherine, and their friends, could not be dissuaded. On this, the discipline of the convent was relaxed—the

* Christi negotium agitur. (Zw. Epp. 9th May, 1523.)

† Es ist nun gethan. Der Lutherische Handel muss vorgehen. (Anshelm. Wirtz, K. G. V. p. 290.)

* Cujus presidio auxilioque præsentissimò, nos vestram dignitatem assidue commendamus. (Zw. Epp. p. 290.)

nuns being exempted from fasting and matins, and their allowance increased. "We desire," said they, in reply to the council, "not 'the liberty of the flesh,' but that of the spirit. We, your poor, unoffending prisoners, beseech you to take compassion on us."—"Our prisoners! our prisoners," exclaimed the banneret, Krauchthaler; "I have no wish to detain them prisoners!" This speech, coming from a firm defender of the convents, decided the council. The gates were opened; and a short time afterward Catherine Bonnstetten married William von Diesbach.

Nevertheless Berne, instead of openly taking part with the Reformation, did but hold a middle course, and pursue a system of vacillation. An incident soon occurred which made this apparent. Sebastian Meyer, lecturer of the Franciscans, put forth a recantation of Romish errors, which produced an immense sensation; and, in which, depicting the condition of the inmates of convents, he said, "The living in them is more impure, the falls more frequent, the recoveries more tardy, the habitual walk more unsteady, the moral slumber in them more dangerous, the grace toward offenders more rare, and the cleansing from sin more slow, the death more despairing, and the condemnation more severe."⁷ At the very time when Meyer was thus declaring himself against the cloisters, John Heim, lecturer of the Dominicans, exclaimed from the pulpit, "No! Christ has not, as the evangelicals tell us, made satisfaction *once for all*, to his Father. God must still farther every day be reconciled to men by good works and the sacrifices of the mass." Two burghers who happened to be in the church, interrupted him with the words, "That's not true." The interruption caused a great disturbance in the church; and Heim remained silent. Some pressed him to go on; but he left the pulpit without finishing his sermon. The next day the grand council struck a blow at once against Rome and the Reformation! They banished from the city the two leading controversialists, Meyer and Heim. It was remarked of the Bernese, "They are neither clear nor muddy,"[†]—taking in a double sense the name of Luther, which in old German signified *clear*!

But it was in vain to attempt to smother the Reformation.

* Langsamer gereinigt, verzweifelter stirbt, harter verdammet. (Kirchhofer Reform. v. Bern. p. 43.)

† Dass sie weder Luther noch trüb seyen. (Ibid. p. 50.)

‡ Romish writers, and particularly M. de Haller, have mentioned, following Salat and Tschudi, enemies of the Reformation, a pretended letter of Zwingle, addressed, at this juncture, to Kolb, at Berne. It is as follows: "Health and blessing from God our Saviour. Dear Francis, move gently in the matter. At first, only throw one sour pear to the bear, among a great many sweet ones; afterward two, then three; and as soon as he begins to eat them, throw more and more—sweet and bitter, all together. Empty the sack entirely. Soft, hard, sweet, bitter, he will eat them all, and will no longer allow either that they be taken, or be driven away. Zurich, Monday before St. George, 1525.—"

"Your servant in Christ, ULRICH ZWINGLE."

We can oppose convincing arguments against the authenticity of this letter. First: 1525, Kolb, was pastor at Wertheim. He did not come to Berne until 1527—(See Zw. Epp. 526.) M. de Haller substitutes, indeed, but quite arbitrarily, 1527 for 1525. This correction, doubtless, *had its object*; but, unfortunately, in making it, M. de Haller puts himself in direct contradiction of Salat and Tschudi, who, though they do not agree as to the day on which this letter was mentioned in the diet, agree as to the year, which, with both is clearly 1525. Secondly: There is no agreement as to the way in which the letter itself got abroad. According to one account, it was intercepted; and another version tells us that Kolb's parishioners communicated it to an inhabitant of the small cantons, who happened to be at Berne. Thirdly: The original is in German. Now Zwingle wrote always in Latin to his friends who could understand that language: moreover, he used to salute them as *brother*, and not as *servant*. Fourthly: In reading Zwingle's correspondence, it is impossible not to perceive that his style is quite different from that of the pretended letter. Zwingle never would have written a letter to say so little. His letters, in general, are long and full of news. To call the little jeu d'esprit picked up by Salat a letter, is but

matiation at Berne. It made progress on all sides. The nuns of the convent de l'Île had not forgotten Haller's visit. Clara May, and many of her friends, pressed in their consciences to know what to do, wrote to the learned Henry Bullinger. In answer he said, "Saint Paul enjoins young women not to take upon them vows, but to marry, instead of living in idleness, under a false show of piety. (1 Tim. v. 13, 14.) Follow Jesus in humility, charity, patience, purity and kindness."* Clara, looking to heaven for guidance, resolved to act on the advice, and renounce a manner of life at variance with the word of God—of man's invention—and beset with snares. Her grandfather, Bartholomew, who had served for fifty years in the field and the council hall, heard with joy of the resolution she had formed. Clara quitted the convent.

The provost, Nicholas Watteville, connected by strong ties of interest to the Roman hierarchy, and who was to have been nominated to the first vacant bishopric in Switzerland, also gave up his titles, revenues, and expectations, that he might keep a clear conscience; and, breaking through all the entanglements in which the popes had sought to bind him, he too entered into that state which had been, from the beginning, instituted by God. Nicholas Watteville took to wife Clara May; and his sister, Margaret, the nun of Königsfeld, was, about the same time, united to Lucius Tscherner, of Coira.†

Everything gave intimation of the victory which the Reformation would soon obtain at Berne. A city not less important, and which then ranked as the Athens of Switzerland—Basle, was also beginning to take part in memorable struggle of the sixteenth century.

Each of the cities of the confederation had its own peculiar character. Berne was distinguished as the place of residence of the chief families; and the question was one that seemed likely to be decided by the part taken by certain of the leading nobles. At Zurich, the ministers of the Word, such men as Zwingle, Leo Juda, Myconius, and Schmidt, exercised a commanding influence over a powerful middle class of society. Lucerne was the city of arms—a centre of military organization. Basle was the seat of learning, and its accompaniment—printing-presses. Erasmus, the acknowledged head of the republic of letters in the sixteenth century, had there fixed his residence, and preferring the liberty it afforded him to the flattering invitations of popes and kings, he had become a centre of attraction to a concourse of men of learning.

However, a man inferior to Erasmus in natural genius, but humble, gentle, and pious, was, ere long, to exercise, in that very city, an influence more powerful than that possessed by this prince of scholars. Christopher von Utenheim, Bishop of Basle, who agreed in judgment with Erasmus, sought to surround himself with men disposed to co-operate in a sort of half-way Reformation. With this view he had called to his aid Capito and Ecolampadius. The latter had a something savouring of monkery in his habit of mind, and this often clashed with the views of the philosopher. Ecolampadius, however, on his part, soon became enthusiastically attached to Erasmus; and it is probable trifling. Fifthly: Salat deserves but little confidence as an historian; and Tschudi appears to have copied him, with a few variations. Possibly a man of the small cantons may have had communication from some inhabitant of Berne, of the latter from Zwingle to Haller, which we have before mentioned, (see vol. ii.) wherein Zwingle employs, with a good deal of dignity, the comparison of the bears, which is found in all author's of that age. This may have given the idea to some wit to invent this letter which has been supposed to have passed from Zwingle to Kolb.

* Euerem Herrn Jesu nachfolget in Demuth. (Kirchh. Ref. v. B. 60.)

† Zw. Epp. annotatio, p. 451. It is from this union that the Tscherners of Berne, derive their descent.

he would have lost all independence of mind in this intimacy, if Providence had not separated him from his idol. He returned in 1517, to his native city, Weinsberg. Here he was disgusted with the disorders and the profanity which prevailed among the priests; and he has left a noble record of the serious spirit which, from that time actuated him in his work entitled "The Humours of Easter," which appears to have been written about this period.*

Called to Augsburg, towards the end of 1518, to fill the post of preacher in its cathedral, he found that city still under the effects of the memorable discussion which had been held there, in the previous May, between Luther and the pope's legate. It was necessary that he should choose his side, and Æcolampadius did not hesitate to declare himself on the side of the Reformer. Such candor on his part soon drew down upon him much opposition, and being convinced that his natural timidity, and the feebleness of his voice, rendered it impossible for him to succeed in public, he looked around him for a place of retreat, and his thoughts rested on a convent of monks of Saint Bridget, near Augsburg, renowned for the piety, as well as for the profound and liberal studies, of its monks. Feeling the need of repose, of leisure, and, at the same time, of quiet occupation and prayer, he addressed himself to this community, and inquired, "Can I live in your convent according to the word of God?" The answer being in the affirmative, Æcolampadius entered its gates on the 23d April, 1520, having expressly stipulated that he should be free, if ever the ministry of the word of God should require his service elsewhere.

It was well that the Reformer of Basle should, like Luther, become acquainted with that monastic life, which presented the fullest exhibition of the working of Roman Catholicism. But *rest* was what he could not find there; his friends blamed the step; and he himself declared, frankly, that Luther was nearer to the truth than his adversaries. No wonder, therefore, that Eck and other Romish doctors pursued him with menaces even in this his quiet retreat.

At the time we are recording, Æcolampadius was neither one of the reformed, nor yet a blind follower of Rome; what he most desired, was a sort of purified Catholicism, which is nowhere to be found in history—but the idea of which has, to many, served as a bridge of passage to better things. He set himself to correct, by reference to the word of God, the statutes of his order. "I conjure you," said he, to the confraternity, "not to think more highly of your statutes, than of the ordinances and commandments of the Lord." "We have no wish," replied his brethren, "for other rules than those of the Saviour. Take our books, and mark, as in the presence of Christ himself, whatever you find therein contrary to his word. Æcolampadius began the task imposed; but he was almost wearied by it. "O Almighty God!" he exclaimed, "what abominations has not Rome sanctioned in these statutes."

Hardly had he pointed out some of them, when the anger of the fraternity was aroused: "Thou heretic, thou apostate," was their cry, "thou deservest to be thrown into a lonesome dungeon for the rest of thy days." They would not allow him to come to prayers. Meanwhile, outside the walls, still greater danger awaited him.—Eck, and his party had not relinquished their schemes. "In three days," it was told him, "they will be here to arrest you." "Do you intend," asked he, "to deliver me up to assassins?" The monks were silent and irresolute . . . ; neither willing to save him, nor yet to give him up. At this juncture, some friends of Æcolampadius approached the convent, bringing with

them horses to conduct him to a place of safety. At the news, the monks decided to allow the departure of one who had brought the seeds of trouble into their convent. "Farewell," said he. Behold him at liberty!

He had remained nearly two years in the convent of Saint Bridget.

Æcolampadius was saved—he began to breathe. "I have sacrificed the monk," said he, writing to a friend, "and have regained the Christians." But his flight from the convent and his heretical writings, were everywhere proclaimed. People on all sides drew back at his approach. He knew not which way to turn, when Sickingen offered him an asylum. This was in the spring of the year 1522. He accepted it.

His mind, oppressed during his confinement within the monastery, recovered its elasticity among the noble warriors of Ebernburg. "Christ is our liberty!" burst from his lips, "and that which men consider as their greatest misfortune—death itself—is for us a real gain." He directly commenced reading to the people the Gospels and Epistles in German. "No sooner will these trumpets sound abroad," said he, "than the walls of Jericho will crumble to the ground."

Thus the most humble man of his time was preparing, in a ~~fortress~~ on the banks of the Rhine, in the midst of unpolished warriors, for that change of worship which Christianity was shortly to undergo. Nevertheless, Ebernburg was not a field large enough for his plans; beside, he felt the need of other society than such as he was in the midst of. Cratander, the bookseller, invited him to take up his abode at Basle; Sickingen offered no impediment; and Æcolampadius, glad at the thought of seeing his old friends, arrived there on the 16th of November, 1522. After having lived there some time, simply as a man of learning, without any public vocation, he was nominated vicar of the church of St. Martin, and his acceptance of this humble engagement* perhaps decided the Reformation at Basle: Whenever Æcolampadius was to preach, a great crowd filled the church.† At the same time, the public lectures given by him, and by Pellican, were crowned with so much success, that Erasmus himself felt constrained to exclaim, "Æcolampadius triumphs!"‡

"In fact, this gentle and firm man," says Zwingle, "diffused all around him, the sweet savour of Christ; and all who assembled about him grew in the truth."§ Often a report prevailed that he was on the point of being obliged to quit Basle, and begin again his hazardous flights. On these occasions his friends—and above all Zwingle—would be in consternation; but then came tidings of fresh advantages gained by Æcolampadius, dissipating their fears, and raising their hopes. The renown of his labours spread even to Wittenberg, and rejoiced Luther, who would often talk with Melancthon concerning him. But the Saxon Reformer was not without anxiety on his account. Erasmus was at Basle—and Erasmus was the friend of Æcolampadius . . . Luther thought it his duty to put one whom he loved on his guard. "I fear much," wrote he, "that, like Moses, Erasmus will die in the country of Moab, and never lead us into the land of promise."||

Erasmus had retired to Basle, as to a quiet city, situated in the centre of the intellectual activity of the age—from whence, by means of the printing-press of Frobenius, he could act upon France, Germany, Swit-

* *Meis sumptibus non sine contemptu et invidia.* (Æcol. ad Pirekh. de Eucharistia.)

† *Dass er kein Predigt that, er hatte ein mächtig Volk darinn—says Peter Ryf, his contemporary.* (Wirtz. v. 360.)

‡ *Æcolampadius apud nos triumphat.* Eras. ad Zwingle. (Zw. Epp. p. 312.)

§ *illi magis ac magis in omni bono augebant.* (Eras. ad Zwingle. Zw. Epp. p. 312.)

|| *Et in terram promissionis ducere non potest.* (L. Epp. p. 363.)

* Herzog. Studien und Kritiken, 1840. p. 334.

zerland, Italy, and England. But he liked not to be interfered with; and if the neighbourhood of Ecolampadius was not entirely agreeable to him, another man there was whose presence inspired him with still more apprehension. Ulrich Hutten had followed Ecolampadius to Basle. For some time he had been attacking the Pope, as one knight tilts with another. "The axe," said he, "is already laid at the root of the tree. Faint not, my countrymen, in the heat of the battle; the lot is cast; the charge is begun . . . Hurrah for liberty!" He laid aside the Latin, and now wrote only in German; as his object was to get at the hearts of the people.

His views were grand and generous. According to his plan, there was to be a yearly meeting of bishops, to regulate the interests of the church. Christian institutions, and, above all, a Christian spirit, was to go forth from Germany, as formerly from Judea, and spread through the whole world. Charles V. was the young hero destined to realize this golden age; but Hutten's hopes having been blasted in that quarter, he turned toward Sickingen, and sought from knighthood that which the Imperial authority refused him.

Sickingen, as a leading chieftain, had acted a distinguished part in Germany; but soon after the nobles had besieged him in the castle of Landstein, and the ancient walls of that fortress had yielded to the strange power of cannon and musketry—then only recently invented. The taking of Landstein had been the final defeat of the power of the knights—the triumph of the art of modern warfare over that of the middle ages. Thus, the last exploits of the knights had been on the side of the Reformation, while the earliest use of the newly-invented engines was against it. The steel-clad warriors, whose bodies fell beneath the unlooked-for storm of balls, made way for other soldiery. Other conflicts were opening. A spiritual knighthood was taking the place of the Du Guesclins and Bayards; and those battered ramparts, broken walls, and expiring warriors, told, more plainly than Luther had been able to do, that it was not by such allies or such weapons that the Gospel of the Prince of Peace was destined to prevail.

The hopes of Hutten had died with the fall of Landstein, and the ruin of the power of the knights. As he stood by the corpse of his friend, Sickingen, he bade adieu to his dream of brighter days to come, and losing all confidence in men, he sought only for retirement and repose. In quest of these, he visited Erasmus in Switzerland. An early friendship had subsisted between them; but the rough and overbearing knight regardless of the opinions of others, quick to grasp the sword, and dealing his blows on all sides, wherever he came, could scarcely be expected to 'walk together' with the fastidious and timid Erasmus, with all his refinement, politeness, love of praise, his readiness to sacrifice all for the sake of it, and his fear, above all, of controversy.

On his arrival at Basle, Hutten, poor, suffering in bodily health, and a fugitive, immediately sought out his old friend. But Erasmus shrunk from the thought of receiving at his table a man who was placed under ban by the Pope and the Emperor, a man who,* in his conversation, would spare no one, and beside borrowing money of him, would no doubt be followed by others of the "Gospel party," whom Erasmus dreaded more and more. He declined to see him, and the magistrates of Basle desired Hutten to leave the city. Wounded to the quick, and irritated by the timid pru-

* Ille egens et omnibus rebus destitutus quærebat nidum aliquem ubi moveretur. Erat mihi gloriosus ille miles cum sua scabie in ædes recipiendus. simulque recipiendus, ille choro-rustitulo *Evangelicorum*, writes Erasmus to Melancthon in a letter in which he seeks to excuse himself. (Er. Epp. p. 949.)

dence of his friend, Hutten repaired to Mulhausen, and there circulated a violent diatribe against Erasmus,—to which the latter put forth a reply replete with talent. The knight had, as it were, with both hands, seized his sword, and felled his adversary to the earth; the philosopher, recovering his feet, had replied to the strokes of his adversary by peckings with his beak.*

Hutten was again compelled to fight. He reached Zurich, and there found a kind reception at the hospitable hearth of Zwingle. Intrigues again obliged him to quit that city; and, after passing some time at the baths of Pffeffer, he repaired, provided with a letter from the Swiss Reformer, to the pastor, John Schnapp, who resided in the little island of Uffhan, on the lake of Zurich. That humble minister of God's word received the sick and homeless knight with the tenderest charity. And in that tranquil and unknown seclusion, Ulrich Hutten, one of the most remarkable men of his age, expired about the end of August, after an agitated life, in the course of which he had been expelled by one party, persecuted by another, and deserted by nearly all; having all his life contended against superstition, without, as it would seem, ever arriving at the knowledge of the truth. The poor minister, who had gained some experience in the healing art, had bestowed upon him the utmost attention. He left behind him neither money, nor furniture, nor books, nothing save his pen.† So broken was the steel-clad arm that he had dared to put forward to support the ark of God.

But there was one man in Germany more formidable in the eyes of Erasmus than the ill-fated knight, and that man was Luther. The time had come when the two great combatants of the age were to measure their strength in the lists. They were the leaders of two very different reformations. Whilst Luther was bent on a complete reformation, Erasmus, as the advocate of a middle course, was seeking certain concessions from the hierarchy, that might have the effect of conciliating the opposing parties. Luther was disgusted with the vacillation and inconsistency of Erasmus. "You are trying to walk on eggs without breaking them," said he.‡

At the same time, he met those vacillations of Erasmus, with the most entire and unfaltering decision. "We Christians," said he, "ought to be well persuaded of what we teach, and to be able to say *yes* and *no*. To object to our affirming with full conviction what we believe, is to strip us of our faith itself. The Holy Spirit is no spirit of doubt.§ And he has written in our hearts a firm and peaceful assurance, which makes us as sure of the object of faith as we are of our existence."

These words suffice to show on which side strength was to be found. To effect a change in religion, there is need of firm and living faith. A salutary revolution in the Church is never to be derived from philosophic views and thoughts of man. To restore fertility to the earth after a long drought, the lightning must strike the cloud, and the windows of heaven must be opened. Critical acuteness, philosophy, and even history, may prepare the ground for a true faith, but never can they fill its place. Vainly would you cleanse the aqueduct or build up your embankments, so long as the rain cometh not down from heaven. The learning of man without faith is but as the dry channel.

Much and essentially as Luther and Erasmus differed one from the other, a hope was long cherished by Luther's friends, and even by himself, that both would

* *Expostulatio Hutteni.*—*Erasmi spongia.*

† *Libros nullo habuit, supellectilem nullam, præter calaminum.* (Zw. Epp. p. 313.)

‡ *Auf Eyern gehen und keines zutreten.* (L. Opp. xix. p. 11.)

§ *Der heilige Geist ist kein Scepticus.* (Ibid. p. 8.)

one day be united in resistance of Rome. Expressions dropt, in his caustic humour, were commonly reported, which showed the philosopher dissenting, in his opinion, from the most devoted adherents of Catholicism. For instance, it is related, that, when in England, he was one day in earnest conversation with Thomas More, on the subject of transubstantiation. "Only believe," said More, "that you receive the body of Christ, and you really have it." Erasmus was silent. Shortly after this, when Erasmus was leaving England, More lent him a horse to convey him to the port where he was to embark; but Erasmus took it abroad with him. When More heard of it, he reproached him with much warmth, but the only answer Erasmus gave him, was in the following quatrain:—*

"Only believe thou sharest Christ's feast, say you,
And never doubt the fact is therefore true:
So write I of thy horse;—if thou art able
But to believe it, he is in thy stable."

Erasmus's sentiments having got wind, not only in Germany and England, but in other countries, it was said at Paris, that "Luther wanted to force open the door, of which Erasmus had already picked the lock."†

The position taken by Erasmus was a difficult one. "I will not be unfaithful to the cause of Christ," wrote he to Zwingle, "at least so far as the times will allow."‡ Just in proportion as he saw Rome rising up against the favourers of the Reformation, he prudently drew back from them. All parties looked to him. Pope, emperor, kings, nobles, men of learning, and even his most intimate friends, entreated him to take up his pen against the Reformer.¶ You cannot possibly undertake a work more acceptable to God, and more worthy of your genius," wrote the Pope.¶

Erasmus for a long time held out against these solicitations. He could not conceal himself that the cause of the Reformation was that of religion as well as of learning. Moreover, Luther was an adversary he dreaded to find himself opposed to. "It is an easy thing for you to say, Write against Luther," said he to a Romish divine, "but the matter is full of hazard."*** He knew not which way to move.

This hesitation on the part of Erasmus drew upon him the most violent of both parties. Luther himself scarcely knew how to make his respect for Erasmus's learning consist with the indignation his timid policy awakened in him. He resolved to break through the painful restraint he had hitherto imposed on himself, and wrote to him, in April, 1524, a letter, which he commissioned Camerarius to deliver to him.

"You have not yet received from the Lord the courage requisite for marching side by side with us against the Papists. We bear with your weakness. If learning prospers, and if, by its means, the treasury of Scripture is unlocked to all comers, it is a gift which God has given us by you—a noble gift, for which our praise ascends to heaven. But do not desert the post assigned you, to take up your quarters in our camp. No doubt your eloquence and genius might be useful to

* There is surely profanity as well as levity in this. May the reader be preserved from any sympathy with such a way of dealing with a belief which, right or wrong, is reverential.—Ta.

† "Quod mihi dixisti nuper de corpore Christi:
Crede quod habes et habes;
Hoc tibi rescribo tantum de tuo caballō:
Crede quod habes et habes."

(Paravicini, Singularia, p. 71.)

‡ Histoire Cathol. denoté temps, par S. Fontaine de l'ordre de St. Francois, Paris, 1562.

§ Quantum hoc seculum patitur. (Zw. Epp. p. 221.)

¶ A Pontifice, a Cæsare, a regibus et principibus, a doctissimis etiam et carissimis amicis huc provocor. (Erasm. Zw. Epp. p. 308.)

¶ Nulla te et ingenio, eruditione, eloquentiaque tua dignior tesse potest. (Adrianus Papa, Epp. Er. p. 1202.)

** Res est periculi plena. (Er. Epp. p. 769.)

us; but, since your courage fails you, remain where you are. If I could have my will, those who are acting with me should leave your old age in peace, to fall asleep in the Lord. The greatness of our cause has long ago surpassed your strength. But then, dear Erasmus, cease, I pray you, to scatter, with open hands, the biting satire you are so skilled to clothe in flowery rhetoric, for the slightest stroke of your pen inflicts more pain than the being ground to powder by all the Papists put together. Be satisfied to be a spectator of our tragedy: * only abstain from writing against me, and I will not attack you."

Here we see Luther, whose spirit breathed the breath of conflict, asking for peace and amity! Erasmus, the man of peace, broke it.

This communication of the Reformer was received by Erasmus as the keenest of insults, and if he had not previously resolved on publishing against Luther, it is probable that resolution was then taken. "Perhaps," was his reply, "perhaps Erasmus will better serve the Gospel by writing against you, than certain senseless writers on your own side, whose doctrines do not allow me to be any longer a mere spectator of the tragedy."

But other motives were not wanting. Henry VIII., and the leading nobility of England, pressed him to declare himself openly against the Reformation, and Erasmus, in a moment of more than usual boldness, gave a promise to that effect. His questionable position had, besides, become a source of continual trouble to him; he loved ease, and the necessity he was continually brought under of vindicating his conduct, was a constant disturbance. He loved the praise of men, and he heard himself charged with fearing Luther, and being unable to answer him—he clung to the uppermost seat—and the plain monk of Wittenberg had dethroned the powerful Erasmus from his pre-eminence. It was his aim, by a bold step, to regain the place he had lost. The established Christianity of his age, with one voice, invited him to the attempt. A man of large capacity, and of the highest reputation in that age, was wanted to oppose to the Reformation. Erasmus gave himself to the work.

But with what weapons will he arm for the encounter? Will he call forth the former thunders of the Vatican? Will he undertake the vindication of the corruptions which are the disgrace of the Papacy? Erasmus could not act such a part. The grand movement which then swelled all hearts, after the death-like stupor of so many centuries, filled him with joy, and he would have shrunk from shackling its progress. Unable to be the champion of Roman Catholicism in that which it has added to Christianity, he undertook the defence of it in the particulars wherein it has taken away from it. Erasmus chose, for the ground of his attack upon Luther, that point wherein Catholicism makes common cause with Rationalism, the doctrine of Free Will, or the power of man by nature. Accordingly, although undertaking thus to defend the Church, Erasmus was also gratifying the men of this world; and, although fighting the battle on behalf of the Pope, he was also contending on the side of the philosophic party. It has been said that he acted injudiciously in thus restricting himself to an intricate and unprofitable question.† Luther,—the Reformers generally,—and indeed, that age were of a different opinion; and we agree with them. I must

* Spactator tantum sis tragediæ nostræ. (L. Epp. ii. p. 501.)

† Quidam stolidi scribentes pro te. (Unschuldige Nachricht, p. 545.)

‡ "It is humbling to mankind," says M. Nisard—see Revue des deux mondes, iii. p. 411—"to contemplate men capable of grasping eternal truths, fencing and debating in such trivialities, like gladiators fighting with flies."

acknowledge, said Luther, "that, in this great controversy, you alone have taken the bull by the horns. I thank you with all my heart, for I prefer to be occupied with that theme rather than such secondary questions as pope, purgatory, and indulgences, with which the enemies of the Gospel have hitherto dogged my steps."*

His own experience, and the attentive study of the Holy Scriptures, and of St. Augustine, had convinced Luther that the powers of man's nature are so strongly inclined to evil, that, in his own strength, he can attain no more than an outward decency, of no value or sufficiency in the sight of God. He had, at the same time, recognised that it was God, who, by his Holy Spirit, bestowing freely on man the gift of 'faith' communicated to him a real righteousness. This doctrine had become the vital principle of his religion, the predominant tenet of his theology, and the pivot on which the entire Reformation turned.

Whilst Luther maintained that everything good in man came down from God, Erasmus sided with those who thought that this good came out from man himself. God or man—good or evil—these are no unimportant themes; and if there is '*triviality*,' it is assuredly not in such solemn questions.

It was in the autumn of 1524, that Erasmus published his famous tract, entitled "Diatribe on the Freedom of the Will," and as soon as it saw the light, the philosopher could hardly credit his own boldness. With his eyes rivetted on the arena, he watched, with trembling, the gauntlet he had flung to his adversary. "The die is cast," he wrote to Henry VIII., with emotion; "the book on *free will* is published. I have done a bold thing, believe me. I expect nothing less than to be stoned for it. But I take comfort from your majesty's example, whom the rage of these people has not spared."†

His alarm soon increased to such a degree, that he bitterly lamented the step he had taken "Why," he ejaculated, "why was I not permitted to grow old in the mount of the Muses! Here am I, at sixty years of age, forcibly thrust forward into the arena, and I am throwing the cestus and the net, instead of handling the lyre! I am aware," said he to the Bishop of Rochester, "that in writing upon free will, I was going out of my sphere; you congratulate me on my triumphs. Ah! I do not know over whom. The faction (the Reformation) gathers strength daily.‡ Was it then my fate, at my time of life, to pass from my place as a friend of the Muses, to that of a miserable gladiator?"

Doubtless it was no small matter for the timid Erasmus to have stood forth against Luther; nevertheless, he had not spoken out with any extraordinary boldness. He seems, in his book, to ascribe but little to man's will, and to leave to Grace the greater part of the work; but then he chooses his arguments so as to make it seem as if man did every thing, and God nothing. Not daring openly to express his opinions, he seems to affirm one thing, and to prove another; so that one may be allowed to suppose that he believed what he proved, not what he asserted.

He distinguishes three several sentiments opposed to different degrees of Pelagianism; "Some think," said he, "that man can neither will, nor begin, still less perform any thing good, without the special and constant aid of Divine grace; and this opinion seems probable enough. Others teach that the will of man has

no power but for evil, and that it is grace alone that works any good in us; and, lastly, there are some who assert that there never has been any free will, either in angels, or in Adam, or in us, whether before or after grace received; but that God works in man whether it be good or evil, and that everything that happens, happens from an absolute necessity,"*

Erasmus, whilst seeming to admit the first of these opinions, uses arguments that are opposed to it, and which might be employed by the most determined Pelagian. It is thus that, quoting the passages of Scripture, in which God offers to man the choice between good and evil, he adds: "Man then must needs have a power to will and to choose! for it would be folly to say to any one, Choose! were it not in his power to do so!"

Luther feared nothing from Erasmus: "Truth," said he, "is more powerful than words. The victory will remain with him who, with stammering lips, shall teach the truth, and not to him who eloquently puts forward a lie."† But when he received Erasmus' book, in the month of October, 1524, he considered it to be so feebly argued, that he hesitated whether to answer it. "What!" he exclaimed, "all this eloquence in so bad a cause! It is as if a man should serve up mud on gold and silver dishes.‡ One cannot get any hold upon you. You are like an eel that slips through one's fingers; or, like the fabled Proteus, who changes his form when in the very arms of him who would strangle him."

Luther making no reply, the monks and theologians of the schools broke forth in exultation: "Well, where is your Luther now! Where is the great Macabæus! Let him enter the lists! let him come forward! Ah! ah! he has at last found his match! He has had a lesson to keep in the back ground! he learnt to be silent."§

Luther saw that he must answer Erasmus; but it was not till the end of the year 1525 that he prepared to do so; and Melancthon having told Erasmus that Luther would write with moderation, the philosopher was greatly alarmed. "If I write with moderation," said he, it is my natural character; but there is in Luther's character the indignation of the son of Peleus. And how can it be otherwise! The vessel that braves such a storm as that which rages round Luther, needs anchor, ballast, and rudder, to keep it from bearing down out of its course—If therefore he should answer more temperately than suit his character—the sycophants will exclaim that we understand one another."—We shall see that Erasmus was soon relieved from this last fear.

The doctrine of God's election, as the sole cause of man's salvation, had long been dear to the Reformer:—but hitherto he had only considered its practical influence. In his answer to Erasmus he investigated it especially in a speculative point of view, and laboured to establish, by such arguments as seemed to him most conclusive, that God works everything in man's conversion, and that our heart is so alienated from the love of God, that it can only have a sincere desire after righteousness by the regenerating action of the Holy Spirit.

"To call our will a Free will," said he, "is to imitate those princes who accumulate long titles, styling themselves sovereigns of this or that kingdom, principality, and distant island, (of Rhodes, Cyprus, and Jerusa-

* L. Opp. xix. p. 146.

† Jacta est alea . . . audax, mihi crede, facinus . . . expecto lapidationem. (Er. Epp. p. 811.)

‡ Quomodo triumphans nescio . . . Factio crescit in dies latius. (Ibid. p. 809.)

* De libero arbitrio. (Erasmii Opp. ix. p. 1215. sq.)

† Victoria est penes balbutientem veritatem, non apud mendacem eloquentiam. (L. Opp. ii. p. 200.)

‡ Als wenn einer in silbern oder goldern Schisseln wolte mist und Unflath Auftragen. (L. Opp. xix. p. 4.)

§ Sehet, sehet nun da zu! wo ist nun Luther. (Ibid. p. 3.)

lem,) over which they do not exercise the least authority." Nevertheless, Luther here makes an important distinction, which shows that he by no means participated in the third opinion which Erasmus had raised to notoriety by attributing it to him. "Man's will," said he, "may indeed be said to be free, not indeed in relation to what is above him,—that is, to God,—but in relation to what is beneath him,—that is, to the things of this world. In any matter affecting my property, my lands, my house, or my farm, I find myself able to act, do, and manage freely; but in everything that has reference to his salvation, man is a captive; he is subject to the will of God,—or rather to that of the devil.* Show me," cries he, "only one among all those who teach the doctrine of free will, who has been able in himself to find strength to endure a slight insult, a passionate assault, nay, even the hostile look of his enemy, and that joyfully,—and without so much as asking whether he is willing to give up his body, his life, his goods, his honour, and all that he has,—I will acknowledge that you have gained your cause."†

Luther had too much penetration not to discern the contradictions into which his adversary had fallen. He, therefore, in his answer, laboured to enclose the philosopher in the net in which he had entangled himself. "If the passages you quote," said he, "establish the principle that is easy for us to do good, wherefore is it that we are disputing? And what need can we have of *Christ* or the *Holy Spirit*? Christ would then have shed his blood without necessity to obtain for us a power which we already had in our own nature." In truth the passages quoted by Erasmus are to be understood in quite a different sense. This much debated question is more simple than it at first sight appears. When the Bible says to man, 'Choose,' it is because it assumes the assistance of God's grace, by which alone he can obey the command. God, in giving the commandment, gives also the strength to fulfil it. If Christ said to Lazarus, 'Come forth,' it was not that Lazarus could restore himself to life, but that Christ, in commanding him to come forth, gave him the ability to do so, and accompanied his word with his creative power. Moreover, it is quite true that the man to whom God speaks, must will to do; it is he himself, and not another, that must will;—he can receive this will from none but God; but surely in him, it must be; and the very command which God brings to him, and which, according to Erasmus, proves the power to be in man, is so perfectly reconcilable with God's working, that it is, in fact, the very means by which that work of God is wrought out. It is by saying to the man, "Be converted," that God converts him.

But the idea which Luther especially kept in view in his answer is, that the passages quoted by Erasmus are designed not to make known to men this pretended power which is attributed to them, but to show them their duty, and their total inability to fulfil it. "How often does it happen," says Luther, "that a father calls to him his feeble child, saying, 'Will you come, my son? come then,' in order that the child may learn to call for his assistance, and allow himself to be carried."‡

After having combated Erasmus's arguments in favour of free will, Luther defends his own against the attacks of his opponent. "Dear Diatribe," says he, ironically, "mighty heroine, you who pride yourself on having explained away those words of our Lord in St. John's gospel, '*without me ye can do NOTHING*,' although you acknowledge their force, and call them Luther's Achilles, listen to me—Unless you prove that

this word *nothing* not only may, but must signify a *little*, all your sounding words, all your famous examples, have no more effect than if a man were to attempt to oppose a mighty conflagration with a handful of straw. What matter to us such assertions as, *This may mean, this may be thus understood*, while you ought to prove to us that it *must* be so understood. Unless you do this, we take the declaration in its *literal* meaning, and laugh at all your examples, your fine exordiums, and self-complacent boastings."*

Subsequently, Luther shows, still from the Scriptures, that the grace of God does all in conversion. He concludes thus: "In short, since the Scripture every where contrasts Christ with that which has not the spirit of Christ; since it declares that every thing which is not Christ, and in Christ, is under the power of delusion, barkness, the devil, death, sin, and the wrath of God; it follows that every passage in the Bible which speaks of Christ is against your doctrine of free will. Now such passages are innumerable, the Holy Scriptures are full of them."†

We perceive that the discussion which arose between Luther and Erasmus, is the same as that which occurred a century later between the Jansenists and Jesuits, between Pascal and Molina.‡ Wherefore, then, while the reformation has had such immense results, did Jansenism, though adorned by the finest geniuses, go out in weakness? It is because Jansenism went back to St. Augustine, and rested for support on the father's; while the Reformation went back to THE BIBLE, and was based on the word of God; because Jansenism made a compromise with Rome, and would have pursued a middle course between truth and error, whereas the Reformation, relying on God alone, cleared the soil, swept away the incrustations of past ages, and laid bare the primitive rock. To stop half way in any work is useless; in every undertaking we must go through. Hence, while Jansenism has passed away, Evangelical Christianity presides over the destinies of the world.

After having energetically refuted the errors of Erasmus, Luther renders a high sounding, but perhaps somewhat malicious, homage to his genius. "I confess," says he, "that you are a great man: in whom have we ever beheld more learning, intelligence, or readiness, both in speaking and writing? As to me, I possess none of these qualities; in one thing only can I glory—I am a Christian. May God raise you infinitely above me in the knowledge of his gospel, so that you may surpass me in that respect as much as you already do in every other."§

Erasmus was incensed beyond measure by the perusal of Luther's answer, and looked upon his encomiums as the honey of a poisoned cup, or the embrace of a serpent at the moment he fixes his deadly fang. He immediately wrote to the electors of Saxony, demanding justice; and, when Luther wished to appease him, he lost his usual temper, and, in the words of one of his most zealous apologists, "began to pour forth invectives in a feeble voice, and with hoary hairs."||

Erasmus was conquered. Moderation had, till this occasion, been his strength; and now this left him. Anger was the only weapon he could oppose to Luther's energy. The wisdom of the philosopher, on this occasion, failed him. He replied, publicly, in his *Hyperapistes*, in which he accuses the Reformer of barbarism, falsehood, and blasphemy. The philosopher even ven-

* L. Opp. xix. p. 116. † Ibid. p. 143.

‡ It is scarcely necessary to say that I do not speak of personal discussions between these two men, of whom, the one died in 1600, and the other was not born till 1623.

§ L. Opp. xix. p. 146, 147.

|| M. Nisard, Erasme, p. 419.

* L. Opp. xix. p. 33. † Ibid. p. 33. ‡ Ibid. p. 55.

tored on prophecy: "I predict," said he, "that no name under heaven will hereafter be more execrated than Luther's." The jubilee of 1817 has replied to this prophecy, after a lapse of three centuries, by the enthusiasm and acclamations of the entire Protestant world.

Thus, while Luther, with the Bible in his hand, was placing himself in the van of his age, Erasmus, in opposition to him, sought that station for himself and philosophy. Of these two chiefs, which has been followed? Both, undoubtedly. Nevertheless, Luther's influence on the nations of Christendom has been infinitely greater than that of Erasmus. Even those who did not well comprehend the matter in dispute, seeing the full conviction of one antagonist, and the doubts of the other, could not refrain from believing that the former had truth on his side, and that the latter was in the wrong. It has been said that the three last centuries, the 16th, 17th, and 18th, may be considered as a protracted battle of three days' duration.* We willingly adopt the comparison, but not the part, that is allotted to each of these days. The same struggle, it is said, marked the sixteenth and the eighteenth centuries. On the first day, as on the last, we are told that it was philosophy that broke the ranks. The sixteenth century philosophical! Strange mistake! No, each of those days had its marked and peculiar characteristic. On the first, the word of God, the gospel of Christ triumphed, and Rome was defeated; and philosophy, in the person of Erasmus, and her other champions, shared in the defeat. On the second, we admit that Rome, her authority, her discipline, and her doctrine, are again seen on the point of obtaining the victory, through the intrigues of a far-famed society, and the power of the scaffold, aided by certain leaders of eminent character, and others of lofty genius. The third day, human philosophy arises in all its pride, and finding the battle field occupied, not by the gospel, but by Rome, it quickly storms every entrenchment, and gains an easy conquest. The first day's battle was for God, the second for the priest, the third for reason—what shall the fourth be? . . . The confused struggle, the hard fought conflict, as we believe, of all these powers together, which will end in the triumph of him to whom triumph belongs.

But the battle which the Reformation fought in the great day of the sixteenth century was not one and single, but manifold. The Reformation had to combat at once several enemies; and after having protested against the decretals and the sovereignty of the popes—then against the cold apophthegms of rationalists, philosophers, and schoolmen—it took the field against the reveries of enthusiasm, and the hallucinations of mysticism; opposing alike to these three powers, the sword and the buckler of God's holy revelation.

We cannot but discern a great resemblance—a striking unity—between these three powerful adversaries. The false systems which, in every age, have been the most adverse to evangelical Christianity, have ever been distinguished by their making religious knowledge to emanate from man himself. Rationalism makes it proceed from reason; mysticism from a certain internal illumination; Roman Catholicism from an illumination derived from the pope. These three errors look for truth in man; evangelical Christianity looks for it in God alone; and while rationalism, mysticism, and Roman Catholicism, acknowledge a permanent inspiration in men like ourselves, and thus make room for every species of extravagance and schism; evangelical Christianity recognises this inspiration only in the writings of the apostles and prophets, and alone

presents that great, noble, and living unity which continues to exist unchanged throughout all ages.

The office of the Reformation has been to re-establish the rights of the word of God, in opposition, not only to Roman Catholicism, but also to Rationalism and Mysticism.

The fanaticism of the Anabaptists, which had been extinguished in Germany, by Luther's return to Wittenberg, reappeared in vigour in Switzerland, where it threatened the edifice which Zwingle, Haller, and Œcolampadius, had erected on the foundation of the word of God. Thomas Münzer, obliged to quit Saxony, in 1521, had reached the frontiers of Switzerland. Conrad Grebel, whose ardent and restless disposition we have already remarked, had joined him, as had also Felix Mantz, a canon's son, and several other natives of Zurich. Grebel endeavoured to gain over Zwingle. It was in vain that the latter had gone further than Luther; he saw a party spring up which desired to proceed to yet greater lengths. "Let us," said Grebel, "form a community of true believers; for it is to them alone that the promise belongs; and let us establish a church, which shall be without sin." "It is not possible," replied Zwingle, "to make a heaven upon earth; and Christ has taught us to let tares grow among the wheat."[†]

Grebel, unsuccessful with the Reformer, wished to appeal from him to the people. "The whole community of Zurich," said he, "is entitled to decide finally in all matters of faith." But Zwingle dreaded the influence which violent enthusiasts might exercise in a popular assembly. He believed that, except on some extraordinary occasions, where the people might be called on to give their support, it was more desirable to confide the interests of religion to a college, which might be considered the chosen representatives of the church. Consequently, the Council of two Hundred, which then exercised the supreme political authority in Zurich, was also entrusted with the ecclesiastical power, on the express condition that it should conform, in all things, to the rule of the Holy Scriptures. Undoubtedly it would have been preferable to have organised the church complete, and called on it to name representatives, to whom no interests save the religious interests of the people should be confided; for he who is qualified for affairs of state, may be very unskilful in administering those of the church,—just as the reverse of this is also true. Nevertheless, the inconvenience was not then so serious as it would be in our days, for the members of the Grand Council had heartily embarked in the religious movement. However this may be, Zwingle, in his appeal to the church, would not bring it too prominently forward; and preferred a system of representation to the active sovereignty of the general body. It is the same policy which, after three centuries, the states of Europe have adopted, in reference to earthly politics.

Meeting with a repulse from Zwingle, Grebel turned in another direction. Roubli, an aged minister of Basle, Brödtlein, minister at Zollikon, and Lewis Herzer, welcomed his advances. They resolved on forming an independent body in the centre of the general community,—a church within the church. A new baptism was to be their instrument for gathering their congregation, which was to consist exclusively of true believers. "The baptism of infants," said they, "is a horrible abomination—a flagrant impiety, invented by the evil spirit, and by Pope Nicholas II."[‡]

* Vermeintend ein Kirchen zu versammeln die one Sünd wär. (Zw. Opp. ii. p. 231.)

† Zw. Opp. iii. p. 262.

‡ Impietatem manifestissimam, a ceco demone, a Nicolao, II. esse. (Hottinger, iii. p. 219.)

The Council of Zurich, in some alarm, directed that a public discussion should be held; and, as the Anabaptists still refused to relinquish their errors, some of them, who were natives of Zurich, were imprisoned, and others, who were foreigners, were banished. But persecution only inflamed their zeal. "It is not by words alone," cried they, "but by our blood, that we are ready to bear testimony to the truth of our cause." Some of them, girding themselves with ropes, or rods of osier, ran through the streets, crying, "Yet a few days, and Zurich will be destroyed! Woe to thee, Zurich! woe! woe!" Several there were who uttered blasphemies: "Baptism," said they, "is but the washing of a dog. To baptize a child is of no more use than baptizing a cat."* Fourteen men, including Felix Mantz, and seven women, were arrested, and, in spite of Zwingle's intreaties, imprisoned, on an allowance of bread and water, in the heretic's tower. After a fortnight's confinement, they managed, by removing some planks in the floor, to effect their escape during the night. "An angel," they said, "had opened their prison doors, and set them free."†

They were joined by George Jacob, of Coira, a monk, who had absconded from his convent, and who was surnamed Blaurock, as it would seem, from his constantly wearing a blue dress. His eloquence had obtained for him the appellation of a *second Paul*. This intrepid monk travelled from place to place, constraining many, by the fervour of his appeals, to receive his baptism. One Sunday, at Zollikon, while the deacon was preaching, the impetuous Anabaptist, suddenly interrupting him, exclaimed in a voice of thunder, "It is written, *My house is a house of prayer, but ye have made it a den of thieves.*" Then, raising the staff he carried in his hand, he struck it four times violently on the ground.

"I am a door," exclaimed he: "by me, if any man enter in, he shall find pasture. I am a good shepherd. My body I give to the prison; my life to the sword, the axe, and the wheel. I am the beginning of the baptism, and of the bread of the Lord."‡

While Zwingle was attempting to stem the torrent of Anabaptism at Zurich, it quickly inundated St. Gall. Grebel arrived there, and was received by the brethren with acclamations; and on Palm Sunday he proceeded to the banks of the Sitter, attended by a great number of his adherents, whom he there baptized.

The news soon spread through the neighbouring cantons, and a great multitude from Zurich, Appenzell, and various other places, flocked to "the little Jerusalem."

Zwingle was deeply afflicted by this agitation. He saw a storm descending on the land where the seeds of the Gospel had as yet scarcely begun to take root.§ Resolving to oppose these disorders, he composed a tract "on Baptism,"|| which the Council of St. Gall, to whom he dedicated it, caused to be read in the church in the hearing of the people.

"Dear brethren in the Lord," said Zwingle, "the waters of the torrents which rush from our rocks hurry with them everything within their reach. At first, small stones only are put in motion; but these are driven violently against larger ones, until the torrent acquires such strength, that it carries away everything it encounters in its course, leaving behind lamentations,

* Nutzete eben so viel als wenn man eine Katze tauft. (Fussl. Beytr. i. p. 243.)

† Wie die Apostel von dem Engel Gottes gelediget. (Bull. Chr. p. 261.)

‡ Ich bin ein Anfänger der Taufe und des Herrn Brodes. (Fussl. Beytr. i. p. 264.)

§ Mich beduret seer das ungewitter. (Zw. to the Council of St. Gall, i. p. 230.)

|| Vom Tott, vom Widertott, und vom Kindertott. (Zw. Opp. ii. p. 230.)

vain regrets, and fertile meadows changed into a wilderness. The spirit of disputation and self-righteousness, acts in a similar manner; it occasions disturbances, banishes charity, and where it found fair and prosperous churches, leaves behind it nothing but mourning and desolate flocks."

Thus wrote Zwingle—the child of the mountains of the Tockenburg. "Give us the word of God," exclaimed an Anabaptist, who was present in church, "and not the word of Zwingle." Immediately confused voices arose: "Away with the book! away with the book!" cried the Anabaptists. Then rising, they quitted the church, exclaiming, "Do you keep the doctrine of Zwingle; as for us, we will keep the word of God."*

Then it was that this fanaticism broke forth in lamentable disorders. Alleging, in excuse, that the Saviour had exhorted us to become as little children, these poor creatures began to go dancing through the streets, clapping their hands, footing it in a circle, seating themselves on the ground together, and tumbling each other in the sand. Some there were who threw the New Testament into the fire, exclaiming, "The letter killeth, the spirit giveth life;" and several, falling into convulsions, pretended to have revelations from the Holy Spirit.

In a solitary house, situated on the Mullegg, near St. Gall, lived an aged farmer, John Schucker, with his five sons. The whole family, including the servants, had received the new baptism; and two of the sons, Thomas and Leonard, were distinguished for their fanaticism. On the 7th of February, 1526, being Shrove Tuesday, they invited a large party of Anabaptists to their house, and the father had a calf killed for the feast. The good cheer, the wine, and their numbers altogether, heated their imaginations; and they spent the whole night in fanatical excitement, convulsions, visions, and revelations.†

In the morning, Thomas, still agitated by that night of disorder, and having even, as it would seem, lost his senses, took the calf's bladder, and placing part of the gall in it, in imitation of the symbolical language of the prophets, approached his brother, Leonard, and said to him gloomily, "Thus bitter is the death thou art to suffer!" Then he added, "Brother Leonard, fall on thy knees."‡ Leonard knelt down—presently, "Brother Leonard, arise!" Leonard arose. Their father, brothers, and the other Anabaptists, looked on with astonishment, asking themselves what God would do. Soon Thomas resumed: "Leonard, kneel down again!" Leonard obeyed. The spectators, terrified at the gloomy countenance of the wretched Thomas, said to him, "Reflect on what thou art about to do; take care that no mischief happens.—"Fear not," answered Thomas, "nothing will happen without the will of the Father." At the same moment, he hastily snatched a sword, and bringing it down with all his force on the neck of his brother, who was kneeling before him, like a criminal before the executioner, he severed his head from his body, crying out, "Now is the will of the Father accomplished!" The bystanders recoiled in horror; the farm resounded with lamentations. Thomas, who had nothing on him but his shirt and drawers, rushed out of the house, barefooted, and with his head uncovered, and running toward St. Gall with frenzied gestures, entered the house of the burgomaster, Joachim Vadian, with haggard looks, shouting, "I proclaim to thee the day of the Lord."§ The dreadful tidings spread throughout St. Gall—"He has killed his brother, as Cain killed Abel," said the crowd.¶ The criminal was seized.—

* So wollen wir Gottes Wort haben. (Zw. Opp. ii. p. 237.)

† Mit wunderbaren geperden und gesprachen, verzuken, gesichten, und offenbarungen. (Bull. Chr. i. p. 334.)

‡ Wie Kain den Abel seinen bruder ermordet hat! (Bull. Chr. i. p. 324.)

—"True," he repeated continually, "I did it, but it was God who did it by my hand." On the 16th of February, the unhappy wretch was beheaded by the executioner. Fanaticism had run its course to the utmost. Men's eyes were opened, and, to adopt the words of an early historian, "the same blow took off the head of Thomas Schucker, and of Anabaptism in St. Gall."

At Zurich, however, it still prevailed. On the 6th of November, in the preceding year, a public discussion had taken place, in order to content the Anabaptists, who were constantly complaining that the innocent were condemned unheard. The three following theses were put forth by Zwingle and his friends, as subjects of the conference, and triumphantly maintained by them in the Council hall.

"The children of believing parents are children of God, even as those who were born under the Old Testament; and consequently they may receive Baptism."

"Baptism is, under the New Testament, what Circumcision was under the Old. Consequently, Baptism is now to be administered to children, as Circumcision was formerly."

"The custom of repeating Baptism cannot be justified either by examples, precepts, or arguments drawn from Scripture; and those who are re-baptized, crucify Jesus Christ afresh."

But the Anabaptists did not confine themselves to questions purely religious; they demanded the abolition of tithes; "since," said they, "they are not of divine appointment." Zwingle replied that the tithes were necessary for the maintenance of the churches and schools. He desired a complete religious reformation, but he resolved not to allow the least invasion of public order or political institutions. This was the limit at which he discerned, written by the hand of God, that word from heaven, "Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther."* Somewhere, it was necessary to make a stand; and it was at this point that Zwingle and the Reformers took their stand, in spite of the efforts made by rash and impetuous men to hurry them beyond it.

But when the Reformers themselves stopped, they could not stop the enthusiasts, who seems as if brought into contact with them in order to set off by contrast their wisdom and sober-mindedness. It was not enough for the Anabaptists to have formed their church;—in their eyes that church was itself the State. Did any one summon them before the tribunals,—they refused to recognise the civil authority, maintaining that it was a remnant of Paganism, and that they would obey no power but that of God! They taught that it was unlawful for Christians to fill public offices or bear the sword,—and, resembling in another respect certain irreligious enthusiasts of our own days, they esteemed a 'community of goods' as the perfection of humanity.†

Thus the evil was increasing; Civil Society was endangered. It arose to cast out from its bosom those elements that threatened it with destruction. The Government, in its alarm, suffered itself to be hurried into strange measures. Resolved on making an example, they condemned Mantz to be drowned. On the 5th January, 1527, he was put into a boat; his mother, (the aged concubine of his father, the canon,) together with his brother, mingled in the crowd which accompanied him to the water's edge. "Be faithful unto death," was their exhortation. At the moment when the executioner prepared to throw Mantz into the lake, his brother burst into tears; but his mother,

calm and undaunted, witnessed, with eyes dry and flashing fire, the martyrdom of her son.*

The same day, Blaurock was scourged with rods. As he was led outside the city, he shook his blue dress, and the dust from off his feet, against it.† This unhappy man was, it would appear, burnt alive two years after this by the Roman Catholics of the Tyrol.

Undoubtedly, a spirit of rebellion existed among the Anabaptists; undoubtedly, the ancient ecclesiastical law, which condemned heretics to capital punishments, was still in force, and the Reformation could not, in the space of one or two years, reform everything; nor can we doubt that the Catholic states would have accused their Protestant neighbours of encouraging insubjection, if the latter had not resorted to severe measures against these enthusiasts; but though such considerations serve to account for the rigour of the magistrate, they never can justify it. Measures might be taken against an infringement of the civil constitution, but religious errors, being combated by the teachers of religion, should be altogether exempt from the jurisdiction of civil tribunals. Such opinions are not to be expelled by whippings, nor are they drowned in the waters into which those who profess them may be cast: they again come forth from the depth of the abyss; and the fire but serves to kindle in those who adhere to them a fiercer enthusiasm, and a thirst for martyrdom. Zwingle, whose sentiments on this subject we have already seen, took no part in these severities.‡

But it was not only on the subject of baptism that dissensions were to arise; yet more serious differences appeared, touching the doctrine of the Lord's Supper.

The human mind, freed from the yoke which had so long weighed it down, made use of its liberty; and, if Romanism is hemmed in by the shoals of despotic authority, Protestantism has to steer clear of those of anarchy. One characteristic distinction of Protestantism is progress, while that of Romanism is immobility.

Roman Catholicism, possessing in the papal authority a means of, at any time, establishing new doctrines, appears, at first view, to have in it a principle eminently favourable to change. It has, indeed, largely availed itself of this power, and, century after century, we see Rome bringing forward, or confirming, new dogmas. But its system once completed, Roman Catholicism has declared itself the champion of immobility. Therein lies its safety: it resembles a shaky building, from which nothing can be taken without bringing the whole down to the ground. Permit the priests to marry, or strike a blow against the doctrine of transubstantiation, and the whole system totters—the entire edifice falls to pieces.

It is not thus with Evangelical Christianity. Its principle is much less favourable to change, much more so to progress and life. On the one hand, it recognises no other fountain of truth than Scripture, one and immutably the same, from the very beginning of the Church to the end of time; how, then, should it vary, as Popery has varied? But, on the other hand, every individual Christian is to draw for himself from this fountain; and hence spring progress and liberty. Accordingly, Evangelical Christianity, although in the nineteenth century the same that it was in the sixteenth, and in the first, is,—at all times,—full of spontaneity

* Ohne das eroder die Mutter, sondern nur der Bruder geweinet. (Hott. Hdy. K. Gesch. iii. p. 335.)

† Und schüttelt sein blaues rock una sein schön über die Stätt Zurich. (Bull. Chin. i. p. 382.)

‡ Quod homines seditiosi, rei-publicæ turbatores, magistratum hostes, justâ Senatûs sententiâ, domati sunt, num id Zwinglio fraudi esse poterit? (Rod. Gualtheri Epist. ad lectorem, Opp. 1544. li.)

* Job xxxviii. 11.

† Füßell. Beytr. i. p. 229—255; ii. p. 263.

and action; and is, at this moment, filling the wide world with its researches and its labours, its Bibles and its missionaries, with light, salvation, and life!

It is a gross error which would class together, and almost confound, rationalism and mysticism with Christianity, and, in so doing, charge upon it the extravagances of both. Progress belongs to the nature of Christian Protestantism: it has nothing in common with immobility and a state of deadness; but its movement is that of healthful vitality, and not the aberration of madmen, or the restlessness of disease. We shall see this character manifesting itself in relation to the doctrine of the Lord's Supper.

What ensued might have been expected. This doctrine had been understood in very various ways in the early ages of the Church, and the difference of opinion continued up to the time when the doctrine of transubstantiation and the scholastic theology began, at about the same period, their reign over the mind of the middle ages. But that dominion was now shaken to its base, and the former differences were again to appear.

Zwingle and Luther, who had at first gone forward, each in his separate course,—the one in Switzerland, the other in Saxony,—were one day to find themselves brought, as it were, face to face. The same mind, and, in many respects, the same character, might be discerned in them. Both were full of love for truth and hatred of injustice; both were naturally violent; and in both that violence was tempered by sincere piety. But there was one feature in the character of Zwingle which tended to carry him beyond Luther. He loved liberty, not only as a man, but as a republican, and the fellow-countryman of Tell. Accustomed to the decision of a free state, he was not stopped by considerations before which Luther drew back. He had, moreover, given less time to the study of the theology of the schools, and found himself, in consequence, less shackled in his modes of thinking. Both ardently attached to their own convictions,—both resolute in defending them,—and little accustomed to bend to the convictions of others, they were now to come in contact, like two proud chargers rushing from opposite ranks, and encountering on the field of battle.

A practical tendency predominated in the character of Zwingle and of the Reformation which he had begun, and this tendency was directed to two great ends—simplicity in worship, and sanctification in life. To adapt the form of worship to the wants of the soul, seeking not outward ceremonies, but things invisible, was Zwingle's first object. The idea of Christ's real presence in the Eucharist, which had given rise to so many ceremonies and superstitions in the Church, must, therefore, be abolished. But the other great desire of the Swiss Reformer led him directly to the same result. He judged that the Romish doctrine respecting the Supper, and even that held by Luther, implied a belief of a certain mystical influence, which belief, he thought, stood in the way of sanctification;—he feared lest the Christian, thinking that he received Christ in the consecrated bread, should no longer earnestly seek to be united to him by faith in the heart. "Faith," said he, "is not knowledge, opinion, imagination;—it is a reality.* It involves in it a real participation in divine things." Thus, whatever the adversaries of Zwingle may have asserted, it was no leaning towards rationalism, but a deep religious view of the subject which conducted him to the doctrines he maintained.

The result of Zwingle's studies were in accordance with these tendencies. In studying the Scriptures, not

only in detached passages, but as a whole, and having recourse to classical antiquity to solve the difficulties of language, he arrived at the conviction, that the word "is," in the words of institution of this sacrament, should be taken in the sense of "*signifies*;" and, as early as the year 1523, he wrote to a friend, that the bread and wine in the Lord's Supper are exactly what the water is in baptism.* "In vain," added he, would you plunge a thousand times under the water a man who does not believe. *Faith* is the one thing needful."

Luther, at first, set out from principles nearly similar to those of the Reformer of Zurich. "It is not the sacrament which sanctifies," said he, "it is *faith* in the sacrament." But the extravagances of the Anabaptists, whose mysticism spiritualized everything, produced a great change in his views. When he saw enthusiasts, who pretended to inspiration, destroying images, rejecting baptism, and denying the presence of Christ in the Eucharist, he was affrighted; he had a kind of prophetic presentiment of the dangers which would threaten the Church if this tendency to over-spiritualize, should gain the ascendant; hence he took a totally different course, like the boatman, who, to restore the balance of his foundering skiff, throws all his weight on the side opposed to the storm.

Thenceforward, Luther assigned to the sacraments a higher importance. He maintained they were not only signs by which Christians were outwardly distinguished, but evidences of the Divine will, adapted to strengthen our faith. He went farther: Christ, according to him, desired to give to believers a full assurance of salvation, and, in order to seal this promise to them with most effect, had added thereto his real body in the bread and wine. "Just," continued he, "as iron and fire, though two different substances, meet and are blended in a red hot bar, so that in every part of it there is at once iron and fire; so, *a fortiori*, the glorified body of Christ exists in every part of the bread."

Thus, at this period of his career, Luther made, perhaps, a partial return to the scholastic theology. He had openly divorced himself from it on the doctrine of *justification by faith*; but on the doctrine of this sacrament, he gave up but one point viz: *transubstantiation*, and retained the other, the *real presence*. He even went so far as to say, that he would rather receive the mere *blood* with the Pope, than the mere *wine* with Zwingle.

Luther's great principle was never to depart from the doctrines or customs of the Church, unless the words of Scripture absolutely required him to do so. "Where has Christ commanded us to elevate the host, and exhibit it to the people?" had been Carlstadt's question. "Where has he forbidden it?" was Luther's reply. Herein lies the difference of the two Reformations we are considering. The traditions of the Church were dear to the Saxon Reformer. If he separated from them on many points, it was not till after much conflict of mind, and because, above all, he saw the necessity of obeying the word of God. But wherever the letter of God's word appeared to him in accordance with the tradition and practice of the Church, he adhered to it with unalterable resolution. Now this was the case in the question concerning the Lord's Supper. He did not deny that the word "is" might be taken in the sense ascribed to it by Zwingle. He admitted, for example, that it must be so understood in the passage, "*That rock was Christ*;"† but what he did deny was that the word should be taken in this sense in the institution of the Lord's Supper.

* Fidem rem esse, non scientiam, opinionem vel imaginationem. (Comment de verâ relig. Zw. Opp. iii. p. 230.)

* Haud aliter hic panem et vinum esse puto quam aqua est in baptismo. (Ad Wittenbachium Epp. 15th June, 1523.)

† 1 Cor. x. 4.

In one of the later schoolmen, Occam, whom he preferred to all others,* he found an opinion which he embraced. With Occam, he gave up the continually repeated miracle, in virtue thereof, according to the Romish Church, the body and blood take the place of the bread and wine after every act of consecration by the priest—and with Occam, substituted for it a universal miracle, wrought once for all—that is, the ubiquity or omnipresence of Christ's body. "Christ," said he, "is present in the bread and wine, because he is present everywhere, and in an especial manner where he wills to be."†

The inclination of Zwingle was the reverse of Luther's. He attached less importance to preserving a union, in a certain sense, with the universal church, and thus maintaining our hold upon the tradition of past ages. As a theologian, he looked to Scripture alone; and thence only would he freely, and without any intermediary channel, derive his faith; not stopping to trouble himself with what others had in former times believed. As a republican, he looked to the commune of Zurich. His mind was occupied with the idea of the church of his own time, not with that of other days. He relied especially on the words of St. Paul,—"*Because there is but one bread, we being many, are one body*;"‡ and he saw in the supper the sign of a spiritual communion between Christ and all Christians. "Whoever," said he "acts unworthily, is guilty of sin against the body of Christ, of which he is a member." Such a thought had a great practical power over the minds of communicants; and the effects it wrought in the lives of many, was to Zwingle the confirmation of it.

Thus Luther and Zwingle had insensibly separated from one another. Nevertheless peace, perhaps, might have continued between them if the turbulent Carlstadt, who spent some time in passing to and fro between Germany and Switzerland, had not inflamed their conflicting opinions.

A step, taken with a view to preserve peace, led to the explosion. The Council of Zurich, wishing to put a stop to controversy, prohibited the sale of Carlstadt's writings. Zwingle, though he disapproved the violence of Carlstadt, and blamed his mystic and obscure expressions,§ upon this, thought it right to defend his doctrine, both from the pulpit and before the Council; and soon afterwards he wrote a letter to the minister, Albert of Reutlingen, in which he said: "Whether or not Christ is speaking of the sacrament in the sixth chapter of St. John's gospel, it is at least, evident, that he therein teaches a mode of eating his flesh and drinking his blood, in which there is nothing corporeal."|| He then endeavoured to prove that the Supper of the Lord, by reminding the faithful, according to Christ's design, of his body which 'was broken' for them, is the procuring cause of that spiritual-manducation, which is alone truly beneficial to them.

Nevertheless, Zwingle still shrunk from a rupture with Luther. He trembled at the thought that distressing discussions would rend asunder the little company of believers forming in the midst of effete Christendom. Not so with Luther. He did not hesitate to include Zwingle in the ranks of those enthusiasts with whom he had already broken so many lances. He did not reflect that if images had been removed from the churches of Zurich, it had been done legally, and by

public authority. Accustomed to the forms of the German principalities, he knew but little of the manner of proceeding in the Swiss republics; and he declared against the grave Swiss divines, just as he had done against the Muntzers and the Carlstadts.

Luther having put forth his discourse "*against celestial prophets*," Zwingle's resolution was taken; and he published, almost immediately after, his *Letter to Albert*, and his *Commentary on true and false Religion*, dedicated to Francis I. In it he said, "Since Christ, in the sixth of John, attributes to faith the power of communicating eternal life, and uniting the believer to him in the most intimate of all unions, what more can we need? Why should we think that he would afterwards attribute that efficacy to His flesh, when He himself declares that the flesh profiteth nothing? So far as the suffering death for us, the flesh of Christ is of unspeakable benefit to us, for it saves us from perdition; but as being eaten by us, it is altogether useless."

The contest began. Pomeranus, Luther's friend, took the field, and attacked the Evangelist of Zurich somewhat too contemptuously. Then it was that Ecolampadius began to blush that he had so long struggled with his doubts, and preached doctrines which were already giving way in his own mind. Taking courage, he wrote from Basle to Zwingle. "The dogma of the 'real presence' is the fortress and strong hold of their impiety; so long as they cleave to this *idol*, none can overcome them." After this he, too, entered the lists, by publishing a tract on the import of the Lord's word, "*This is my body*."*

The bare fact, that Ecolampadius had joined the Reformer of Zurich, excited an immense sensation, not only at Basle, but throughout all Germany. Luther was deeply affected by it. Brentz, Schnepff, and twelve other ministers in Suabia, to whom Ecolampadius had dedicated his tract, and who had almost all been disciples under, him testified the most lively sorrow. In taking up the pen to answer him, Brentz said, "Even at this moment, when I am separating from him for just reasons, I honour and admire him as much as it is possible to do. The tie of love is not severed because we differ in judgment." And he proceeded, in concert with his friends, to publish the celebrated *Suabian Syngamma*, in which he replied to the arguments of Ecolampadius with boldness, but with respect and affection. "If an emperor," say the authors of the *Syngamma*, "were to give a baton or a wand to a judge, saying, 'Take, this is the power of judging:'—the wand, no doubt, is a mere sign; but, the words being added thereto, the judge has not merely the sign of the power, he has the *power* itself."

The true children of the Reformation might admit this illustration. The *Syngamma* was received with acclamations, and its authors were looked upon as the defenders of the truth. Several divines, and even some laymen, in their desire to share in their glory, undertook the defence of the doctrine that was assailed, and wrote against Ecolampadius.

Then it was Strasburg interposed, and sought to mediate between Switzerland and Germany. Capito and Bucer were disposed for peace; and in their view the question under discussion was of secondary importance. Accordingly, stepping between the two parties, they sent George Cassel, one of their colleagues, to Luther, to conjure him not to snap the link of brotherhood which united him with the Swiss divines.

No where does Luther's character display itself more strikingly than in this controversy on the Lord's Supper. Never did it more clearly appear with what

* He retained the usual signification of the word *is*, but he understood, by *body*, a sign of the body.

* *Diu multumque legit scripta Occam ejus acumen anteferebat Thomæ et Scoti.* (Melancth. Vita Luth.)

† Occam und Luther. *Studien und Kritiken.* 1839, p. 69.

‡ Cor. x. 17.

§ Quod morosior est (Carlstadius) in caeremoniis non ferendis, non admodum probò. (Zw. Epp. p. 369.)

|| A manducatione cibi, qui ventrem implet, transit ad verbi manducationem, quam cibum vocat celestem, qui mundum vivificet. (Zw. Opp. iii. p. 673.)

firmness he maintained the convictions he believed to be those of a Christian—with what faithfulness he established them on the authority of Scripture alone, his sagacity in defending them, and his animated, eloquent, and often overpowering argumentation. But, on the other hand, never was there a more abundant exhibition of the obstinacy with which he brought up every argument for his own opinion, the little attention he gave to his opponents' reasoning, and the uncharitable haste with which he attributed their errors to the wickedness of their hearts, and the machinations of the devil. To the mediator of Strasburg, he said, "Either the one party or the other—either the Swiss or we, must be ministers of Satan."

Such were what Capito termed "the furies of the Saxon Orestes;" and these furies were succeeded by exhaustion. Luther's health suffered. One day he fainted in the arms of his wife and friends; and for a whole week, he was as if "in death and hell."* He had lost Jesus Christ, he said, and was driven hither and thither by tempests of despair. The world was about to pass away, and prodigies announced that the last day was at hand.

But these divisions among the friends of the Reformation were to have after consequences yet more to be deplored. The Romish divines in Switzerland especially boasted of being able to oppose Luther to Zwingle. And yet, if—now that three centuries have passed away, the recollection of these divisions should teach Evangelical Christians the precious lesson of Unity in diversity, and love in liberty, they will not have happened in vain. Even at the time, the Reformers, by thus opposing one another, proved that they were not governed by blind hatred of Rome, but that Truth was the great object of their hearts. It must be admitted that there is something generous in such conduct; and its disinterestedness did not fail to produce some fruit, and extort from enemies themselves a tribute of interest and esteem.

But we may go farther, and here again we discern the Sovereign hand which governs all events, and allows nothing to happen but what makes part of its own wise plan. Notwithstanding his opposition to the Papacy, Luther had a strong conservative instinct. Zwingle, on the contrary, was predisposed to radical reforms. Both these divergent tendencies were needed. If Luther and his followers had been alone in the work, it would have stopped short in its progress; and the principle of Reformation would not have wrought its destined effect. If, on the other hand, Zwingle had been alone, the thread would have been snapped too abruptly, and the Reformation would have found itself isolated from the ages which had gone before.

These two tendencies, which, on a superficial view, might seem present only to conflict together, were, on the contrary, ordained to be the complement of each other, and now that three centuries have passed away, we can say that they have fulfilled their mission.

Thus, on all sides, the Reformation had to encounter resistance; and after combating the rationalist philosophy of Erasmus, and the fanatical enthusiasm of the Anabaptists, it had, in addition, to settle matters at home. But its great and lasting struggle was against the Papacy; and the assault, commenced in the cities of the plain, was now carried to the most distant mountains.

The summits of Tockenurg had heard the sound of the Gospel, and three ecclesiastics were prosecuted, by order of the bishop, as tainted with heresy. "Only convince us by the word of God," said Militus Doring, and Fars; "and we will humble ourselves, not only before the chapter, but before the very least of

the brethren of Jesus Christ. Otherwise, we will obey no one; not even the greatest among men."*

The genuine spirit of Zwingle and of the Reformation speaks out in these words. It was not long before a new incident occurred to inflame the minds of the mountaineers. A meeting of the people took place on St. Catharine's day; the townsmen gathered in groups, and two men of Schwitz, whose business had called them to the Tockenurg, were seated together at one of the tables. They entered into conversation: "Ulric Zwingle," exclaimed one of them, "is a heretic and a robber." The Secretary, Steiger, defended the Reformation. Their loud voices attracted the attention of the meeting. George Bruggman, uncle to Zwingle, who was seated at an adjoining table, angrily left his seat, exclaiming, "Surely they are speaking of Master Ulric;" on which the guests all rose up and followed, apprehending a disturbance.† The tumult increased; the baliff hastily collected the Town-council in the open street, and Bruggman was requested, for the sake of peace, to content himself with saying, "If you do not retract your words, it is yourselves who are liars and thieves." "Recollect what you have just said," answered the men of Schwitz, "we will not forget it." This said, they mounted their horses, and set forward at full speed for Schwitz.‡

The government of Schwitz addressed to the inhabitants of the Tockenurg, a letter, which spread terror wherever it came. "Stand firm and fear nothing," wrote Zwingle to the Council of his native place: "Let not the lies they circulate concerning me disturb you. There is no brawler but has the power to call me heretic; but do you avoid all insulting language, tumults, excesses, and mercenary war. Relieve the poor; espouse the cause of the oppressed; and whatever insults may be heaped upon you, hold fast your confidence in Almighty God."||

Zwingle's exhortations had the desired effect. The Council were still hesitating; but the people gathering together in their several parishes, unanimously resolved that the Mass should be abolished, and the word of God adhered to ¶

The progress of the work was not less marked in Rhetia, from whence Salaadronius had been compelled to take his departure, but where Comander was preaching with much boldness. It is true that the Anabaptists, by their fanatical preachings in the country of the Grisons, had at first been a great hindrance to the progress of the Reformation. The people had split into three parties. Some had embraced the doctrines of those pretended prophets: others in silent astonishment meditated with anxiety on the schism that had declared itself. And, lastly, the partisans of Rome were loud in their exultations.**

A meeting was held at Ilantz, in the Grison league, for the purpose of a discussion. The supporters of the Papacy, on one hand, the favourers of the Reformation on the other, collected their forces. The bishop's vicar at first laboured to avoid the dispute. "Such disputations are attended with considerable expenses," said he; "I am ready to put down ten thousand florins,

* Ne potentissimo quidem, sed soli Deo ejusque verbo. (Zw. Epp. p. 370.)

† Totumque convivium sequi, grandem conflictum timentes. (Ibid. p. 371.)

‡ Auf solches, ritten sie wieder heim. (Ibid. p. 374.)

§ Macti animo este et interriti. (Zw. Epp. p. 381.)

¶ Verbis diris abstinete . . . opeum ferte egenis . . . spem certissimam in Deo reputatis omnipotente. (Ibid.) Either the date of one of the letters, 14th and 23d of 1524, must be a mistake, or one letter of Zwingle to his fellow-country men of the Tockenurg must be lost.

¶ Parochia uno consensu statuerunt in verbo Dei manere. (Zw. Epp. p. 423.)

** Pars tertia papistarum est in immensum gloriantium de schismate inter nos facto. (Ibid. p. 400.)

* In morte et in inferno jactatus. (L. Epp. iii. p. 132.)

in order to defray them, but I expect the opposite party to do as much." "If the bishop has ten thousand florins at his disposal," exclaimed the rough voice of a countryman in the crowd, "it is from us he has extorted them; to give such poor priests as much more would be a little too bad." We are a poor set of people," said Comander, the pastor of Coira, "we can scarcely pay for our soup, where then can we raise ten thousand florins." Every one laughed at this stratagem, and the business proceeded.

Among those present were Sebastian Hoffmeister and James Amman, of Zurich. They held in their hands the Holy Scriptures, in Hebrew and Greek.—The bishop's vicar moved that strangers be desired to withdraw. Hoffmeister understood this to be directed against him. "We have come provided," said he, "with a Hebrew and Greek Bible, in order that none may, in any way, do violence to the Scripture. However, sooner than stand in the way of the conference, we are willing to retire." "Ah!" cried the curate of Dintzen, as he glanced at the books the two Zurichers held in their hands, "if the Hebrew and Greek languages had never obtained entrance into our country, there would be fewer heresies among us." "St. Jerome," observed another, has translated the Bible for us, and we don't want the Jewish books." "If the Zurichers are excluded," said the banneret of Ilantz, "the commune will move in the affair." "Well," replied the others, "let them listen, but let them be silent." The Zurichers were accordingly allowed to remain, and their Bible with them.

Comander, rising in his place, read from the first of his published theses—"The Christian Church is born of the word of God. Its duty is to hold fast that word, and not to give ear to any other voice." He proceeded to establish what he advanced by numerous passages from the Scriptures. "He went boldly forward," says an eye-witness, "planting his foot, at every step, with the firmness of an ox's tread." "This will last all day," said the vicar.—"When he is at table with his friends, listening to those who play the flute, he does not grudge the time," remarked Hoffmeister.

Just then, one of the spectators left his seat, and elbowing his passage through the crowd, forced his way up to Comander, waving his arms, scowling on the Reformer, and knitting his brows. He seemed like one beside himself; and as he bustled up to Comander, many thought he was going to strike him. He was a schoolmaster of Coira. "I have written down various questions for you to answer," said he to Comander: "answer them directly." "I stand here," said the Reformer of the Grisons, "to defend my teaching. Do you attack it, and I will answer you; or if not, go back to your place. I will reply to you when I have done." The Schoolmaster deliberated for an instant. "Well," said he, at last—and returned to his seat.

It was proposed to proceed to consider the doctrine of the Sacrament. The abbot of St. Luke's declared, that it was not without awe that he approached such a subject; and the vicar devoutly crossed himself in fear.

The schoolmaster of Coira, who had before showed

* Sie wären gute arme Gesellen mit lehren Secklen. (Füssl. Beytr. i. p. 358.)

† Ware die Griechische und Hebraische Sprache nicht in das Land gekommen. (Ibid. p. 360.)

‡ Satzte den Füss wie ein müder Ochs. (Füssl. Beytr. i. p. 369.)

§ Den Pfeiffern zuzuhören, die . . . wie den Fürsten höferten. (Ibid.)

¶ Blinzelte mit den Augen rumpfete die Stirne. (Füssl. Beytr. i. p. 369.)

his readiness to attack Comander, with much volubility began to argue for the received doctrine of the Sacrament, grounding what he said on the words—"This is my body." "My dear Berre," said Comander to him, "how do you understand these words—"John is Elias!" "I understand," replied Berre, who saw Comander's object in the question, "I understand that he was truly and essentially Elias." "And why then," continued Comander, "did John the Baptist himself say to the Pharisees, that he was not Elias?" The schoolmaster was silent; and at last ejaculated—"It is true." All laughed—even the friends who had urged him to speak.

The abbot of Saint Luke's spoke at much length on the Supper; and the conference was finally closed. Seven priests embraced the Gospel. The most perfect religious liberty was proclaimed: and in several of the churches the Romish worship was abolished. "Christ," to use the words of Salandronius, "grew up everywhere in the mountains, like the tender grass of the spring, and his ministers were like living fountains, watering those Alpine pastures."

The Reformation was advancing, with yet more rapid strides, in Zurich. Dominicans, Augustines, Capuchins, so long opposed to each other, were reduced to the necessity of living together;—an anticipated purgatory for these poor monks. In place of those degenerated institutions were founded schools, an hospital, a theological seminary. Learning and charity everywhere took the place of sloth and selfishness.

These triumphs of the Reformation could not escape notice. The monks, the priests, and their prelates, not knowing how to move, everywhere felt that the ground was passing from under their feet; and that the Church was on the point of sinking under its unprecedented dangers. The oligarchs of the cantons, the hired supporters of foreign capitulations, perceived there was no time to be lost, if they wished to preserve their own privileges; and at the moment when the Church, in her terror, was sinking into the earth, they again tendered her the support of their arms bristling with steel. A John Faber was reinforced by a Stein or John Hug of Lucerne, and the civil authority came forward to assist that power of the hierarchy which opens his mouth to blasphemy, and makes war against the saints.

Public opinion had for a long while demanded a conference. No other way appeared of quelling the people. "Only convince us from the Scriptures," said the Council of Zurich to the Diet, "and we will fall in with your desires." "The Zurichers," said the people, "have given you their promise; if you are able to refute them from the Scriptures, why not do it? And if not able, why not yourselves conform to the Bible?"

The conferences at Zurich had had a mighty influence; it seemed politic to oppose to them a conference held in a city in the interest of Rome; taking at the same time all necessary precautions to secure the victory to the Pope's party.

It is true that the same party had declared such discussions unlawful,—but a door of evasion was found to escape that difficulty: for, said they, all that it is proposed to do is to declare and condemn the pestilent doctrine of Zwingli. This difficulty obviated, they looked about them for a sturdy disputant, and Doctor Eck offered himself. He had no fear of the issue.

* Vita, moribus et doctrina heresentis Christo apud Rhodanos Irrigian. (Zw. Epp. p. 485.)

† Rev. xviii.

‡ Dass der gemein man, one eine offne Disputation, nitt zü stillen was. (Bullang. Chr. i. p. 331.)

§ Diet of Lucerne, 13th of March, 1526.

"Zwingle, no doubt, has more knowledge of cows than of books,"† observed he, as Hofmeister reports.

The grand Council of Zurich despatched a safe-conduct for Eck to repair direct to Zurich; but Eck answered, that he would await the answer of the Confederation. Zwingle, on this, proposed to dispute at St. Gall, or at Schaffhausen, but the Council, grounding its decision on an article in the federal compact, which provided that any person accused of misdemeanor should be tried in the place of his abode, enjoined Zwingle to retract his offer.

The Diet at length came to the decision that a conference should take place at Baden, and appointed the 16th of May, 1526. This meeting promised important consequences; for it was the result and seal of that alliance that had just been concluded between the power of the Church and the aristocrats of the Confederation. "See," said Zwingle to Vadian, "what these oligarchs and Faber‡ are daring enough to attempt."

Accordingly, the decision to be expected from the Diet was a question of deep interest in Switzerland. None could doubt that a conference held under such auspices would be anything but auspicious to the Reformation. Were not the five cantons most devoted to the Pope's views paramount in influence in Baden? Had they not already condemned Zwingle's doctrine, and pursued it with fire and sword? At Lucerne, had he not been burnt in effigy with every expression of contempt? At Friburg, had not his writings been consigned to the flames? Throughout the five cantons, was not his death demanded by popular clamour? The cantons that exercised a sort of suzerainty in Baden, had they not declared that Zwingle should be seized if he set his foot on any part of their territory?‡ Had not Ueberlinger, one of their chiefs, declared that he only wished he had him in his power that he might hang him, though he should be called an executioner as long as he lived?§ And Doctor Eck himself, had he not for years past called for fire and sword as the only methods to be resorted to against heretics?—What then must be the end of this conference, and what result can it have but the death of the Reformer?

Such were the fears that agitated the commission appointed at Zurich, to examine into the matter. Zwingle, beholding their agitation, rose, and said, "You know what happened at Baden to the valiant men of Stammheim, and how the blood of the Wirths stained the scaffold—and yet we are summoned to the very place of their execution! Let Zurich, Berne, Saint Gall, or, if they will, Basle, Constance, or Schaffhausen, be chosen for the conference; let it be agreed that none but essential points shall be discussed, that the word of God shall be the only standard of authority which nothing shall be allowed to supersede, and then I am ready to come forward."||

Meanwhile, fanaticism was already aroused and was striking down her victims. On the 10th of May, 1526, that is, about a week before the discussion at Baden, a consistory, headed by the same Faber who challenged Zwingle, condemned to the flames, as a heretic, an evangelical minister named John Hügler, pastor of Lindau,¶ who sang the *Te Deum* while walking to the

place of execution. At the same time, another minister, named Peter Spengler, was drowned at Friburg, by order of the bishop of Constance.

Gloomy tidings reached Zwingle from all sides. His brother-in-law, Leonard Tremp, wrote to him from Berne: "I conjure you, as you value your life, not to repair to Baden. I know that they will not respect your safe-conduct."^{*}

It was confidently asserted that a project had been formed to seize, gag, and throw him into a boat which would carry him off to some secret place.† Taking into consideration these threats of danger and death, the council of Zurich resolved that Zwingle should not go to Baden.‡

The day for the discussion being fixed for the 19th of May, the disputants and representatives of the cantons and bishops slowly collected. First, on the side of the Roman Catholics, appeared the pompous and boastful Eck; on the Protestant side, the modest and gentle Ecolampadius. The latter was fully sensible of the perils attending this discussion: "Long had he hesitated," says an ancient historian, "like a timid stag, worried by furious dogs;" at length he decided on proceeding to Baden; first making this solemn protestation—"I recognise no other rule of judgment than the word of God." He had, at first, much wished that Zwingle should share his perils;§ but he soon saw reason to believe, that if the intrepid doctor had shown himself in that fanatical city, the anger of the Roman Catholics, kindling at the sight of him, would have involved them both in destruction.

The first step was to determine the laws which should regulate the controversy.¶ Eck proposed that the deputies of the Forest Cantons should be authorized to pronounce the final judgment—a proposal which, if it had been adopted, would have decided beforehand the condemnation of the reformed doctrines. Thomas Plater, who had come from Zurich to attend the conference, was despatched by Ecolampadius to ask Zwingle's advice. Arriving at night, he was with difficulty admitted into the Reformer's house. Zwingle, waking up, and rubbing his eyes, exclaimed, "You are an unseasonable visitant—what news do you bring? For these six weeks past, I have had no rest; thanks to this dispute."|| Plater stated what Eck required. "And how," replied Zwingle, "can those peasants be made to understand such matters? they would be much more at home in milking their cows."¶¶

On the 21st of May, the conference began. Eck and Faber, accompanied by prelates, magistrates, and doctors, robed in damask and silk, and bedizened with rings, chains, and crosses,** repaired to the church. Eck haughtily ascended a pulpit superbly decorated, while the humble Ecolampadius, meanly clad, sat facing his adversary, upon a rudely-constructed platform. "During the whole time the conference lasted," says the chronicler, Bullinger, "Eck and his party were lodged in the parsonage house of Baden, faring sumptuously, living gaily and disorderly, drinking freely the wine with which they were supplied by the abbot of Wettingen.†† Eck, it was said, takes the baths at Baden, but it is in wine that he bathes. The Reformer

* *Caveatis per caput vestrum.* (Zw. Epp. p. 489.)

† *Navigio captum, ero mox obturato, clam fuisse deportandum.* (Osw. Myc. Vit. Zw.)

‡ *Zwinglium Senatus Tigurinus Badenam dimittere recusavit.* (Ibid.)

§ *Si periclitaberis, periclitabimur omnes tecum.* (Zw. Epp. p. 312.)

|| *Ich ben in 6 Wochen nie in das Beth Kommen.* (Plater's Leben. p. 263.)

¶ *Sie verstanden sich bas auf Kuh malken.* (Ibid.)

** Mit Syden, Damast und Sammet bekleydet. (Bull. Chr. i. p. 351.)

†† *Verbruchten vil wyn.* (Ibid.)

* *Er habe wohl mehr Kühe gemolken als Bücher gelesen.* (Zw. Opp. ii. p. 405.)

† *Vide nunc quid audeant oligarchi atque Faber.* (Zw. Epp. p. 484.)

‡ *Zwingle in ihrem Gebriet, wo er betreten werde, gefangen zu nehmen.* (Zw. Opp. ii. p. 422.)

§ *Da wollte er gern all sein Lebtag ein Henker genannt werden.* (Ibid. p. 454.)

|| *Wellend wir ganz genseit syn ze erschynen.* (Ibid. p. 423.)

¶ *Hunc hominem hæreticum damnamus, projecimus et conculcamus.* (Hotting. Helv. K. Gesch. iii. p. 300.)

mers, on the contrary, made but a sorry appearance, and were scoffed at as a troop of mendicants. Their manner of life afforded a striking contrast to that of the Pope's champions. The landlord of the *Pike*, the inn at which Ecolampadius lodged, curious to see how the latter spent his time in his room, reported, that whenever he looked in on him, he found him either reading or praying. It must be confessed, said he, that he is a very pious heretic."

The discussion lasted eighteen days; and every morning the clergy of Baden went in solemn procession, chanting litanies, in order to insure victory. Eck was the only one who spoke in defence of the Romish doctrines. He was at Baden exactly what he was at Leipsic, with the same German twang, the same broad shoulders and sonorous voice, reminding one of a town-crier, and, in appearance, more like a butcher than a divine. He was vehement in disputing, according to his usual custom; trying to wound his opponents by insulting language, and even now and then breaking out in an oath.* The president never called him to order—

Eck stamps his feet, and claps his hands,
He raves, he swears, he scolds;
"I do," cries he, "what Rome commands,
And teach whate'er she holds."†

Ecolampadius, on the contrary, with his serene countenance, his noble and patriarchal air, spoke with so much mildness, but at the same time with so much ability and courage, that even his antagonists, affected and impressed, whispered to one another, "Oh, that the tall, sallow man were on our side!"‡ Sometimes, indeed, he was moved at beholding the hatred and violence of his auditors: "Oh," said he, with what impatience do they listen to me; but God will not forego His glory, and it is that only that we seek."§

Ecolampadius, having combated Eck's first thesis, which turned on the real presence, Haller, who had reached Baden after the commencement of the discussion, entered the lists against the second. Little used to such discussions, constitutionally timid, fettered by the instructions of his government, and embarrassed by the presence of its chief magistrate, Gaspard Mullinen, a bitter enemy of the Reformation, Haller had none of the confident bearing of his antagonist; but he had more real strength. When Haller had concluded, Ecolampadius again entered the lists, and pressed Eck so closely, that the latter was compelled to fall back upon the custom of the church. "In our Switzerland," answered Ecolampadius, "custom is of no force unless it be according to the constitution; now, in all matters of faith, the *Bible* is our constitution."

The third thesis, regarding invocation of saints; the fourth, on images; the fifth, on purgatory, were successively discussed. No one came forward to dispute the two last theses, which bore reference to original sin and baptism.

Zwingle took an important part in the whole of the discussion. The Catholic party had appointed four secretaries, and prohibited all other persons from taking notes on pain of death.¶ Nevertheless, a student from the Valais, named Jerome Walsch, gifted with a retentive

* So entwuschet imm ettwa ein Schür. (Bull. Chr. i. p. 381.)

† Egg zablet mit fussen und henden
Fing an schelen und schenden, etc.

(Contemporaneous Poems of Nicholas Manuel, of Berne.)

‡ O were der lange gäl man uff unser syten. (Bull. Chr. i. p. 353.)

§ Domino suam gloriam, quam salvam cupimus ne utiquam desertuor. (Zw. Epp. p. 511.)

¶ Man sollte einem ohne aller weiter Urtheilen, den Kopf abhauen. (Thom. Plateri, Lebens Beschreib. p. 262.)

memory, carefully impressed upon his mind all that he heard, and, upon leaving the assembly, privately committed his recollections to writing. Thomas Plater, and Zimmermann, of Winterthur, carried these notes to Zwingle every day, as also letters from Ecolampadius, and brought back the Reformer's answers. The gates of Baden were guarded by halberdiers, and it was only by inventing different excuses that the two messengers could evade the questions of the soldiers, who were at a loss to comprehend why these youths so frequently entered and quitted the city.* Thus Zwingle, though absent from Baden in bodily presence, was with them in spirit.

He advised and strengthened his friends, and refuted his adversaries. "Zwingle," says Oswald Myconius, "has laboured more in meditating upon, and watching the contest, and transmitting his advice to Baden, than he could have done by disputing in person in the midst of his enemies."†

During the whole time of the conference, the Roman Catholics were in a ferment, publishing abroad the report of advantages gained by them. "Ecolampadius," cried they, "vanquished by Eck, lies prostrate on the field, and sues for quarter;‡ the pope's authority will be everywhere restored."§ These statements were industriously circulated throughout the cantons, and the many, prompt to believe every rumour, gave credit to these vauntings of the partisans of Rome.

The discussion being concluded, the monk, Murner, of Lucerne, nicknamed the "tom-cat," came forward, and read forty articles of accusation against Zwingle. "I thought," said he, "that the dastard would appear and answer for himself, but he has not done so: I am therefore justified by every law, both human and divine, in declaring forty times over, that the tyrant of Zurich and all his partisans are rebels, liars, perjured persons, adulterers, infidels, thieves, robbers of temples, fit only for the gallows; and that any honest man must disgrace himself if he hold any intercourse with them, of what kind soever." Such was the opprobrious language which, at that time, was honoured with the name of "Christian controversy," by divines, whom the Church of Rome herself might well blush to acknowledge.

Great agitation prevailed at Baden: the general feeling was, that the Reformers were overcome, not by force of arguments, but by power of lungs.¶ Only Ecolampadius and ten of his friends signed a protest against the theses of Eck, while they were adopted by no less than eighty persons, including those who had presided at the discussion, and all the monks of Wittengen. Haller had left Baden before the termination of the conference.

The majority of the diet then decreed, that as Zwingle, the leader in these pernicious doctrines, refused to appear, and as the ministers who had come to Baden hardened themselves against conviction, both the one and the others were in consequence cast out from the bosom of the church.¶

* When I was asked, "What are you going to do?" I replied, "I am carrying chickens to sell to the gentlemen who are come to the baths;"—the chickens were given me at Zurich, and the guards could not understand how it was that I always got them so fresh, and in so short a time. (Plater's autobiography.)

† Quam laborasset disputando vel inter medios hostes. (Os. Myc. Vit. Zw.) See the various writings composed by Zwingle relative to the Baden conference. (Opp. ii. p. 398, 320.)

‡ Ecolampadius victus jacet in arena prostratus ab Ecclio, herbam porrexit. (Zw. Epp. p. 514.)

§ Spem concipiant lætam fore ut regnum ipsorum restituant. (Ibid. p. 513.)

¶ Die Evangelische weren wol *überschryen*, nicht aber *überdisputiert* worden. (Hotting. Helv. K. Gesch. iii. p. 320.)

¶ Von gemeiner Klychen ussgestossen. (Bull. Chr. p. 355.)

But this celebrated contest, which had originated in the zeal of the oligarchs and the clergy, was yet in its effects to be fatal to both. Those who had contended for the gospel, returning to their homes, infused into their fellow-citizens an enthusiasm for the cause they had defended; and Berne and Basle, two of the most influential cantons of the Helvetic confederation, began thenceforth to fall away from the ranks of the papacy.

It was to be expected that Œcolampadius would be the first to suffer, the rather as he was not a native of Switzerland; and it was not without some fear that he returned to Basle. But his alarm was quickly dissipated. His gentle words had sunk deeply into those unprejudiced minds which had been closed against the vociferations of Eck; and he was received with acclamations by all men of piety. His adversaries, it is true, used all their efforts to exclude him from the pulpit, but in vain; he taught and preached with greater energy than before, and never had the people manifested a more ardent thirst for the word of the Lord.*

The course of events at Berne was of a similar character. The conference at Baden, which it had been hoped would stifle the Reformation, gave to it a new impulse in this the most powerful of the Swiss cantons. No sooner had Haller arrived in the capital, than the inferior council summoned him before them, and commanded him to celebrate mass. Haller asked leave to answer before the Grand council; and the people came together, thinking it behoved them to defend their pastor. Haller, in alarm, declared that he would rather quit the city than be the innocent occasion of disorders. Upon this, tranquillity being restored, "If," said the reformer, "I am required to perform mass, I must resign my office: the honour of God and the truth of his holy word lie nearer to my heart than any care what 'I shall eat, or wherewithal I shall be clothed.'" Haller uttered these words with much emotion; the members of the council were much affected; even some of his opponents were moved to tears.† Once more was moderation found to be strength. To meet, in some measure, the requirements of Rome, Haller was removed from his office of canon, but appointed preacher. His most violent enemies, Lewis and Anthony von Diesbach, and Anthony von Erlach, indignant at this decision, immediately withdrew from the council and the city, and threw up their rank as citizens. "Berne stumbled," said Haller, "but she has risen up in greater strength than ever." This firmness of the Bernese made a powerful impression in Switzerland.‡

But the effects of the conference of Baden were not confined to Berne and Basle. While these events were occurring in those powerful cities, a movement more or less of the same character was in progress in several other states of the confederation. The preachers of St. Gall, on their return from Baden, proclaimed the gospel.§ At the conclusion of a public meeting, the images were removed from the parish church of St. Lawrence, and the inhabitants parted with their costly dresses, jewels, rings, and gold chains, that they might employ the money in works of charity. The Reformation did, it is true, strip men of their possessions, but it was in order that the poor might be clothed; and the only worldly goods it claimed the surrender of, were those of the reformed themselves.¶

* *Plebe Verbi Domini admodum sitiente.* (Zw. Epp. p. 518.)

† *Tillier, Gesch. v. Bern.* iii. p. 242.

‡ *Profuit hic nobis Bernatus tan dextre in servando Bercholdo suo egisse.* (Ecol. ad. Zw. Epp. p. 518.)

§ *San Gallenses officia sua restitutos.* (Zw. Epp. p. 518.)

¶ *Kostbare Kleider, Kleindien, Ring, Ketten, etc. freywillig verkauft.* (Hott. iii. p. 339.)

At Mulhausen the preaching was continued with unwearied boldness. Thurgovia and the Rhenish provinces daily drew nearer to the doctrine held in Zurich. Immediately after the conference, Zurzach abolished the use of images in its churches, and almost the whole district of Baden received the gospel.

Nothing can show more clearly than such facts as these which party had really triumphed. Hence we find Zwingle, contemplating what was passing around him, giving thanks to God: "Manifest are their attacks," said he, "but the Lord is above all their threatenings and all their violence; a wonderful unanimity in behalf of the gospel prevails in the city and canton of Zurich—we shall overcome all things by the prayer of faith."* Shortly afterwards, writing to Haller, he expressed himself thus: "Everything here below follows its appointed course: after the rude northern blast comes the gentle breeze. The scorching heat of summer is succeeded by the treasures of autumn. And now, after stern contests, the Creator of all things, whom we serve, has opened for us a passage into the enemy's camp. We are at last permitted to receive among us the Christian doctrine, that dove so long denied entrance, but which has never ceased to watch for the hour when she might return. Be thou the Noah to receive and shelter her."

This same year Zurich made an important acquisition, Conrad Pellican, superior of the Franciscan convent at Basle, professor of theology, when only twenty-four years of age, had, through the interest of Zwingle, been chosen to fill the office of Hebrew professor at Zurich. On his arrival he said, "I have long since renounced the pope, and desired to live to Christ."† Pellican's critical talents rendered him one of the most useful labourers in the great work of the Reformation.

Early in 1527, Zurich, still excluded from the diet by the Romish cantons, and wishing to take advantage of the more favourable disposition manifested by some of the confederates, convened an assembly within her own walls. It was attended by deputies from Berne, Basle, Schaffhausen, Appenzell, and St. Gall. "We require," said the deputies of Zurich, "that God's word, which alone leads us to Christ crucified, be the one thing preached, taught, and exalted. We renounce all doctrines of men, whatever may have been the custom of our forefathers; being well assured that if they had been visited by this divine light of the word, which we enjoy, they would have embraced it with more reverence than we, their unworthy descendants."‡ The deputies present promised to take into consideration the representations made by their brethren of Zurich.

Thus the breach in the walls of Rome was every day widened. The Baden conference it was hoped would have repaired it; but, on the contrary, from that time forward the cantons that had hitherto been only doubtful, appeared willing to make common cause with Zurich. The Reformation was already spreading among the inhabitants of the plain, and beginning to ascend the sides of the mountains; and the more ancient cantons, which had been as the cradle, and are still the citadel, of Switzerland—seemed in their alpine inclosures, alone to adhere faithfully to the religion of their fathers. These mountaineers, constantly exposed to violent storms, avalanches, and overflowing torrents, are all their lives obliged to struggle against

* *Fideli enim oratione omnia superabimus.* (Zw. Epp. p. 519.)

† *Jamdudum papæ renuntiavi et Christo vivere concupivi.* (Ibid. p. 455.)

‡ *Mit höherem Werth und mehr Dankbarkeit dann wir angenommen.* (Zurich Archiv. Absch. Sonntag nach Lichtmesse.)

these formidable enemies, and to sacrifice everything for the preservation of the pastures where their flocks graze, and the roofs which shelter them from the tempest, and which, at any moment, may be swept away by an inundation. Hence a conservative principle is strikingly developed among them, and has been transmitted from generation to generation. With these children of the mountains, wisdom consists in preserving what they have inherited from their fathers.

At the period we are recording, these rude Helvetians struggled against the Reformation that came to change their faith and worship, as at this very hour they contend against the roaring waters which tumble from their snow-clad hills, or against those modern notions and politics which have established themselves in the adjoining cantons. They will probably be the very last to lay down their arms before that two-fold power which has already planted its standard on the adjacent hills, and is steadily gaining ground upon these conservative communities.

Accordingly, these cantons, yet more irritated against Berne and against Zurich, and trembling lest that powerful state should desert their interests, assembled their deputies in Berne, itself, eight days after the conference at Zurich. They called on the council to deprive the innovating teachers of their office, to proscribe their doctrines, and to maintain the ancient and true Christian faith, as confirmed by past ages, and sealed by the blood of martyrs. "Convene all the bailiwicks of the canton," added they, "if they refuse to do this, we will take it upon ourselves." The Bernese were irritated, and replied, "We require no assistance in the directing of those who hold authority under us."

This answer only inflamed the anger of the forest cantons; and those very cantons, which had been the cradle of the *political* liberty of Switzerland, affrighted at the progress of *religious* liberty, began to seek even foreign alliances, in order to destroy it. In opposing the enemies of the capitulations, it seemed to them reasonable to seek the aid of capitulations; and if the oligarchs of Switzerland were not sufficiently powerful, it was natural to have recourse to the princes, their allies. Austria, who had found it impossible to maintain her own authority in the confederation, was ready

to interfere to strengthen the power of Rome. Berne learned with terror that Ferdinand, brother of Charles V., was preparing to march against Zurich, and all those who took part with the Reformation.*

Circumstances were becoming more trying. A succession of events, more or less adverse, such as the excesses of the Anabaptists, the disputes with Luther concerning the Lord's Supper, and other causes, seemed to have compromised the prospects of the Reformation in Switzerland. The conference at Baden had disappointed the hopes of the papists, and the sword which they had brandished against their opponents had been shivered in their hands; but their animosity and rage did but increase, and they began to prepare for a fresh effort. The Imperial power was in motion; and the Austrian bands, which had been compelled to shameful flight, from the defiles of Morgarten and the heights of Sempach, stood ready to enter Switzerland with flying banners, to confirm the tottering authority of Rome. The moment was critical: it was no longer possible to halt between two opinions; to be "neither clear nor muddy." Berne, and other cantons which had so long hesitated, were reduced to the necessity of decision, either to return without loss of time to the papal ranks, or to take their stand with boldness on the side of Christ.

Just then William Farel, a Frenchman, from the mountains of Dauphiny, communicated a powerful impulse to Switzerland, decided the reformation of the western cantons, hitherto sunk in a profound slumber, and so caused the balance to incline in favour of the new doctrines throughout the confederation. Farel's coming resembled the arrival of those fresh troops, who, just when the battle hangs doubtfully, appear upon the field, throw themselves into the thick of the fight, and decide the victory. He led the way in Switzerland for another Frenchman, whose austere faith and commanding genius were ordained to terminate the Reformation, and render the work complete. In the persons of these distinguished men, France took her part in that vast commotion which agitated Christendom. It is therefore time that we should turn our attention to France.

* Berne à Zurich, le lundi apres *Misericorde*. (Kirchoff. B. Haller, p. 85.)

BOOK XII.

THE FRENCH.—1500—1526.

ONE essential character of Christianity is, its Universality. Very different in this respect are the religions of particular countries that men have invented. Adapting themselves to this or that nation, and the point of progress which it has reached, they hold it fixed and motionless at that point—or if from any extraordinary cause the people are carried forward, their religion is left behind, and so becomes useless to them.

There has been a religion of Egypt—of Greece—of Rome, and even of Judea. Christianity is the only religion of mankind.

It has for its origin in man—sin; and this is a character that appertains not merely to one race, but which is the inheritance of all mankind. Hence, as

meeting the highest necessities of our common nature, the gospel is received as from God, at once by the most barbarous nations, and the most civilized communities. Without deifying national peculiarities, like the religion of antiquity, it nevertheless does not destroy them, as modern cosmopolism aims to do. It does better, for it sanctifies, ennobles, and raises them to a holy oneness, by the new and living principle it communicates to them.

The introduction of the Christian religion into the world has produced an incalculable change in history. There had previously been only a history of nations—there is now a history of mankind; and the idea of an education of human nature as a whole—an education, the work of Jesus Christ himself—is become like a

compass for the historian, the key of history, and the hope of nations.

But the effects of the Christian religion are seen not merely among all nations, but in all the successive periods of their progress.

When it first appeared, the world resembled a torch about to expire in darkness, and Christianity called forth anew a heavenly flame.

In a later age, the barbarian nations had rushed upon the Roman territories, carrying havoc and confusion wherever they came; and Christianity, holding up the cross against the desolating torrent, had subdued, by its influence, the half-savage children of the north, and moulded society anew.

Yet an element of corruption lay hidden in the religion carried by devoted missionaries among these rude populations. Their faith had come to them almost as much from Rome as from the Bible. Ere long that element expanded; man everywhere usurped the place of God—the distinguishing character of the church of Rome; and a revival of religion became necessary. This Christianity gave to man in the age of which we are treating.

The progress of the Reformation in the countries we have hitherto surveyed has shown us the new teaching rejecting the excesses of the Anapaptists, and the newly arisen prophets; but it is the shallows of incredulity which it especially encountered in the country to which we are now to turn our attention. Nowhere had bolder protests been heard against the superstitions and abuses of the church. Nowhere had there been a more striking exhibition of that love of learning, apart from, or independent of, Christianity, which often leads to irreligion. France bore within it at once two reformations—the one of man, the other of God. “Two nations were in her womb, and two manner of people were to be separated from her bowels.”*

In France not only had the Reformation to combat incredulity as well as superstition, it found a third antagonist which it had not encountered, at least in so much strength, among the Germanic population, and this was immorality. Profligacy in the church was great. Debauchery sat upon the throne of Francis the First and Catherine de Medicis; and the rigid virtues of the reformers provoked the anger of the Sardanapalus.† Wherever it came, doubtless—but especially in France—the Reformation was necessarily not only dogmatic and ecclesiastical, but, moreover, moral.

* These violent opposing influences, which the Reformation encountered at one and the same moment among the French people, gave to it a character altogether peculiar. Nowhere did it so often have its dwellings in dungeons, or bear so marked a resemblance to the Christianity of the first ages in faith and love, and in the number of its martyrs. If in those countries of which we have hitherto spoken, the Reformation was more illustrated by its triumphs, in those we are about to speak of, it was more glorious in its reverses! If elsewhere it might point to more thrones and council-chambers, here it could appeal to more scaffolds and hill-side meetings. Whoever knows in what consists the real glory of Christianity upon earth, and the features that assimilate it to its author, will study with a deep feeling of veneration and affection the history, often marked with blood, which we are now to recount.

Of those who have afterwards shone on the stage of life, the greater number have been born, and have grown up, in the provinces. Paris is like a tree which

* Gen. xxv. 23.

† Sardanapalus (Henry II.) inter scorta. (Calvini Epp. MS.)

spreads out to view its flowers and its fruit, but of which the roots draw from a distance, and from hidden depths of the soil, the nutritive juices which they transform. The Reformation followed this law.

The Alps, which had witnessed the rise of fearless Christian men in every canton, and almost in every valley of Switzerland, were destined in France also to shelter, by their lengthened shadows, the infancy of some of the earliest Reformers. For ages they had preserved their treasure more or less pure in their lofty valleys, among the inhabitants of the Piedmontese districts of Luzerne, Angrogne, and Peyrouse. The truth, which Rome had not been able to wrest from them, had spread from the heights to the hollows and base of the mountains in Provence, and in Dauphiny.

The year after the accession of Charles VIII., the son of Louis XI., and a youth of feeble health and timid character—Innocent VIII. had been invested with the Pontiff's tiara, (1484.) He had seven or eight sons by different women:—hence, according to an epigram of that age, the Romans unanimously gave him the name of *Father*.*

There was, at this time, on the southern declivities of the Alps of Dauphiny, and along the banks of the Durance, an after-growth of the ancient Vaudois opinions. “The roots,” says an old chronicler, “were continually putting forth fresh shoots in all directions.”† Bold men were heard to designate the Church of Rome the ‘church of evil spirits,’ and to maintain that it was quite as profitable to pray in a stable as in a church.

The clergy, the bishops, and the Roman legates, were loud in their outcries, and, on the 5th of May, 1487, Innocent VIII., the ‘Father’ of the Romans, issued a bull against these humble Christians. “To arms,” said the Pontiff, “to arms! and trample those heretics under your feet, as you would crush the venomous serpent.”‡

At the approach of the Legate, at the head of an army of eighteen thousand men, and a host of volunteers, drawn together by the hope of sharing in the plunder of the Vaudois, the latter abandoned their dwellings and retired to the mountains, caverns, and clefts of the rocks, as the birds flee for shelter when a storm is rising. Not a valley, a thicket, or a rock escaped their persecutors' search. Throughout the adjacent Alps, and especially on the side of Italy, these defenceless disciples of Christ were tracked like hunted deer. At last, the pope's satellites were worn out with the pursuit; their strength was exhausted, their feet could no longer scale the inaccessible retreats of the “heretics,” and their arms refused their office.

In these Alpine solitudes, then disturbed by Roman fanaticism, three leagues from the ancient town of Gap,§ in the direction of Grenoble, not far from the flowery turf that clothes the table land of Bayard's mountain, at the foot of the Mont de l'Aiguille, and near to the Col de Glaize, toward the source of the Buzon, stood, and still stands, a group of houses, half hidden by surrounding trees, and known by the name of Farel, or, in patois, *Fareau*|| On an extended plain above the neighbouring cottages, stood a house of the class to which, in France, the appellation of a “gentilhomme” is attached—a country gentleman's habitation.¶ It

* Octo nocens pueros genuit totidemque puellas.

Hunc merito poterit dicere Roma Patrem.

† In Ebreudunensi archiepiscopatu veteres Waldensium hæreticorum fibra repullularunt. (Raynald. Annales Ecclesiast. ad. ann. 1487.)

‡ Armis insurgant, eosque veluti aspidem venenosum concutent. (Bull of Innocent VIII. preserved at Cambridge. Leger Histoire des Eglises Vaudoises, ii. p. 8.)

§ Principal town of the High Alps

|| Revue du Dauphiné. July, 1837, p. 35.

¶ Grenoble to Gap, distant a quarter of an hour's journey from the last posthouse, and a stone's throw to the right from

was surrounded by an orchard, which formed an avenue to the village. Here, in those troublous times, lived a family bearing the name of Farel, of long-established reputation for piety, and, as it would seem, of noble descent.* In the year 1489, at a time when Dauphiny was groaning under the weight of papal oppression exceeding what it had ever before endured, a son was born in this modest mansion, who received the name of William. Three brothers, Daniel, Walter, and Claude, and a sister, grew up with William, and shared his sports on the banks of the Buzon, and at the foot of Mount Bayard.

His infancy and boyhood were passed on the same spot. His parents were among the most submissive thralls of Popery. "My father and mother believed everything,"† he tells us himself; and accordingly they brought up their children in the strictest observances of Romish devotion.

God had endowed William Farel with many exalted qualities, fitted to give him an ascendancy over his fellow-men. Gifted at once with a penetrating judgment, and a lively imagination, sincere and upright in his deportment, characterized by a loftiness of soul which never, under any temptation, allowed him to dissemble the convictions of his heart:—he was still more remarkable for the earnestness, the ardour, the unflinching courage, which bore him up, and carried him forward in spite of every hinderance. But, at the same time, he had the faults allied to these noble qualities, and his parents found frequent occasion to repress the violence of his disposition.

William threw himself, with his whole soul, into the same superstitious course which his credulous family had followed before him. "I am horror struck," said he, at a later period, "when I think on the *hours*, the prayers, the divine honours, which I have offered myself, and caused others to offer, to the cross, and such like vanities."‡

Four leagues distant from Gap, to the south, near Tallard, on a hill which overlooks the impetuous waters of the Durance, was a place in high repute, at that time, called La Sainte Croix. William was but seven or eight years old when his parents thought fit to take him thither on a pilgrimage.§ "The cross you will see there," said they, "is made of the wood of the very cross on which Jesus Christ was crucified."

The family set forth on their journey, and on reaching the object of their veneration, cast themselves prostrate before it. After they had gazed awhile on the holy wood of the cross, and the copper appertaining to it—the latter, as the priest told them, "made of the basin in which our Saviour washed the feet of his disciples:"—the pilgrims cast their eyes on a little crucifix which was attached to the cross. "When the devils send us hail and thunder," resumed the priest, "this crucifix moves so violently, that one would think it wanted to get loose from the cross to put the devils to flight, and all the while it keeps throwing out sparks

of fire against the storm; were it not for this, the whole country would be swept bare."*

These pious pilgrims were greatly affected at the recital of such prodigies. "Nobody," continued the priest, "sees or knows anything of these things, except myself and this man here . . ." The pilgrims turned their heads, and saw a strange looking man beside them. "It would have frightened you to look at him," says Farel: "the pupils of both his eyes seemed to be covered with white specks; whether they were so in reality, or that Satan gave them that appearance."† This uncouth-looking man, whom the unbelieving called the "priest's wizard," on being appealed to by the latter, bore testimony at once to the truth of the miracle.‡

A new episode was now accidentally introduced to complete the picture, and mingle suggestions of guilty excess with the dreams of superstition. "Up comes a young woman on some errand very different from devotion to the cross, carrying a little child wrapped in a cloak. And, behold, the priest goes to meet her, and takes hold of her and the child, and carries them straight into the chapel: never, believe me, did couple in a dance amble off more lovingly than did these two. But so blinded were we, that we took no heed of their gestures or their glances, and even had their behaviour been still more unseemly, we should have deemed it altogether right and reverent: of a truth, both the damsel and the priest understood the miracle thoroughly, and how to turn a pilgrim-visit to fair account."§

Here we are presented with a faithful picture of the religion and manners of France at the commencement of the Reformation. Morals and belief had alike been vitiated, and each stood in need of a thorough renovation. In proportion as a higher value was attached to outward rites, the sanctification of the heart had become less an object of concern—dead ordinances had everywhere usurped the place of a Christian life; and, by a revolting, yet natural, alliance, the most scandalous debauchery had been combined with the most superstitious devotion. Instances are on record of theft committed at the altar, seduction practised in the confessional—poison mingled with the eucharist—adultery perpetrated at the foot of a cross! Superstition, while ruining Christian doctrine, had ruined morality also.

There were, however, numerous exceptions to this pitiable state of things in the Christianity of the middle ages. Even a superstitious faith may be a sincere one. William Farel is an example of this. The same zeal which afterward urged him to travel incessantly from place to place, that he might spread the knowledge of Jesus Christ, then incited him to visit every spot where the church exhibited a miracle, or exacted a tribute of adoration. Dauphiny could boast of her seven wonders, which had long been sanctified in the imagination of the people.|| But the beauties of nature, by which he was surrounded, had also their influence in raising his thoughts to the Creator.

The magnificent chain of the Alps—the pinnacles covered with eternal snow—the enormous rocks, sometimes rearing their pointed summits to the sky—sometimes stretching their naked ridges on-and-on above the level clouds, and presenting the appearance of an island suspended in the air—all these wonders of creation, which, even then, were dilating the soul of Ulric Zwiingle, in the Tockenbourg, spoke with equal

the high road, is the village of the Farels. The site of the house which belonged to the father of the Farels is still pointed out. Though it is now occupied by a cottage only, its dimensions are sufficient to prove that the original structure must have been a dwelling of a superior order. The present inhabitant of the cottage bears the name of Farel. For these particulars I am indebted to M. Blanc, the pastor of Mens.

* *Guilelmum Farellum Delphinatam, nobili familia ortum. (Bezae Icones.)* Calvin, writing to Cardinal Sadolet, dwells upon the disinterestedness of Farel. *a man of such noble birth. (Opuscula, p. 148.)*

† *Du vray usage de la Croix, par Guillaume Farel, p. 237.*

‡ *Ibid. p. 232.*

§ *J'estoye fort petit et à peine je savoye lire. (Ibid. p. 237.)* La premier pelerinage auquel j'ai esté à la sainte croix. (*Ibid. p. 233.*)

* *Du vray usage de la croix, par Guillaume Farel. p. 236—239.*

† *Ibid. p. 237.*

‡ *Du vray usage de la croix, par Guillaume Farel, p. 236.*

§ Some phrases of this narrative have been a little softened. || The boiling spring, the cisterns of Sassenage, the manner of Briançon, &c.

force to the heart of William Farel, among the mountaineers of Dauphiny. He thirsted for life—for knowledge, for light; he aspired to be something great: he asked permission to study.

It was an unwelcome surprise to his father, who thought that a young noble should know nothing beyond his rosary and his sword. The universal theme of conversation at that time, was the prowess of a young countryman of William's, a native of Dauphiny, like himself, named Du Terrail, but better known by the name of Bayard, who had recently performed astonishing feats of valour in the battle of Tar, on the other side of the Alps. "Such sons as he," it was currently remarked, "are like arrows in the hand of a mighty man. Blessed is the man who has his quiver full of them!" Accordingly, Farel's father resisted his wish to become a scholar. But the youth's resolution was not to be shaken. God designed him for nobler conquests than any that are to be achieved by such as Bayard. He urged his request with repeated importunity, and the old gentleman at length gave way.*

Farel immediately applied himself to study, with surprising ardour. The masters whom he found in Dauphiny were of little service to him; and he had to contend with all the disadvantages of imperfect methods of tuition and incapable teachers.† But difficulties stimulated, instead of discouraging him; and he soon surmounted these impediments. His brothers followed his example. Daniel subsequently entered on the career of politics, and was employed on some important negotiations concerning religion.‡ Walter was admitted into the confidence of the count of Furstemberg.

Farel, ever eager in the pursuit of knowledge, having learned all that was to be learned in his native province, turned his eyes elsewhere. The fame of the university of Paris had long resounded through the Christian world. He was anxious to see "this mother of all the sciences, this true luminary of the church which never knew eclipses—this pure and polished mirror of the faith, dimmed by no cloud, sullied by no foul touch.§ He obtained permission from his parents, and set out for the capital of France.

In the course of the year 1510, or shortly after the close of that year, the young Dauphinese arrived in Paris. His native province had sent him forth a devoted adherent of the papacy—the capital was to convert him into something far different. In France the Reformation was not destined, as in Germany, to take its rise in a petty city. By whatever movement the population of the former country may at any time be agitated, the impulse is always to be traced to the metropolis. A concurrence of providential circumstances had made Paris, at the commencement of the sixteenth century, the focus from which a spark of vivifying fire might easily be emitted. The stranger from the neighbourhood of Gap, who had just found his way to the great city, an obscure and ill-instructed youth, was to receive that spark into his bosom, and to share it with many around him.

Louis XII., the father of his people, had just convened an assembly of the representatives of the French clergy at Tours. This prince seems to have anticipated the times of the Reformation, so that if that great revolution had taken place during his reign, all

France, probably, would have become Protestant. The assembly at Tours had declared that the king had a right to make war against the pope, and to carry into effect the decrees of the council of Basle. These decisions were the subject of general conversation in the colleges, as well as in the city, and at the court, and they could not fail to make a deep impression on the mind of young Farel.

Two children of royal blood were then growing up in the court of Louis. The one was a young prince of tall stature, and a striking cast of features, who evinced little moderation of character, and yielded himself unreflectingly to the mastery of his passions, so that the king was often heard to say, "That great boy will spoil all."* This was Francis of Angoulême, Duke of Valois, the king's cousin. Boisj, his governor, had taught him, however, to show great respect to letters.

The companion of Francis was his sister Margaret, who was two years older than himself. "A princess," says Brantôme, "of vigorous understanding, and great talents, both natural and acquired."† Accordingly, Louis had spared no pains in her education, and the most learned men in the kingdom were prepared to acknowledge Margaret as their patroness.

Already, indeed, a group of illustrious men was collected round the two Valois. William Budé, who, in his youth, had given himself up to self-indulgence of every kind, and especially to the enjoyment of the chase—living among his hawks, and horses, and hounds; and who, at the age of twenty-three, had suddenly altered his course of life, sold off his equipage, and applied himself to study with all the eagerness he had formerly displayed when cheering on his pack to follow the scent through field and forest:‡—Cop, the physician:—Francis Vatable, whose proficiency in Hebrew learning was admired by the Jewish doctors themselves: James Tusan, the celebrated Hellenist:—these, and other men of letters beside—encouraged by Stephen Poncher, the bishop of Paris, Louis Ruze, the "Lieutenant-Civil," and Francis de Luynes, and already protected by the two young Valois, maintained their ground against the violent attacks of the Sorbonne, who regarded the study of Greek and Hebrew as the most fearful heresy. At Paris, as in Germany and Switzerland, the restoration of religious truth was preceded by the revival of letters. But in France, the hands that prepared the materials were not appointed to construct the edifice.

Among all the doctors who then adorned the French metropolis, one of the most remarkable was a man of diminutive stature, of mean appearance, and humble birth:§ whose wit, erudition, and eloquence had an indescribable charm for all who approached him. The name of this doctor was Lefevre; he was born in 1455, at Etaples, a little town in Picardy. He had received only an indifferent education—a barbarous one, Theodore Beza calls it; but his genius had supplied the want of masters; and his piety, his learning, and the nobility of his soul, shone with a lustre so much the brighter. He had been a great traveller:—it would even appear that his desire to acquire knowledge had led him into Asia and Africa.|| So early as the year 1493, Lefevre, being then a doctor of theology, occupied the station of a professor in the University of Paris. He immediately assumed a distinguished place

* Cum a parentibus vix impetrassem ad litteras concessum. (Farel Natali Galeoto, 1927. MS. Letters of the conclave of Neuchâtel.)

† A præceptoribus precipue in Latina lingua ineptissimis institutus. (Farelli Epist.)

‡ Life of Farel, MS. at Geneva.

§ Universitatem Parisensem matrem omnium scientiarum . . . speculum fidei tersum et politum . . . (Prima Appellat Universi, an. 1396, Buleus, iv. p. 806.)

* Mezeray, vol. iv. p. 127.

† Brant. Dames Illustres, p. 331.

‡ His wife and sons came to Geneva in 1540, after his death.

§ Homunculi unus neque genere insignis. (Beza: Icones.)

|| In the 2d chapter of his Commentary on the Second Epistle to the Thessalonians is a curious story regarding Mecca and the temple there, which he relates in the style of a traveller.

among his colleagues, and, in the estimation of Erasmus, ranked above them all.*

Lefevre soon discovered that he had a peculiar task to fulfil. Though attached to the practices of the Romish Church, he conceived a desire to reform the barbarous system which then prevailed in the University; † he accordingly began to teach the various branches of philosophy with a precision hitherto unknown. He laboured to revive the study of languages and classical antiquities. He went farther than this; he perceived that when a mental regeneration is aimed at, philosophy and literature are insufficient instruments. Abandoning, therefore, the scholastic theology, which for so many ages had held an undisputed sway in the seats of learning, he applied himself to the Bible, and again introduced the study of the Holy Scriptures and evangelical science. They were no barren researches to which he addicted himself; he went straight to the heart of the Bible. His eloquence, his candour, his affability, captivated every heart. Earnest and fervent in the pulpit—in his private intercourse with his pupils he condescended to the most engaging familiarity.—“He loves me exceedingly,” was the language of Glareanus, one of the number, when writing to his friend, Zwingle; “he is all frankness and kindness—he sings, he plays, he disputes, and then laughs with me.”‡ Accordingly, a great number of disciples, from every country, were gathered around his chair.

This man, learned as he was, submitted himself all the while, with childlike simplicity, to all the ordinances of the Church. He passed as much time in the churches as in his closet—so that a sympathetic union seemed established beforehand between the old doctor of Picardy and the young student of Dauphiny. When two natures, so congenial as these, are brought within the same sphere, though it be the wide and agitated circle of a capital city, their reciprocal attraction must at last place them in contact with each other. In his pious pilgrimages, young Farel soon observed an old man, by whose devotion he was greatly interested. He remarked how he fell on his knees before the images, how long he remained in that posture, how fervently he seemed to pray, and how devoutly he repeated his *hours*. “Never,” says Farel, “had I heard a chanter chant the mass more reverently.”§ This was Lefevre. Farel immediately felt a strong desire to become acquainted with him:—and great, indeed, was his joy when the venerable man met his approaches with kindness. He had now found what he had come to the capital to seek. Henceforth, his chief delight was to converse with the doctor of Etaples, to listen to his instructions, to practise his admirable precepts, and to kneel with him in pious adoration at the same shrine. Often were the aged Lefevre and his youthful disciple seen assisting each other to adorn the image of the Virgin with flowers—while far removed from Paris, far removed from the throng of the collegiate hall, they murmured in concert their earnest prayers to the blessed Mary.”||

The attachment of Farel to Lefevre was generally noticed, and the respect inspired by the old doctor was reflected on his pupil. This illustrious connexion was the means of withdrawing the young Dauphinese from his obscurity. He soon acquired a reputation for his

zeal; and many pious persons of the wealthier order intrusted him with sums of money, to be applied to the support of poor students.*

Some time elapsed before Lefevre and his disciple attained to a clear perception of the truth. It was neither the hope of a rich benefice, nor any propensity to an irregular life, that bound Farel so firmly to the cause of Popery: a spirit like his was not to be influenced by motives so sordid. The pope, in his eyes, was the visible chief of the Church—a sort of divinity, at whose bidding, souls were rescued from perdition. If any one, in his hearing, presumed to say a word against the venerated Pontiff, he gnashed his teeth like a raging wolf, and, if he could, would have called down thunder from heaven to overwhelm the guilty wretch in ruin and confusion. “I believe,” he said, “in the cross, in pilgrimages, in images, in vows, in relics. What the priest holds in his hands, shuts up in the box, eats himself, and gives to be eaten by others—that is my only true God—and, to me, there is no God beside, in heaven or on earth!”† “Satan,” he says afterward, “had lodged the pope and Popery, and all that is of himself, so deeply in my heart, that, even in the pope’s own heart, they could have sunk no deeper.”

And thus it was, that while Farel seemed to be seeking God, his piety decayed, and superstition gathered strength in his soul. He has himself, in forcible language, described his condition at that time:‡ “Oh!” says he, “how I shudder at myself and mysins, when I think on it all; and how great and wonderful a work of God it is, that man should ever be delivered from such an abyss!”

The deliverance in his own case was wrought by little and little. In the course of his reading, his attention had at first been engaged by profane authors; but, finding no food for his piety in these, he had set himself to study the lives of the saints; infatuation had led him to these legends, and he quitted them more miserably infatuated still § He then addressed himself to several of the celebrated doctors of the age; but these, instead of imparting tranquillity to his mind, only aggravated his wretchedness. He next resolved to study the ancient philosophers, and attempted to learn Christianity from Aristotle; but again his hopes were frustrated. Books, images, relics, Aristotle, the Virgin, and the saints—all were unavailing. His eager spirit wandered from one broken cistern of human wisdom to another, and turned away from each in succession, unrelieved of the thirst that consumed it.

At last, remembering that the pope allowed the writings of the Old and New Testament to be called the “*Holy Bible*,” Farel betook himself to the perusal of these, as Luther, in the cloister of Erfurth had done before him; and then, to his dismay,|| he found that the existing state of things was such as could in no way be reconciled with the rule of Scripture. He was now, we might think, on the very point of coming at the truth, when, all at once, the darkness rolled back upon him with redoubled weight, and the depths closed over him again. “Satan,” says he, “started up in haste, that he might not lose his possession, and wrought in me as he was wont.”¶ A terrible struggle between the word of God and the word of the church now ensued in his heart. If he fell in with any passage of Scripture opposed to the practice of the Romish

* Fabro, viro quo vix in multis millibus reperias vel integriorem vel humaniorem, says Erasmus. (Er. Epp. p. 174.)

† Barbariem nobilissimæ academie incumbentem detruhi. (Bezae Icones.)

‡ Supra modum me amat totus integer et candidus, mecum cantillat Iudit, disputat ridet mecum. (Zw. Epp. p. 36.)

§ Ep. de Farel à tous seigneurs, peuples et pasteurs.

|| Floribus jubebat Marianum idolum, dumuna soli murrurarem preces Marianas ad idolum, ornari. (Farellus Pelli-cano, an. 1566.)

* Manuscript at Geneva.

† Ep. de Farel—à tous seigneurs, peuples et pasteurs.

‡ Quo plus pergere et promovere adnitebar, eo amplius retrocedebam. (Far. Galeoto, MS. Letters at Neuchatel.)

§ Quæ de sanctis conscripta offendebam, verum ex stulto insanum faciebant. (Ibid.)

|| Farel à tous seigneurs.

¶ Ibid.

church, he cast down his eyes in perplexity, not daring to credit what he read.* "Ah!" he would say, shrinking away from the Bible, "I do not well understand these things; I must put a different construction on these passages from that which they seem to me to bear. I must hold to the interpretation of the church, or rather, of the pope!"

One day when he was reading the Bible, a doctor, who chanced to come in, rebuked him sharply. "No one," said he, "ought to read the Holy Scriptures until he has studied philosophy, and taken his degree in *arts*." This was a preparation the apostles had never required; but Farel believed him. "I was the most unhappy of men," he tells us, "for I turned away my eyes from the light."[†]

The young Dauphinese was now visited with a fresh paroxysm of Romish fervor. His imagination was inflamed by the legends of the saints. The severities of monastic discipline were to him a powerful attraction. There was a cluster of gloomy cells in a wood not far distant from Paris, occupied by an establishment of Carthusians: hither he often repaired as an humble visitor, and took part in the austerities of the monks. "I was busied day and night," he says, "in serving the devil after the fashion of the pope—that man of sin. I had my pantheon in my heart, and so many intercessors, so many saviours, so many gods, that I might well have passed for a Popish register."

The darkness could never grow thicker—but now the morning star was to arise; and the voice of Lefevre was to give the signal of its appearance. The doctor of Etaples had already caught some gleams of light: an inward conviction assured him that the church could not remain in the state in which she then was; and often on his way homeward, after chanting the mass, or paying adoration to an image, the old man would turn to his youthful disciple, and say in a solemn tone, as he grasped him by the hand: "My dear William, God will change the face of the world—and you will see it!"[‡] Farel did not properly conceive his meaning. But Lefevre did not stop at these mysterious words; and the great change which was wrought in his mind about this time was appointed to produce a similar change in the mind of his pupil.

The old doctor had undertaken a task of immense labour; he was carefully collecting the legends of the saints and martyrs, and arranging them in the order in which their names are inserted in the calendar. Two months had already been printed, when one of those rays of light that come from on high, flashed on a sudden into his soul. He could no longer overcome the disgust which superstitions so puerile must ever excite in a Christian heart. The grandeur of the word of God made him perceive the wretched folly of such fables. They now appeared to him but as "brimstone, fit only to kindle the fire of idolatry."[§] He abandoned his work, and, casting aside all these legends, turned affectionately to the Holy Scriptures. At that moment, when Lefevre, forsaking the marvellous histories of the saints, laid his hand on the word of God, a new era opened in France—and the Reformation commenced its course.

Weaned, as we have seen, from the fictions of the Breviary, Lefevre began to study the Epistles of St. Paul: the light grew rapidly in his heart, and he soon communicated to his disciples that knowledge of the

truth, which we find in his commentaries.* Those were strange doctrines for the schools and for the world around him, which were then first heard in Paris, and disseminated by printing presses through all Christendom. We may imagine that the young students who listened were aroused, impressed, and changed; and that in this way the aurora of a brighter day had dawned upon France prior to the year 1512.

The great truth of justification by faith, which at once overturns the subtleties of the schools and the popish doctrine of the efficacy of works, was boldly proclaimed in the very bosom of Sorbonne itself. "It is God alone," said the teacher, (and it might have seemed as if the very roofs of the university would cry out against such new sounds,) "It is God alone, who by his grace justifies unto eternal life."[†] There is a righteousness of our own works, and a righteousness which is of grace—the one a thing of man's invention, the other coming from God—the one earthly and passing away, the other divine and everlasting—the one the shadow and semblance, the other the light and the truth—the one discovering sin and bringing the fear of death—the other revealing grace for the attainment of life!"[‡]

"What will you then say?" enquired the hearers, to whom such sounds appeared to contradict the teaching of four centuries, "will you say that any one man was ever justified without works?"—"One, do you ask?" returned Lefevre, "why they are innumerable. How many shameful sinners have eagerly asked to be baptized, having nothing but faith in Christ alone, and who, if they died the moment after, entered into the life of the blessed without works."[§] "If, then, we are not justified by works, it is in vain that we should do them," replied some. To this the doctor made answer, and possibly the other reformers might not have altogether gone with him in his reply:—"Quite the contrary—it is not in vain. If I hold up a mirror to the sun, it receives in it his image: the more I polish and clean the mirror, the brighter does the reflection of the sun shine in it; but if I suffer it to tarnish and dull, the solar brilliancy is lost. So it is with justification in those who lead an unholly life." In this passage, Lefevre, like St. Augustin, in several parts of his writings, does not, perhaps, sufficiently mark the distinction between justification and sanctification. The doctor of Etaples often reminds us of him of Hippone. Those who lead an unholly life have never received justification—hence such cannot lose it. But Lefevre, perhaps, intended to say that the Christian, when he falls into any sin, loses the assurance of his salvation, and not his salvation itself.[§] To this way of stating it there would be nothing to object.

This a new life and a new character of teaching had penetrated within the University of Paris. The doctrine of Faith which, in the first ages, had been preached in Gaul, by Potinus and Ireneus, was again heard.

* The first edition of his Commentary on the Epistles of St. Paul bears the date, if I mistake not, of 1512. There is a copy of it in the Royal Library at Paris. The second edition is that to which my citations refer. The learned Simon, in his observations on the New Testament, says, "James Lefevre must be ranked among the most able commentators of his age."

† Solus enim Deus est qui hanc justitiam per fidem tradit, qui sola gratia ad vitam justificat eternam. (Fabri Comm. in Epp. Pauli, p. 70)

‡ Illa umbratile vestigium atque signum, hæc lux et veritas est. (Fabri Comm. in Epp. Pauli, p. 70)

§ The believer may well bless God for this truth, namely, that he may lose the ('sentiment') assurance of his salvation, without his salvation being endangered. The cloud may, and it is believed often has, involved the vessel during the greater part of her course, which is not the less advancing unto the haven where she would be. Is Christ in the vessel?—is that which concerns us.—Tr.

¶ Oculos demittens, visis non credebam. (Farel Natali Galotee.)

† Oculos a luce avertbam.

‡ A tous seigneurs.—See also his letter to Pellican. Ante annos plus minus quadraginta, me manu apprehensum ita alloquebatur—"Guillaume, oportet orbem immutari et tu videbis!"

§ A tous seigneurs, pouples et pasteurs.

Thenceforward, there were two different parties, and two different peoples in that celebrated school. The instructions given by Lefevre—the zeal of his disciples, formed a striking contrast to the dry teaching of the majority of its doctors, and the frivolous conversation of the generality of the students. In the colleges, more time was lost in committing to memory different parts in comedies, masquerading, and mountebank farces, than was given to the study of God's word. In such farces it not unfrequently happened, that the respect due to the higher classes, the nobility, and even royalty itself, was forgotten. At the very time we are writing of, the Parliament intervened, and summoning before them the principals of several of the colleges, prohibited those indulgent tutors from suffering such comedies to be acted in their houses.*

But a mightier intervention than the mandates of Parliament came to the correction of these disorders in the University; CHRIST was preached among its inmates. Great was the commotion on its benches; and the minds of the students were almost as generally occupied with discussions of the doctrines of the Gospel, as in scholastic subtilties or theatrical exhibitions. Some of those whose lives were least able to bear the light, were yet heard taking the part of works, and feeling instinctively that the doctrine of Faith condemned the licentiousness of their lives—they maintained that St. James, in his epistle, was at variance with the writings of St. Paul. Lefevre, resolving to stand by and protect the treasure he had found, showed how the two apostles agreed: "Does not St. James say," asked he, "that every good and perfect gift cometh down from above—and who will contest that justification is the perfect gift, the excellent grace! . . . If we see a man moving, the breathing we see in him is to us the sign of life. Thus works are necessary, but only as signs of that living faith which is accompanied by justification.† Is it the eye-salve or lotion which gives light to the eye? No; it is the light of the sun. Just so, our works are but as eye-salves and lotions; the beam that the sun sends forth from above is justification itself."‡

Farel hung upon these sounds with intense interest. Instantly this word of a Salvation by Grace had upon his soul an unspeakable power of attraction. Every objection fell—every difficulty vanished. Scarcely had Lefevre brought forward this doctrine, when Farel embraced it with all his heart and mind. He had known enough of labour and conflict to be convinced that he had no power to save himself; therefore, when he saw in God's word that God saves FREELY, he believed God. "Lefevre," exclaimed he, "extricated me from the delusive thought of human deservings, and taught me how that all is of Grace—which I believed as soon as it was spoken."§ Thus was gained to the faith by a conversion as prompt and decisive as that of St. Paul himself, that Farel who, to use the words of Theodore Beza, undismayed by threatening, despising the shame and enduring his cross, won for Christ—Montbelliard, Neufchatel, Lausanne, Aigle, and at last Geneva itself.||

Meanwhile Lefevre, following up his teaching, and taking delight in employing contrasts and paradoxes, embodying weighty truths, extolled the sublime mysteries of redemption. "Oh!" he exclaimed, "the unspeakable greatness of that exchange—the sinless One

is condemned, and he who is guilty goes free—the Blessing bears the curse, and the cursed is brought into blessing—the Life dies, and the dead live—the Glory is whelmed in darkness, and he who knew nothing but confusion of face is clothed with glory."*—The pious teacher going yet deeper into his theme, recognised that all salvation emanates from the sovereignty of God's love: "They who are saved," said he, "are saved by the electing grace and will of God, not by their own will. Our election, our will, our working, is all in vain; the alone election of God is all powerful! When we are converted, it is not our conversion which makes us the elect of God, but it is the grace, will, and election of God, which works our conversion."†

But Lefevre did not stop short in doctrines; if he gave to God the glory—he turned to man for "the obedience," and urged the obligations flowing from the exceeding privileges of the Christian. "If thou art a member of Christ's church," said he, "thou art a member of his body; if thou art of his body, then thou art full of the Divine nature, for the 'fulness of the God-head dwelleth in him bodily.' Oh! if men could but enter into the understanding of this privilege, how purely, chastely, and holily would they live, and how contemptible, when compared with the glory within them—that glory which the eye of flesh cannot see—would they deem all the glory of this world."‡

Lefevre felt that the office of a teacher in heavenly things was a high distinction: he discharged that office with unvarying fidelity. The dissolute morals of the age, and more especially of the clergy, roused his indignation, and was the theme of many a stern rebuke: "What a reproach," said he, "to hear a bishop asking persons to drink with him, gambling, shaking the dice, and spending his whole time in hawking, sporting, hunting, hallooing in the chase of wild beasts, and sometimes with his feet in houses of ill-fame. § . . . O men, worthy of a more signal retribution than Sardanapalus himself!"

Such was the preaching of Lefevre. Farel listened, trembling with emotion—received all into his soul, and went forward in that new path now suddenly made plain before him. Nevertheless, there was one article of his former creed which he could not as yet entirely relinquish; it was the invocation of the saints. The noblest minds have often these lingering remains of darkness after the light has broken in upon them. Farel heard with astonishment the teacher declare that Christ alone should be invoked. "Our religion," said Lefevre, "has only one foundation, one object, one head, Jesus Christ, blessed for ever! he hath trodden the winepress alone. Let us not then take the name of Paul, of Apollos, or of Peter. The cross of Christ alone opens heaven, and shuts the gate of hell." These words awakened a struggle in the soul of Farel. On the one hand, he beheld the whole army of saints with the Church—on the other, Jesus Christ and His preacher. One moment he inclined to the one side, the next to the other. It was the last hold of ancient error, and his final struggle. He hesitated; still clinging to those venerated names before which Rome bends adoringly. At last the decisive blow was struck from above; the scales fell from his eyes; Jesus was seen by him as the only object of adoration. "From that moment," said he, "the Papacy was dethroned from my mind.

* Crevier Hist. de l'Université, V. p. 95.

† Opera signa vivæ fidei, quam justificatio sequitur. (Farel Comm. in Epp. Pauli, p. 73.)

‡ Sed radius desuper a sole vibratus, justificatio est. (Ibid. p. 73.)

§ Farel. A tous seigneurs.

|| Nullis difficultatibus fractus, nullis minis, convitiis, verberibus denique indictis terribus. (Beza Icones.)

* O ineffabile commercium . . . (Farel Comm. 145 verso.)

† Inefficax est ad hoc ipsum nostra voluntas, nostra electio; Dei autem electio efficacissima et potentissima, &c. (Ibid. p. 89. verso.)

‡ Si de corpore Christi, divinitate repletus es. (Farel Comm. p. 176. verso.)

§ Et virgunculas gremio tenentem, cum suavis sermones miscentem. (Ibid. p. 208.)

I began to abhor it as devilish, and the holy word of God held the supreme place in my heart.”*

Events in the great world accelerated the advance of Farel and his friends. Thomas De Vio, who was subsequently opposed at Augsburg against Luther, having contended in a printed work that the Pope was absolute monarch of the Church, Louis XII. called the attention of the University of Paris to the work in February, 1512. James Allman, one of the youngest of its doctors, a man of rare genius and unwearied application, read, at one of the meetings of the faculty of theology, a refutation of the Cardinal's arguments, which drew forth the plaudits of the assembly.†

What must have been the effect of such discussions on the young disciples of Lefevre? Could they hesitate when the university itself manifested an impatience of the Papal yoke? If the main body were in motion, should not they be skirmishing at the advanced posts? “It was necessary,” said Farel, “that the Papal authority should be very gradually expelled from my mind, for the first shock did not bring it down.”‡ He contemplated the abyss of superstitions in which he had been plunged; standing on its brink, he again surveyed its gloomy depths, and drew back with a feeling of terror:—“Oh!” ejaculated he, “what horror do I feel for myself and my sins when I think of the past. § Lord,” he continued, “would that my soul served Thee with living faith after the example of thy faithful servants! Would that I had sought after and honoured Thee as I have yielded my heart to the mass, and served that magic wafer,—giving all honour to that!” Grieving over his past life, he with tears repeated those words of St. Augustine, “I have come too late to the knowledge of Thee! too late have I begun to love Thee!”

Farel had found Christ; and safe in harbour he reposed in peace after the storm.¶

“Now,” said he, “everything appears to me to wear a different aspect. ¶ Scripture is elucidated, prophecy is opened, and the epistles carry wonderful light into my soul.** A voice before unknown—the voice of Christ, my shepherd and my teacher, speaks to me with power.”†† So great was the change in him that “instead of the murderous heart of a ravening wolf,” he came back, as he himself tells us, “like a gentle and harmless lamb, with his heart entirely withdrawn from the Pope and given to Jesus Christ.”‡‡

Escaped from so great an evil, he turned toward the Bible,§§ and applied himself zealously to the acquirement of Greek and Hebrew.¶¶ He was unremitting in his study of the Holy Scriptures, esteeming them more and more, and daily receiving more light. He continued to resort to the churches of the established worship—but what did he there hear!—Responses and chauntings innumerable, words spoken without understanding. ¶¶ Often, when standing among the throng that gathered round an image or an altar, he would exclaim,—“Thou alone art God! Thou alone art wise! Thou alone art good!”†† Nothing should

be taken away—nothing added to thy holy law—for Thou only art the Lord, and it is Thou alone who claimest and has a right to our obedience.”

Thus all human teachers were brought down from the height to which his imagination had raised them, and he recognized no authority but God and his word. The doctors of Paris, by their persecution of Lefevre, had long since lost all place in his esteem; but ere long Lefevre himself, his well-beloved guide and counsellor, was no more to him than his fellow-man: he loved and venerated him as long as he lived—but God alone was become his teacher.

Of all the Reformers, Farel and Luther are the two best known to us in their early spiritual history, and most memorable for the struggles they had to pass through. Earnest and energetic, men of conflict and strife, they bore the brunt of many an onset before they were permitted to be at peace. Farel is the pioneer of the Reformation in Switzerland and in France. He threw himself into the wood, and with his axe cleared a passage through a forest of abuses. Calvin followed, as Luther was followed by Melancthon, resembling him in his office of theologian and “master-builder.” These two men,—who bear some resemblance to the legislators of antiquity, the one in its graceful, the other in its severer style,—settle, establish, and give laws to the territory won by the two former. And yet, if Farel reminds us of Luther, we must allow that it is only in one aspect of the latter that we are reminded of him. Luther, besides his superior genius, had, in all that concerned the Church, a moderation and prudence, an acquaintance with past experience, a comprehensive judgment, and even a power of order, which was not found in an equal degree in the Reformer of Dauphiny.

Farel was not the only young Frenchman into whose soul a new light was, at this time, introduced. The doctrines which flowed from the lips of the far-famed doctor of Etaples fermented among the crowd of his hearers; and in his school were formed and trained the bold men who were ordained to struggle, even to the very foot of the scaffold. They listened, compared, discussed, and argued with characteristic vivacity. It is a probable conjecture, that we may number among the handful of scholars who then espoused the Truth, young Pierre Olivetan, born at Noyon, at the end of the fifteenth century, who afterwards revised Lefevre's translation of the Bible into French, and seems to have been the first who so presented the doctrines of the Gospel as to draw the attention of a youth of his family, also a native of Noyon, who became the most distinguished of all the leaders of the Reformation.*

Thus, before 1512, at a time when Luther had made no impression on the world, but was taking a journey to Rome on some business touching the interest of some monks, and when Zwingle had not even begun to apply himself in earnest to Biblical studies, but was traversing the Alps, in company with the confederated forces, to fight under the Pope's banner,—Paris and France heard the sound of those life-giving truths, whence the Reformation was destined to come forth—and there were found souls prepared to propagate those sounds, who received them with holy affection. Accordingly, Theodore Beza, in speaking of Lefevre of Etaples, observes, that “it was he who boldly began the revival of the holy religion of Jesus Christ:”† and he remarks, that, “as in ancient times, the school of Isocrates had the reputation of furnishing the best orators, so, from the lecture-rooms of the doctor of Etaples,

* Biographie Universelle, Article Olivetan. Histoire du Calvinisme, par Maimbourg, 63.

† Et purioris religionis instaurationem fortiter aggressus (beza icones.)

* Farel. A tous seigneurs.

† Crevier Hist. de l'Université de Paris, v. p. 81.

‡ Farel. A tous seigneurs.

§ Ibid.

¶ Animus per varia jactatus, verum nactus portum, soli hæsit. (Farel Galeoto.)

¶ Jam rerum nova facies. (Ibid.)

¶ Notior scriptura, apertiores prophete, lucidiores apostoli (Ibid.)

¶ Agnita pastoris, magistri et præceptoris Christi vox. (Ibid.)

* Farel. A tous seigneurs.

§ Lego sacra ut causam inveniam. (Farel Galeoto.)

¶ Life of Farel. MSS. of Geneva and of Choupard.

¶ Clamores multi, cantiones innumere. (¶ gal Galeoto, MSS. Neufchâtel.)

* Veretu solus Deus! (Ibid.)

went forth many of the best men of the age, and of the Church.”*

The Reformation was not, therefore, in France, an importation from strangers; it took its birth on the French territory. Its seed germinated in Paris—its earliest shoots were struck in the University itself, that ranked second in power in Romanized Christendom. God deposited the first principles of the work in the kindly hearts of some inhabitants of Picardy and Dauphiny, before it had begun in any other country of the globe. The Swiss Reformation, was, as we have seen, † independent of that of Germany. The work sprung up in these different countries at one and the same time, without communication between them, as in a field of battle, the various divisions that compose the army are seen in motion at the same instant, although the order to advance has not passed from one to the other, but all have heard the word of command proceeding from a higher authority. The time had come—the nations were ripe, and God was everywhere beginning the revival of His Church.

If we regard dates, we must then confess that neither to Switzerland nor to Germany belongs the honour of having been first in the work, although, hitherto, only those countries have contended for it. That honour belongs to France. This is a fact that we are the more careful to establish, because it has possibly, until now, been overlooked. Without dwelling upon the influence exercised by Lefevre, directly or indirectly, on many persons, and especially on Calvin—let us consider that which he had on one of his disciples, Farel, himself—and the energy of action which that servant of God from that hour manifested. Can we, after that, withhold our conviction that even though Zwingle and Luther should never have been born, there would still have been a movement of reformation in France? It is, of course, impossible to estimate how far it might have extended: we must even acknowledge that the report of what was passing on the other side of the Rhine and the Jura, afterward accelerated and animated the progress of the reformers of France. But it was they who were first awakened by the voice of that trumpet which sounded from heaven in the sixteenth century, and who were earliest in the field, on foot, and under arms.

Nevertheless, Luther is the great workman of the sixteenth century, and in the fullest import of the term, the *first* reformer. Lefevre is not as complete as Calvin, Farel, or Luther. There is about him that which reminds us of Wittenberg—of Geneva—but a something beside, that tells us of the Sorbonne; he is the foremost Catholic in the reformation movement, and the latest of the reformers in the Catholic movement. To the last, he continues a go-between—a mediator—not well understood; reminding us that there is some connexion between the old things and the new, which might seem forever separated as by a great gulf. Repulsed and persecuted by Rome, he yet holds to Rome, by a slender thread which he is unwilling to sever. Lefevre, of Etaples, has a place to himself in the theology of the sixteenth century: he is the connecting-link between ancient and modern times, and the man in whom the theology of the middle ages passed into the theology of the Reformation.

Thus, in the University, the truth was already working. But the Reformation was not to be an affair of college life. It was to establish its power among the great ones of the earth, and to have some witnesses even at the king's court.

The young Francis of Angoulême, cousin-german

and son-in-law to Louis XII., succeeded him on the throne. His manly beauty and address, his courage, and his love of pleasure, rendered him the most accomplished knight of his time. His ambition, however, rose higher, it was his aim to be a great and even a gracious prince; provided only that all should bend before his sovereign authority. Valour, taste for literature and gallantry, are three words that well express the genius of Francis, and of the age in which he figured. At a somewhat later period, the like features appear in Henry IV., and Louis XIV. These princes wanted that which the gospel communicates; and, although there has been no time when the nation did not contain in it the elements of sanctity and of Christian elevation, it may be said that these great monarchs of modern France have, in a measure, stamped upon that people the impress of their own characters, if it be not more correct to say that they themselves were the faithful expression of the character of the nation over which they presided. If the evangelic doctrine had entered France under the auspices of the most famed of the Valois princes, it might have brought with it to the nation that which France has not—a spiritual turn of mind, a Christian purity, and an intelligence in heavenly things, which would have been the completion of the national character in what most contributes to the strength and greatness of a people.

It was under the rule of Francis I. that Europe, as well as France, passed from the middle ages to the range of modern history. It was then that that new world, which was bursting forth on all sides, when that prince ascended the throne, grew and entered upon possession. Two different classes of men exercised an influence in moulding the new order of society. On the one hand were the men of faith, who were also men of wisdom and moral purity, and close to them, the writers of the court—the friends of this world and its profligacy—who, by their licentious principles, contributed to the deprivation of morals as much as the former served to reform them.

If, in the days of Francis the First, Europe had not witnessed the rise of the Reformers, but had been given up by God's righteous judgment to the uncontrolled influence of unbelieving innovators, her fate and that of Christianity had been decided. The danger seemed great. For a considerable time, the two classes of combatants, the opposers of the Pope, and those who opposed the Gospel, were mixed up together; and as both claimed *liberty*, they seemed to resort to the same arms against the same enemies. In the cloud of dust raised on the field, an unpractised eye could not distinguish between them. If the former had allowed themselves to be led away by the latter, all would have been lost. Those who assailed the hierarchy passed quickly into extremes of impiety, urging on the people to a frightful catastrophe. The Papacy itself contributed to bring about that catastrophe, accelerating by its ambition and disorders the extinction of any truth and life still left in the Church.

But God called forth the Reformation,—and Christianity was preserved. The Reformers, who had shouted for liberty, were, ere long, heard calling to *obedience*. The very men who had cast down that throne whence the Roman Pontiff issued his oracles, prostrated themselves before the ‘word of the Lord.’ Then was seen a clear and definite separation, and war was declared between the two divisions of the assailants. The one party had desired liberty that themselves might be free,—the others had claimed it for the word of God. The Reformation became the most formidable antagonist of that incredulity to which Rome can show leniency. Having restored liberty to the Church, the Reformers restored religion to socio-

* Sic ex Stap ulensis auditorio præstantissimi viri plurimi prædicant. (Ibid.)

† Vol. ii. p. 267.

ty; and this last was, of the two, the gift most needed.

The various votaries of incredulity, for a while, hoped to reckon among their number Margaret of Valois, Duchess of Alençon, whom Francis loved with especial tenderness, and, as Brantôme informs us, used to call his "darling."* The same tastes and general information distinguished both brother and sister. Of fine person, like Francis, Margaret united to those eminent qualities, which in their combination constitutes remarkable characters, these gentler virtues which win the affection. In the gay world, the festive entertainment, the royal, the imperial court, she shone in queenly splendour, charming and captivating all hearts. Passionately fond of literature, and gifted with no ordinary genius, it was her delight to shut herself in her apartment, and there indulge in the pleasures of reflection, study, and meditation. But her ruling desire was to do good and prevent evil. When ambassadors from foreign countries had presented themselves before the king, they were accustomed afterwards to pay their respects to Margaret, and "they were greatly pleased with her," observes Brantôme, "and returning to their homes noised abroad the fame of her:" and he adds, that "the king would often hand over to her matters of importance, leaving them for her to decide."†

This celebrated princess was through life distinguished by her strict morals; but whilst many who carry austerity on their lips, indulge laxity in conduct, the very reverse of this was seen in Margaret. Blameless in conduct, she was not altogether irreplicable in the use of her pen. Far from wondering at this, we might rather wonder that a woman, dissolute as was Louisa of Savoy, should have a daughter so pure as Margaret. Attending the court, in its progress through the provinces, she employed herself in describing the manners of the time, and especially those of the priests and monks. "On these occasions," says Brantôme, "I often used to hear her recount stories to my grandmother, who constantly accompanied her in her litter, as *dame de honneur*, and had charge of her writing desk."‡ According to some, we have here the origin of the *Heptameron*; but more recent and esteemed critics have satisfied themselves that Margaret had no hand in forming that collection, in some parts chargeable with worse than levity, but that it was the work of Desperiers, her gentleman of the chamber.§

This Margaret, so charming, so full of wit, and living in so polluted an atmosphere, was to be one of the first won over by the religious impulse just then communicated to France. But how, in the centre of so profane a Court, and amid the sounds of its licentious gossip, was the Duchess of Alençon to be reached by the Reformation? Her soul, led to look to heaven,

was conscious of wants that the Gospel alone could meet. Grace can act in every place, and Christianity, — which even before an apostle had appeared in Rome, had some followers among the household of Narcissus, and in the palace of Nero,* — in the day of its revival rapidly made its way to the court of Francis the First. There were ladies and lords who spoke to that princess concerning the things of faith, and the sun which was then rising on France, sent forth one of its earliest beams on a man of eminent station, by whom its light was immediately reflected on the Duchess of Alençon.

Among the most distinguished lords of the court was Count William of Montbrun, a son of Cardinal Bricconnet of St. Malo, who had entered the church on his being left a widower. Count William, devoted to studious pursuits, himself also took orders, and was bishop, first of Lodéac, and afterwards of Meaux. Although twice sent on an embassy to Rome, he returned to Paris unseduced, by the attractions and splendours of Leo X.

At the period of his return to France, a ferment was beginning to manifest itself. Farel, as Master of Arts, was lecturing in the college of Cardinal Lemoine, one of the four leading establishments of the faculty of Theology of Paris, ranking equal with the Sorbonne. Two countrymen of Lefevre, Arnaud and Gerard Roussel, and some others, enlarged this little circle of free and noble spirits. Bricconnet, who had so recently quitted the festivals of Rome, was all amazement at what had been doing in Paris during his absence. Thirsting after the truth, he renewed his former intercourse with Lefevre, and soon passed precious hours in company with the Doctor or the Sorbonne, Farel, the two Roussels, and their friends.† Full of humility, the illustrious prelate sought instruction from the very humblest, but, above all, he sought it of the Lord himself. "I am all dark," said he, "waiting for the grace of the divine favour, from which my sins have banished me." His mind was as if dazzled by the glory of the Gospel. His eye-lids sunk under its unheeded brightness. "The eyes of all mankind," exclaimed he, "cannot take in the whole light of that sun!"‡

Lefevre had commended the Bishop to the Bible, and pointed to it as that guiding clue which ever brings us back to the original truth of Christianity, such as it existed before all schools, sects, ordinances and traditions, and as that mighty agent, by means of which the religion of Jesus Christ is renewed in power. Brignonnet read the Scriptures. "Such is the sweetness of that heavenly manna," said he, "that it never cloy, the more we taste of it, the more we long for it."§ The simple and prevailing truth of SALVATION filled him with joy; — he had found Christ, he had found God himself. "What vessel," he exclaimed, "is capable of receiving into it such vast and inexhaustible grace. But the mansion expands with our desire to lodge the good guest. FAITH is the quarter-master who alone can find room for him, or rather who alone can enable us to dwell in him." But, at the same time, the excellent bishop grieved to see that living word which the Reformation gave to the world so slighted at court, in the city, and among the people; and he exclaimed, "Singular innovation, so worthy of acceptance, and yet so ill received!"

* Vie des Dames Illustres, p. 333, Hayo, 1740.

† Ibid. p. 337.

‡ Vie des Dames Illustres, p. 346.

§ This is proved by one of the most distinguished critics of the age, M. Ch. Nodier, in the *Reveu des Deux Mondes*, t. xx. wherein he observes, p. 360 — "Desperiers is in reality and almost exclusively author of the *Heptameron*. I scruple not to say I have no doubt of this, and entirely coincide in the opinion of Bouistuan, who, solely on this account, omitted and withheld the name of the Queen of Navarre." If, as I think, Margaret did compose some tales, doubtless the most harmless of those in the *Heptameron*, it must have been in her youth — just after her marriage with the Duke of Alençon (1569). The circumstances mentioned by Brantôme, p. 346, that the king's mother, and Madame de Savoy, "being young," wished to "imitate" Margaret, is a proof of this. To this may be added the evidence of De Thou, who says, "Si tempora et juvenilem etatem in qua scriptum est respicias, non prorsus damnamus, certe gravitate tantæ heroïnæ et extrema vita minus dignum." (Thuanus, t. vi. p. 117.) Brantôme and De Thou are two unobjectionable witnesses.

* Romans xvi. 11; Phil. iv. 22.

† *Histoire de la Révocation de l'Edit de Nantes*, vol. i. p. 7. Maimbourg. Hist. du Calv. p. 12.

‡ These expressions of Brignonnet are from a manuscript in the Royal Library at Paris — entitled Letters of Margaret Queen of Navarre, and which is marked S. F. 337. I shall more than once have occasion to quote this manuscript, which I found not easy to decipher. I quote the language of the time.

§ Ibid.

Thus did evangelic truth open itself a way into the midst of the frivolous, dissolute, and literary court of Francis I. Several of those who composed it, and enjoyed the unlimited confidence of that prince—as John du Bellay, du Budé, Cop, the court physician, and even Petit, the king's confessor, seemed favourable to the views of Briçonnet and Lefevre. Francis, who loved learning, and invited to his court scholars "suspected" of Lutheranism, "in the thought," observes Erasmus, "that he should, in that way, adorn and illustrate his reign better than he could do by trophies, pyramids, or buildings"—was himself persuaded by his sister, by Briçonnet, and the learned of his court and colleges. He was present at the discussions of the learned—enjoyed listening to their discourse at table—and would call them "his children." He assisted to prepare the way for the word of God by founding professorships of Hebrew and Greek—accordingly, Theodore Beza thus speaks, when placing his portrait at the head of the Reformers—"pious reader! do not shudder at the sight of this adversary. Ought not he to have his part in this honour who banished barbarism from society, and with firm hand established in its place the cultivation of three languages, and profitable studies, that should serve as the portals of that new structure that was shortly to arise?"*

But there was at the court of Francis I. one soul which seemed prepared for the reception of the evangelic doctrines of the teachers of Etaples and of Meaux. Margaret, hesitating and not knowing on what to lean in the midst of the profligate society that surrounded her, sought somewhat on which her soul might rest—and found it in the Gospel. She turned toward that fresh breath of life which was then reviving the world, and inhaled it with delight as coming from heaven. She gathered from some of the ladies of her court the teaching of the new preachers. Some there were who lent her their writings, and certain little books, called, in the language of the time, "*tracts*;" they spoke of "the primitive church, of the pure word of God, of a worship 'in spirit and truth,' of a Christian liberty that rejected the yoke of human traditions and superstitions, that it might adhere singly to God."† It was not long before this princess sought interviews with Lefevre, Farel, and Roussel. Their zeal, piety, and walk, and all she saw of them, impressed her—but it was her old friend the bishop of Meaux, who was her guide in the path of faith.

Thus, at the glittering court of Francis I.—and in the dissolute house of Louisa of Savoy, was wrought one of those conversions of the heart which in every age are the work of the word of God. Margaret subsequently recorded in her poetical effusions the various emotions of her soul at this important period of her life, and we may there trace the course by which she was led. We see that the sense of sin had taken strong hold upon her, and that she bewailed the levity with which she had once viewed the scandals of the court.

Is there, in the abyss's lowest depth,
A punishment that equals e'en the tenth
Of all my sin.

The corruption which she had so long overlooked, now that her eyes were opened, was seen in every thing about her—

Surely in me there dwells that evil root
That putteth forth in others branch and fruit.‡

* Neque rex potentissime pudeat . . . quasi atrienses hujus ædis futuras. (Bezae Icones.) Disputationibus eorum ipse interfuit. (Flor Ræmundi, Hist. de ortu heresum. vii. p. 2.)

† Maimbourg, Hist. du Calvinisme, p. 16.

‡ Marguerites de la Marguerite des princesses (Lyon, 1647.)

But amid all the horror she felt at her own state of heart, she yet acknowledged that a God of Peace had manifested himself to her soul—

Thou, O my God, hast in thy *Grace* come down
To me, a worm of earth, who strength had none.*

And soon a sense of the love of God in Christ was shed abroad in her heart:—

My Father, then—but what a Father thou,
Unseen—that changest not—endless of days,
Who graciously forgivest all my sins.
Dear Lord Emanuel, behold me fall
Low at thy sacred feet, a criminal!
Pity me, Father—perfect in Thy love!
Thou art the sacrifice, and mercy-seat,
And Thou hast made for us an offering meet,
Well pleasing unto Thee, oh, God, above.†

Margaret had found the faith, and her soul in its joy gave free expression to holy delight—

Oh Saviour, Jesus—oh most holy Word
Only begotten of thy Father, God
The First—the Last—for whom all things were made—
Bishop and King, set over all as Head,
Through death, from fear of death thou sett'st us free!
Making us children by our Faith in Thee,
Righteous and pure and good by faith to be.
Faith plants our souls in innocence again,
Faith makes us kings with Christ as kings to reign,
Faith gives us all things in our Head to gain.‡

From that time a great change was seen in the Duchess of Alençon—

Though poor, untaught, and weak I be,
Yet feel I rich, wise, strong in thee.§

However, the power of sin was not yet subdued—Her soul was still conscious of a want of blessed harmony, and of a degree of inward struggle that perplexed her—

By spirit noble, yet by nature serf,
Of heavenly seed—begotten here on earth;
God's temple—wherein things unclean find room;
Immortal—and yet hastening to the tomb;
Though fed by God—in earthly pastures roving;
Shrinking from ill—yet sinful pleasures loving;
Cherishing truth—yet not to truth conformed;
Long as my days on earth prolonged are,
Life can have nought for me but constant war.||

Margaret, seeking in nature symbols that might express the felt want and desire of her soul, chose for her emblem, says Brantôme, the *marigold*, "which in its flower and leaf has most resemblance to the sun, and, turning, follows it in its course."¶ She added this device, *Non inferiora secutus*—I seek not things below—"signifying," continues the annalist of the court, "that her actions, thoughts, purposes, and desires were directed to that exalted Sun, namely, God—whereupon it was suspected that she had imbibed the religion of Luther."**

In fact, the princess shortly after experienced the truth of that word, "*All that will live godly in Jesus Christ shall suffer persecution.*" The new opinions of Margaret were the subject of conversation at court, and great was the sensation—What! could the king's sister be one of those people? For a moment it

tome Ier, Miroir de l'âme pecheresse, p. 16. The copy I have used seems to have belonged to the Queen of Navarre herself, and some notes appearing in it are, it is said, in her handwriting. It is now in the possession of a friend.

* Ibid. p. 18, 19. † Ibid. Oraison à J. C., p. 143.

‡ Marguerites de la Marguerite des princesses (Lyon, 1647.) tome Ier, Miroir de l'âme pecheresse, p. 16. Discord de l'Esprit et de la chair, p. 73.

§ Ibid. Miroir de l'âme, p. 22.

¶ Ibid. Discord de l'Esprit et de la chair, p. 71.

|| Vies des Femmes Illustres, p. 33.

** Ibid. p. 33.

might have been feared that Margaret's disgrace was certain. But the king, who loved his sister, affected to disregard the rumour of the court. The conduct of Margaret gradually dissipated the opposition—"Every one loved her, for," says Brantôme, "she was very kind, gentle, condescending, and charitable, very easy of access, giving away much in alms, overlooking no one, but winning all hearts by her gracious deportment."*

In the midst of the corruption and frivolity of that age, the mind may joyfully contemplate this elect soul, which the grace of God gathered from beneath all its pomps and vanities. But her feminine character held her back. If Francis the First had had the convictions of his sister, we can hardly doubt he would have followed them out. The fearful heart of the princess trembled at the thought of facing the anger of her king. She continued to fluctuate between her brother and her Saviour, unwilling to give up either one or the other. We do not recognise in her the Christian who has attained to the perfect liberty of God's children, but the exact type of those souls—at all times so numerous, and especially among her sex—who, drawn powerfully to look to heaven, have not strength sufficient to disengage themselves entirely from the bondage of earth.

Nevertheless, such as she is here seen, her appearance is a touching vision on the stage of history. Neither Germany nor England presents such a picture as Margaret of Valois. She is a star, slightly clouded, doubtless, but shedding a peculiarly soft light. And at the period we are contemplating, her light even shines forth with much radiance. Not till afterward, when the angry glance of Francis the First denounces a mortal hatred of the gospel, will his sister spread a veil over her holy faith. But at this period she is seen erect in the midst of a degraded court, and moving in it as the bride of Jesus Christ. The respect paid to her, the high opinion entertained of her understanding and character, pleads, more persuasively than any preacher, the cause of the gospel at the court of France, and the power of this gentle female influence gains admission for the new doctrines. Perhaps it is to this period we may trace the disposition of the noblesse to embrace Protestantism. If Francis had followed in the steps of his sister, if the entire nation had opened its arms to Christianity, the conversion of Margaret might have been the channel of salvation to France. But while the nobles welcomed the gospel, the throne and the people adhered faithful to Rome—and a day came when it was a source of heavy misfortune to the Reformation to have numbered in its ranks the names of Navarre and Condé.

Thus already had the gospel made converts in France. Lefevre, Briçonnet, Farel, Margaret, in Paris, joyfully followed in the direction of the movement. It seemed as if Francis himself were more attracted by the light of learning, than repelled by the purity of the gospel. The friends of God's word encouraged the most hopeful anticipations, and were pleasing themselves with the thought that the heavenly doctrine would spread, unresisted, through their country, when suddenly a powerful opposition was concocted in the Sorbonne, and at the court. France, which was to signalize herself among Roman Catholic states by three centuries of persecution of the reformed opinions, arose against the Reformation with pitiless sternness.

If the 17th century was, in France, an age of bloody persecution, the 16th was that of cruel struggle. In no country, perhaps, have those who professed the reformed faith, met with more merciless opposers on the very spots where they brought the gospel. In Ger-

many the anger of the enemy came upon them from other states, where the storm had been gathering. In Switzerland, it fell upon them from the neighbouring cantons; but in France it everywhere met them face to face. A dissolute woman and a rapacious minister then took the lead in the long line of enemies of the Reformation.

Louisa of Savoy, mother of the king and of Margaret, notorious for her gallantries, of overbearing temper, and surrounded by ladies of honour, whose licentiousness was the beginning of a long train of immorality and infamy at the court of France, naturally ranged herself on the side of the opposers of God's word. What rendered her more formidable was the almost unbounded influence she possessed over her son. But the gospel encountered a still more formidable enemy in Anthony Duprat, Louisa's favourite, and, by her influence, elevated to the rank of chancellor of the kingdom. This man, whom a contemporary historian has designated as the most vicious of bipeds,* was yet more noted for avarice than Louisa for her dissolute life. Having begun with enriching himself by perverting justice, he sought to add to his wealth at the cost of religion; and took orders with the view to get possession of the richest benefices.

Luxury and avarice thus characterized these two persons, who, being both devoted to the Pope, sought to cover the infamy of their lives by the shedding the blood of heretics.†

One of their first steps was to hand over the kingdom to the ecclesiastical supremacy of the Pope. The king, after the battle of Marignan, had a meeting with Leo X., at Bologna, and in that place was concluded the memorable Concordat, in virtue of which those two princes divided between them the spoils of the Church. They annulled the supremacy of Councils to ascribe supremacy to the Pope, and took from the respective churches the power of nominating to bishoprics, to give that power to the king. After this, Francis the First, supporting the Pontiff's train, repaired publicly to the cathedral church of Bologna to ratify the treaty. Sensible of the iniquity of the Concordat, he turned to Duprat, and whispered in his ear, "There is enough in this to damn us both."‡ But what signified to him salvation—money and the Pope's alliance was what he sought.

The Parliament met the Concordat with a vigorous resistance. The king, after keeping its deputies waiting for some weeks at Amboise, sent for them one day into his presence; upon rising from the table, said: "There is a king in France, and I don't at all understand that any men should form a senate after the manner of Venice." He then ordered them to depart before sunset. From such a prince, Gospel liberty had nothing to hope. Three days afterward, the Grand Chamberlain la Tremouille appeared in Parliament, and directed that the Concordat should be enregistered.

On this, the University was in motion. On the 19th of March, 1518, a solemn procession, at which were present the whole body of students and bachelors in their corps, repaired to the church of St. Catherine of Scholars, to implore God to preserve the liberties of the church and kingdom.§ "The halls of the different colleges were closed, strong bodies of students went armed through the streets, threatening, and in some instances maltreating, consequential persons, engaged pursuant to the king's directions, in making known the Concordat, and carrying it into effect."|| However, in the result, the University allowed the compact to be

* Bipedum omnium nequissimus. (Belcarius, xv. p. 435.)

† Siamondi, Hist. des Français, xvi. p. 397.

‡ Mathieu, i. p. 16.

§ Crevier, v. p. 110.

|| Fontaine, Hist. Cathol. Paris, 1662, p. 16.

* Vies des Femmes Illustres, p. 341.

fulfilled, but without rescinding the resolutions in which their opposition to it was declared: and "from that time," says the Venetian ambassador, Correro, "the king began to give away bishoprics at the solicitation of the ladies of the court, and to bestow abbey lands on his soldiers, so that at the French court bishoprics and abbeys were counted merchandise, just as among the Venetians they trade in pepper and cinnamon."*

While Louisa and Duprat were taking their measures to root up the Gospel by the destruction of the Gallican Church, a powerful party of fanatics were gathering together against the Bible. The truth of the Gospel has ever had two great adversaries—the profligacy of the world, and the fanaticism of the priests. The scholastic Sorbonne, and a shameless court, were now about to go forward hand in hand against the confessors of Jesus Christ. The unbelieving Sadducees, and the hypocritical Pharisees, in the early days of the Gospel, were the fiercest enemies of Christianity, and they are alike in every age. At their head stood Noel Bedier, commonly called Bèda, a native of Picardy, syndic of the Sorbonne, who had the reputation of the first blusterer and most factious disturber of his time. Educated in the dry maxims of scholastic morality, he had grown up in the constant hearing of the *theses* and *antitheses* of his college, and had more veneration for the hair-breadth distinctions of the school, than for God's word, so that his anger was readily excited whenever any one ventured to give utterance to other thoughts. Of a restless disposition, that required continually to be engaged in pursuit of new objects, he was a torment to all about him; his very element was trouble; he seemed born for contention; and when adversaries were not at hand, he would fall upon his friends. Boastful and impetuous, he filled the city and the university with the noise of his disputation—with his invectives, against learning and the innovations of that age—as also against those, who, in his opinion, did not sufficiently oppose them. Some laughed, others gave ear to the fierce talker, and in the Sorbonne his violence gave him the mastery. He seemed to be ever seeking some opponent, or some victim to drag to the scaffold—hence, before the "heretics" began to show themselves, his imagination had created them, and he had required that the vicar-general of Paris, Merlin, should be brought to the stake, on the charge of having defended Origen. But when he caught sight of the new teachers, he bounded like a wild beast that suddenly comes within view of its unsuspecting prey. "There are three thousand monks in one Bèda," remarked the wary Erasmus.†

Yet his violence injured the cause he laboured to advance. "What! can the Romish Church rest for her support on such an Atlas as that? Whence all this commotion but from the insane violence of Bèda?" was the reflection of the wisest.

In truth, the invectives that terrified the weak, revolted nobler minds. At the court of Francis the First, was a gentleman of Artois, by name, Louis Berquin, about thirty years of age, who was never married. The purity of his life,‡ his accurate knowledge, which had won him the appellation of "most learned among the noble,"|| his ingenuousness, compassion for the poor, and unbounded attachment to his friends, distinguished him above his equals.¶ The rites of the Church, its fasts, festivals, and masses, had not a more devout ob-

server,* and he held in especial horror everything heretical. His devotion was indeed the wonder of the whole court.

It seemed as if nothing could have given this man a turn in favour of the Reformation; nevertheless, some points of his character disposed him toward the Gospel. He had a horror of all dissimulation, and having himself no ill-will to any, he could not endure injustice in others. The overbearing violence of Bèda, and other fanatics, their shuffling and persecutions disgusted his generous heart, and, as he was accustomed in every thing to go heartily to work, he ere long wherever he came, in the city and at court, even in the first circles,† was heard vehemently protesting against the tyranny of those doctors, and pursuing into their very holes the pestilent hornets who then kept the world in fear.‡

But this was not all: for his opposition to injustice led Berquin to enquire after the truth. He resolved on knowing more of that Holy Scripture so dear to the men against whom Bèda and his party were conspiring; and scarcely had he begun to study it, than his heart was won by it. Berquin immediately sought the intimacy of Margaret, Brignonnet, Lefevre, and those who loved the truth; and in their society tasted of the purest delight. He became sensible that he had something else to do than to stand up against the Sorbonne, and gladly would he have communicated to all France the new convictions of his soul. With this view he sat down to compose and translate into French certain Christian writings. To him it seemed as if every one must confess and embrace the truth as promptly as he himself had done. The impatient zeal that Bèda brought to the service of traditions of men, Berquin employed in the cause of God's truth. Somewhat younger than the syndic of the Sorbonne, less wary, less acute, he had in his favour the noble incentive of a love of truth. Berquin had a higher object than victory over his antagonist when he stood up against Bèda. It was his aim to let loose the flood of truth among his countrymen. On this account, Theodore Beza observes, "that if Francis the First had been another Elector, Berquin might have come down to us as another Luther."§

Many were the obstacles in his way. Fanaticism finds disciples everywhere—it is a contagious infection. The monks and ignorant priests sided with the syndic of the Sorbonne. An esprit de corps pervaded their whole company, governed by a few intriguing and fanatical leaders, who knew how to work upon the credulity and vanity of their colleagues, and by that means communicate to them their own animosities. At all their meetings these persons took the lead, lording it over others, and reducing to silence the timid and moderate of their body. Hardly could they propose anything, when this party exclaimed, in an overbearing tone, "Now we shall see who are of Luther's faction."|| If the latter offered any reasonable suggestion, instantly a shudder passed from Bèda to Lecouturier, Duchesne, and the rest, and all exclaimed, "Why, they are worse than Luther." The manoeuvre answered their purpose, and the timid, who prefer quiet to disputation, and are willing to give up their own opinion for their own ease—those who do not understand the very simplest questions—and, lastly, such

* Raumer. Gesch. Europ. i. p. 270.

† In uno Bèda sunt tria millia monachorum. (Erasm. Epp. p. 373.)

‡ Talibus Atlantibus nititur Ecclesia romana. (Ibid. p. 113.)

§ Ut ne rumusculus quidem impudicitie sit unquam in illum exortus. (Erasm. Epp. p. 1278.)

¶ Gaillard Hist. de Francois 1er.

|| Mirere benignus in egenos et amicos. (Er. Epp. p. 1289.)

* Constitutionum ac rituum ecclesiasticorum observantissimus. . . . (Ibid.)

† Actes des Martyrs de Crespin, p. 103.

‡ Ut maxime omnium tunc metuendos crabrones in ipsis eorum cavis. . . . (Bezae Icones.)

§ Gallia fortassis alterum esset Lutherum nacta. (Bezae Icones.)

|| Sic inquit, apparebit qui sint Lutherani factionis. (Er. Epp. p. 88.)

as are easily turned round by mere clamour, were led away by Beda and his followers. Some silently, and some assenting aloud, submitted to the influence exercised over ordinary spirits by one proud and tyrannical mind. Such was the state of this association, regarded as venerable, and which, at this time, was found among the most determined opposers of the Christianity of the gospel. Often would one glance within the interior of such bodies suffice to enable us to estimate at its true value the war they wage against truth.

Thus the university, which, under Louis XII., had applauded the first inklings of independence in Allman, abruptly plunged once more, under the guidance of Duprat and Louisa of Savoy, into fanaticism and servility. If we except the Jansenists, and a few others, no where in the Gallican clergy do we find a noble and genuine independence. It has done no more than vibrate between servility to the court, and servility to the pope. If, under Louis XII. or Louis XIV. we notice some faint semblance of liberty, it is because its master in Paris was at strife with its master in Rome. Herein we have the solution of the change we have noticed. The university and the bishops forget their rights and obligations, the moment the king ceased to enjoin the assertion of them!

Beda had long cherished ill-will against Lefevre. The renown of the doctor of Picardy irritated and ruffled the pride of his countrymen, who would gladly have silenced him. Once before, Beda had attacked the doctor of Etaples, and, having as yet but little discernment of the true point of the evangelic doctrines, he had assailed his colleague on a point which, strange as it must to us appear, was very near sending Lefevre to the scaffold.* The doctor had asserted that Mary the sister of Lazarus, Mary Magdalene, and the woman who was a sinner, (mentioned by Luke in his seventh chapter,) were three distinct persons. The Greek fathers had considered them as distinct, but the fathers of the Latin church had spoken of them as one and the same. This shocking heresy, in relation to the three Marys, set Beda and all his clique in motion. Christendom itself was roused. Fisher, bishop of Rochester, and one of the most eminent prelates of the age, wrote against Lefevre, and the whole church declared against a judgment that is now universally received among Roman Catholics themselves. Already, Lefevre, condemned by the Sorbonne, was prosecuted by the parliament on the charge of heresy, when Francis I., not sorry to have an opportunity of striking a blow at the Sorbonne, and humbling the monks, interfered and rescued him from the hands of his persecutors.

Beda, enraged at seeing his victim thus snatched from his grasp, resolved on taking his next measures more cunningly. The name of Luther was beginning to be noised in France. The reformer, after disputing against Eck, at Leipsic, had agreed to acknowledge the universities of Erfurth, and of Paris, as his judges. The zeal displayed by the university against the Concordat doubtless led him to expect an impartial verdict. But a change had taken place, and the more decided their opposition to the encroachments of Rome, the more did the members of the University seem to have it at heart to make proof of their orthodoxy. Beda, accordingly, found them quite disposed to enter into all his views.

On the 20th of January, 1520, the questor of France purchased twenty copies of Luther's conference with Eck, to distribute them among the members of the commission charged to make its report on the matter. More than a year was taken up in the investigation. The German Reformation was beginning to produce a

strong sensation in France. The several universities then truly Catholic institutions, resorted to from all parts of Christendom, maintained a more direct and intimate intercourse, on topics of theology and philosophy, between Germany, and France, and England, than exists in our own day. The report, brought to Paris, of Luther's labours and success, strengthened the hands of such men as Lefevre, Bricconnet, and Farel. Some of the divines of the Sorbonne were struck by the truths they saw in the writings of the Wittemberg monk. Now and then a bold confession was heard; but there was also fierce opposers. "Europe," says Crevier, was all expectation of the decision of the University of Paris.† The issue seemed doubtful, but Beda finally triumphed. In April, 1521, the University decreed that the writings of Luther should be publicly committed to the flames, and that the author should be compelled to retract.

Further measures were resolved on. Luther's disciples had crossed the Rhine, even before his writings. Maimbourg tells us that the University was quickly filled with foreigners, who, having obtained a reputation on the strength of some knowledge of Hebrew, and more of Greek, crept into the houses of persons of distinction, and took upon them the liberty of explaining the Scriptures.* The faculty, therefore, sent a deputation to the king to call attention to these disorders.

Francis the First, caring little for theological disquisitions, was then pursuing the career of his pleasures. Passing from one chateau to another, in company with his gentlemen and the ladies of his mother's and his sister's court, he indulged in every species of dissolute excess, out of the range of the troublesome observation of his capital. In this way he passed through Brittany, Anjou, Guienne, Angoumois, Poitou, requiring, in villages and forests, the same attention and luxury as if he had been in the Chateau des Tournelles at Paris. Nothing was heard of but tournaments, single combats, masquerades, shows, and feastings, "such," says Brantome, "that Lucullus himself never saw the like."†

Suspending for a moment the course of his pleasures, he gave audience to the grave deputies of the sorbonne; but he saw only men of learning in those whom the faculty designated as heretics; and should a prince, who boasts of having eclipsed and put *hors de page* the kings of France, stoop to humour a clique of fanatical doctors. "I command you," was his answer, "not to molest those people. To persecute those who teach us would prevent able scholars from settling in our country."‡

The deputation quitted the royal presence in a rage. What then is to be the consequence? The danger is every day greater, already the heretical sentiments are counted as those of the best informed classes,—the devouring flame is circulated between the rafters,—the conflagration will presently burst forth, and the structure of the established faith will fall, with sudden crash, to the earth.

Beda and his party, failing to obtain the king's permission to resort to scaffolds, had recourse to more quiet persecution. There was no kind of annoyance to which the evangelic teachers were not subjected. Every day brought with it new rumours and new charges. The aged Lefevre, wearied out by these ignorant zealots, panted for quiet. The pious Bricconnet, who was unremitting in his attentions to the Doctor of Etaples,§ offered him an assylum. Lefevre, there-

* Histoire du Calvinisme, p. 10.

† Vie des Hommes Illustres, i. p. 326.

‡ Maimbourg, p. 11.

§ Pro innumera beneficiis, pro tantis ad studia commodis (Epist. dedicatoria Epp. Pauli.)

* Gaillard Hist. de Francois Ier. iv p. 288.

fore, took leave of Paris, and repaired to Meaux. It was a first advantage gained by the enemies of the Gospel, and thenceforth it was seen that if the party cannot enlist the civil power on its side, it has ever a secret and fanatic police, which it knows how to use, so as to insure the attainments of its ends.

Thus Paris was beginning to rise against the Reformation, and to trace, as it were, the enclosure which, for three centuries, was to bar the entrance of the Reformation. God had appointed, that in Paris itself its first glimmering should appear; but men arose who hastily extinguished it;—the spirit of the sixteen chiefs were already working, and other cities in the kingdom were about to receive that light which the capital itself rejected.

Brignonnet, on returning to his diocese, there manifested the zeal of a Christian and of a bishop. He visited all the parishes, and having called together the deans, curates, vicars, church-wardens, and principal parishioners, he made inquiries respecting the teaching and manner of life of the preachers. "At the time of the gathering," they replied, "the Franciscans of Meaux sally forth; a single preacher goes over four or five parishes in one day; repeating as many times the same sermon, not to feed the souls of his hearers, but to fill his belly, and enrich his convent.* The scrip once replenished, the object is answered; the preaching is at an end, and the monks are not seen again in the churches until begging time comes round again. The only thing these shepherds attend to is the shearing of their flocks.†"

The majority of the curates lived upon their incomes at Paris. "Oh!" exclaimed the pious bishop, on finding the presbytery he had come to visit deserted, "must we not regard those who forsake the service of Christ,‡ traitors to him?" Brignonnet resolved to apply a remedy to these evils, and convoked a synod of all his clergy for the 13th of October, 1519. But these worldly priests, who gave but little heed to the remonstrances of their bishop, and for whom Paris possessed so many attractions, took advantage of a custom, by virtue of which they were allowed to substitute one or more vicars, to look after their flocks in their absence. Out of a hundred and twenty-seven vicars, Brignonnet, upon examination, found only fourteen of whom he could approve.

Earthly-minded curates, imbecile vicars, monks whose God was their belly, such, then, was the state of the church. Brignonnet forbade the pulpit to the Franciscans,§ and, being persuaded that the only method of supplying able ministers in his diocese, was himself to train them, he determined to found a school of theology at Meaux, under the superintendence of pious and learned doctors. It became necessary to look around for such persons. Beda, however, supplied him with them.

This fanatic and his troop continued their efforts, and complaining bitterly against the government for tolerating the new teachers, declared they would wage war against their doctrines without, and even against its orders. Lefevre had indeed quitted the capital; but were not Farel and his friends still there? Farel, it is true, did not preach, for he was not in priests' orders; but in the university, in the city, with professors, priests, students, and citizens, he boldly maintained the cause of the Reformation. Others, embold-

ened by his example, circulated more freely the word of God. Martial Mazurier, president of St. Michael's college, and distinguished as a preacher, unsparingly depicted the disorders of the time, in the darkest and yet the truest colours, and it seemed scarce possible to withstand the force of his eloquence.* The rage of Beda, and those divines who acted with him, was at its height. "If we suffer these innovators," said Beda, "they will spread through our whole company, and there will be an end of our teaching and tradition, as well as of our places, and the respect France and all Christendom have hitherto paid us."

The doctors of the Sorbonne were the stronger party. Farel, Mazurier, Gerard Roussel, and his brother Arnaud, soon found their active service every where counteracted. The Bishop of Meaux pressed his friends to rejoin Lefevre—and these worthy men, persecuted and hunted by the Sorbonne, and hoping to form with Brignonnet a sacred phalanx for the triumph of truth, accepted the bishop's invitation, and repaired to Meaux.† Thus the light of the Gospel was gradually withdrawn from the capital where Providence had kindled its first sparks. "This is the condemnation that light has come into the world, and men love darkness rather than light, because their deeds are evil.‡" It is impossible not to discern that Paris then drew down upon it that judgment of God which is here conveyed in the words of Jesus Christ.

Margaret of Valois, successively deprived of Brignonnet, Lefevre, and their friends, found herself alone in the centre of Paris, and of the dissolute court of Francis I. A young princess, sister to her mother, Philibert, of Savoy, lived on intimacy with her. Philibert, whom the king of France had given in marriage to Julian, the magnificent brother of Leo X., in confirmation of the Concordat, had, after her nuptials, repaired to Rome, where the Pope, delighted with so illustrious an alliance, had expended no less than 150,000 ducats in festive entertainments on the occasion.§ In 1516, Julian, who then commanded the Papal forces, died, leaving his widow only eighteen. She attached herself to Margaret, being attracted by the influence which the character and virtues of that princess gave her over all about her. The grief of Philibert unclosed her heart to the voice of religion. Margaret imparted to her the fruit of her reading, and the widow of the lieutenant-general of the Church began to taste the sweetness of the saving truth. But Philibert had as yet too little experience to be a support to her friend, and often did Margaret tremble at the thought of her own extreme weakness. If the love she bore her king, and her fear of offending him, led her to any action contrary to her conscience, instantly her soul was troubled, and turning in sorrow to the Lord, she found in him a master and brother more gracious and sweet to her heart than Francis himself. It was in such a season she breathed forth those feelings:—

Sweet Brother, who, in place of chastenings meet,
Lead'st gently home thy wandering sister's feet,
Giving thy Grace and Love in recompense
Of murmurings, presumption, and offence.
Too much, my Brother—too much hast thou done:
The blessing is too vast for such an one.||

When she saw all her friends retiring to Meaux, Margaret turned after them a look of sorrow from the

* Eo solum doceri quæ ad cœnobium illorum ac ventrem expendum pertinerent. (Acta Mart. p. 334.)

† MS. de Meaux. I am indebted to M. Ladeveze, pastor of Meaux, for the communication of a copy of this MS. preserved in that city.

‡ MS. de Meaux.

§ Eis in universa diocesi sua prædicationem interdixit. (Act. Mart. p. 334.)

* Frequentissimas de reformandis hominum moribus conaciones habuit. (Lannoi Navarra gymnasii Hist. p. 261.)

† It was the persecution which arose against them in Paris, in 1521, which compelled them to leave that city. (Vie de Farel, par Chaupard.)

‡ St. John iii. 19.

§ Guichemon. Hist. gén. de Savoie, ii. p. 180.

|| Miroir de l'âme pécheresse. Marguerites de la Marguerite, &c. i. p. 36.

midst of the festivities of the court. She seemed deserted of all—her husband, the Duke of Alençon, was setting out for the army—her young aunt was returning to Savoy. The Duchess wrote to Briçonnet, as follows—

“Monsieur de Meaux,—Knowing that God is all-sufficient, I apply to you to ask your prayers that He will conduct in safety, according to His holy will, M. d’ Alençon, who is about to take his departure, by order of the king, as lieutenant-general of his army, which I apprehend will not break up without a war; and, thinking that, besides the public good of the kingdom, you have an interest in all that concerns his and my salvation, I request your spiritual aid. To-morrow, my aunt leaves Nemours for Savoy. I must be mixed up with many things which I dread. Therefore, if you should know that master Michael could make a journey hither, it would be a comfort to me, which I desire only for the honour of God.”*

Michael Arand, whose counsel Margaret desired, was one of the members of the evangelical assembly at Meaux, who, at a later period, exposed himself to many dangers in preaching the Gospel.

The pious princess trembled to see an opposition gathering strength against the truth. Duprat, and the retainers of the government, Beda, and those who adhered to the University, inspired her with terror. Briçonnet wrote cheerily—“It is the war which the gentle Jesus said he was come to send upon earth—the fire, the fierce fire which transforms earthliness into that which is heavenly. With all my heart do I desire to help you, Madam; but do not expect from my weakness any more than the will to serve you. Whoever has faith, hope, love, has all that is necessary, and needeth not any other help or protection. God will be all—and out of him we can hope for nothing. Take with you into the conflict that mighty giant, unconquerable Love. The war is led on by Love. Jesus requires to have our hearts in his presence: woe befalls the Christian who parts company from Him. He who is present in person in the battle is sure of victory; but if the battle is fought out of His own presence, he will often lose ground.”†

The Bishop of Meaux was then beginning to experience what it is to contend for the word of God. The theologians and monks, irritated by the shelter he had afforded to the friends of the Reformation, vehemently accused him, so that his brother, the Bishop of St. Malo, came to Paris to enquire into the charges brought against him.‡ Hence Margaret was the more touched by the comfortings which Briçonnet addressed to her; and she answered by offering him her assistance.

“If in any thing,” wrote she, “you think that I can be of service to you or your’s, be assured that I shall find comfort in doing all I can. Everlasting peace be given to you after the long struggles you have waged for the faith—in the which cause *pray* that you may live and die.

“Your devoted daughter, MARGARET.”§

Happy would it have been if Briçonnet had died while contending for the truth. Yet was he still full of zeal. Philibert, of Nemours, universally respected for her piety, charity, and blameless life, read with increasing interest the evangelical writings sent her from time to time by the Bishop of Meaux. “I have received all the tracts you forwarded,” wrote Margaret to Briçon-

net, “of which my aunt of Nemours has taken some, and I mean to send her the last, for she is now in Savoy, called thither by her brother’s marriage. Her absence is no small loss to me. Think of my loneliness in your prayers.” Unhappily Philibert did not live to declare herself openly in favour of the Reformation. She died in 1524, at the Castle of Virieu le Grand, in Bugey, at the age of twenty-six.* Margaret was deeply sensible of the loss of one who was to her a friend, a sister—one who could, indeed, enter into her thoughts. Perhaps no loss by death was the occasion of more sorrow to her, if we except that of her brother.

Alas! nor earth nor heaven above appears
To my sad eyes, so ceaseless are the tears
That from them flow.†

Margaret, feeling her own weakness to bear up under her grief, and against the seductions of the court, applied to Briçonnet to exhort her to the love of God.

“The gentle and gracious Jesus, who wills, and who alone is able to work that which he wills, in his infinite mercy visit your heart, and lead it to love him with an undivided love. None but He, Madam, hath power to do this, and we must not seek light from darkness, nor warmth from cold. When he draws he kindles, and by the warmth draws us after him, enlarging our hearts. You write to me to pity you because you are alone; I do not understand that word. The heart that is in the world, and resting in it, is, indeed, lonely—for many and evil are they who compass it about. But she whose heart is closed against the world, and awake to the gentle and gracious Jesus, her true and faithful spouse, is *really alone*, living on supplies from One who is all to her; and yet not alone, because never left by Him who replenishes and preserves all. I cannot and ought not to pity such solitude as this, which is more to be prized than the whole world around us, from which I am confident that God hath in his love delivered you, so that you are no longer its child. Continue, Madam, alone, abiding in Him who is your all, and who humbled himself to a painful and ignominious death.

“In commending myself to your favour, I humbly entreat you not to use the words of your last letters. You are the daughter and the spouse of God only. No other father hath any claim upon you. I exhort and admonish you to be to Him such and so good a daughter as He is to you a father; and since you cannot attain to this, by reason that finite cannot compare with infinite, I pray Him to strengthen you, that you may love and serve Him with all your heart.”‡

Notwithstanding these counsels, Margaret was not yet comforted. She grieved over the loss of those spiritual guides who had been removed from her. The new pastors set over her to reclaim her, did not possess her confidence; and notwithstanding what the bishop had said, she felt alone amidst the court, and all around her seemed like a desolate wilderness. She wrote to Briçonnet as follows:

“As a sheep wandering in a strange land, and turning from her pastures in distrust of her new shepherds, naturally lifts her head to catch the breeze from that quarter of the field where the chief shepherd once led her to the tender grass, just so am I constrained to implore your love. Come down from your mountain, and look in pity on the blindest of all your fold—astray among a people living in darkness.

(Signed) “MARGUERITE.”§

* Lettres de Marguerite, reine de Navarre. (Bibl. Royale Manuscript, S. F. 337. 1621.)

† Lettres de Marguerite, reine de Navarre. (Bibl. Royale Manuscript, S. F. 337. 12 June, 1621.)

‡ MS. de Meaux.

§ MS. S. F. 227, de la Bibl. Royale.

* Guichemon. Hist. de la maison de Savoie, ii. p. 181.

† Chanson spirituelle après la mort du Roy. (Marguerites, i. p. 473.)

‡ MSC., S. F., 337, de la Bibl. Royale, 10th July.

§ Ibid

The Bishop of Meaux, in his reply, taking up the comparison of a wandering sheep, under which Margaret had pictured herself, uses it to depict the mysteries of salvation, under the figure of a wood :

"The sheep," says he, "on entering this wood under the guidance of the Holy Spirit, is at once charmed by the goodness, beauty, height, length, breadth, depth, and refreshing odours of the forest, and, looking round about, sees only Him in all, and all in Him ; and, hastening onward through its green alleys, finds it so sweet, that the way becomes life, joy, and consolation."

The bishop then describes the sheep trying in vain to penetrate to the bounds of the forest, (as a soul would fathom the deep things of God,) meeting with mountains which it in vain endeavours to ascend, being stopped on all sides by "inaccessible heights."

He then shows the way by which the soul, inquiring after God, surmounts the difficulties, and how the sheep among all the hirelings, finds the "Chief Shepherd's nook," and "enters on the wing of contemplation by faith ;" then all is made plain and easy, and she begins to sing, "I have found him whom my soul loveth."

Thus wrote the Bishop of Meaux. In the fervour of his zeal he would at this time have rejoiced to see France regenerated by the Gospel.† Often would he dwell especially on those three individuals who seemed called to preside over the destinies of his country ; namely, the king, his mother, and his sister. He thought that if the royal family were but enlightened, the whole nation would be so ; and that the clergy, aroused to emulation, would awake from their death-like stupor. "Madam," wrote he to Margaret, "I humbly pray God that He will please, in his goodness, to kindle a fire in the hearts of the king, his mother, and yourself, so that from you three a flame may go forth through the nation, and reanimate especially that class, which, by its coldness, chills all the others."

Margaret did not share in these hopes. She says nothing of her mother, nor yet of her brother. These were themes she did not dare to touch ; but in her answer to the bishop, in January, 1522, oppressed at heart by the indifference and worldliness of all around her, she said—"The times are so cold, the heart so frozen up ;" and she signed herself—"Your cold-hearted, hungering and thirsting daughter,

"MARGARET."

This letter did not discourage Briconnet, but it put him upon reflection ; and feeling how much he who sought to reanimate others required to be reanimated himself, he asked the prayers of Margaret and of Madame de Nemours. "Madam," said he, with perfect simplicity, "I pray you to re-awaken by your prayers the poor drowsy one."‡

And such, in 1521, were the expressions interchanged at the court of France. Strange words, doubtless ; and which now, after a lapse of above three centuries, a manuscript in the Royal Library reveals to us. Was this influence in high places favourable to the Reformation, or adverse to it ! The spur of truth was felt indeed at the court, but perhaps did but arouse the slumbering beast—exciting him to rage—and causing him to dart more furiously on the weak ones of the flock.

In truth, the time was drawing nigh when the storm was to burst upon the Reformation ; but first it was destined to scatter some seeds and gather in some sheaves. This city of Meaux, which, a century and a

half later, was to be honoured by the residence of the noble defender of the Gallican church against the claims of Rome, was called to be the first town in France wherein regenerated Christianity should establish its hold. It was at this time the field on which the labourers profusely scattered their seed, and into which they had already put the sickle. Briconnet, less given to slumber than he had said, cheered, watched, and directed every thing. His fortune was equal to his zeal. Never did any one make a more noble use of his means—and never did so noble a devotion promise at first to yield such abundant fruit. Assembled at Meaux, the pious teachers took their measures thenceforward with more liberty. The word of God was not bound ; and the Reformation made a great advance in France. Lefevre, with unwonted energy, proclaimed that Gospel with which he would gladly have filled the world—"Kings, princes, nobles, the people, and all nations," he exclaimed, "ought to think and aspire only after Jesus Christ.* Every priest should resemble that angel seen by John in the Apocalypse, flying through the air, having in his hand the everlasting Gospel, to preach to every nation, and kindred, and tongue, and people. Draw near, ye pontiffs, kings, and generous hearts. Awake, ye nations to the light of the Gospel, and receive the breath of eternal life.† Sufficient is the word of God !"‡

Such, in truth, was the motto of the new school : *sufficient is the word of God*. The whole Reformation is embodied in that truth. "To know Christ and his word," said Lefevre, Roussel, Farel, "is the only true, living, and universal theology. He who knows that knows everything."§

The truth produced a deep impression at Meaux. At first private meetings took place, then conferences, and lastly the Gospel was proclaimed in the churches. But a yet more formidable blow was struck against the authority of Rome.

Lefevre resolved to put it in the power of the Christians of France to read the Scriptures. On the 30th of October he published the French translation of the four Gospels ; on the 6th of November the remaining books of the New Testament ; and on the 12th of November, 1524, the whole of these collected in one volume at Meaux ; and in 1525 a French version of the Psalms.|| Thus in France, and almost at the same time as in Germany, we have the commencement of that publication of the Scriptures, in the vernacular tongue, which, after a lapse of three centuries, was to receive such wonderful development. In France, as in the countries beyond the Rhine, the Bible produced a decided effect. Many there were who had learned by experience that, when they sought the knowledge of divine things, darkness and doubt encompassed them on all sides. How many were the passing moments—perhaps even years—in which they had been tempted to regard the most certain truths as mere illusions. We want a ray from heaven to enlighten our darkness. Such was the longing desire of many souls at the period of the Reformation. With feelings of this sort many received the Scriptures from the hands of Lefevre. They read them in their families and in private. The Bible became increasingly the subject of conversation. Christ appeared to these souls, so long misled, as the sun and centre of all discovery. No longer did they want evidence that

* Reges, principes, magnates omnes et subinde omnium nationum populi, ut nihil aliud cogitent . . . ac Christum . . . (Fabri Comment. in Evang. prefat.)

† Ubis gentium expurgiscimini ad Evangelium lucem . . . (Ibid.)

‡ Verbum Dei sufficit. (Ibid.)

§ Hæc est universa et sola vivifica Theologia . . . Christum et verbum ejus esse omnia. (Ibid. in Ev. Johan. p. 271.)

|| Le Long. Biblioth. sacrée, 2 edit. p. 42.

* MSC., S. F., 387, de la Bibl. Royale, 10th July.

† Studio veritatis aliis declarandæ inflammatus. (Act. Martyrum, p. 334.)

‡ MSC. de la Bibl. Royale

the Scriptures was of the Lord: they knew it, for it had delivered them from darkness into light.

Such was the course by which some remarkable persons in France were at this time brought to know God. But there were yet humbler and more ordinary steps by which many of the poorer sort arrived at the knowledge of the truth. The city of Meaux was almost entirely peopled with artisans and dealers in woollen cloth. "Many," says a chronicler of the sixteenth century, "were taken with so ardent a desire to know the way of salvation, that artisans, carders, fullers, and combers, while at work with their hands, had their thoughts engaged in conversation on the word of God, and getting comfort from thence. On Sunday and on festivals, especially, they employed themselves in reading the Scriptures, and inquiring into the good pleasure of the Lord."^{*}

Briçonnet rejoiced to see true piety take the place of superstition in his diocese. "Lefevre, availing himself of his great reputation for learning," observes a contemporary historian,[†] "managed to cajole and impose upon Messire Guillaume Briçonnet by his specious words, that he turned him aside into gross error, so that it has been found impossible to cleanse the town and diocese of Meaux from that wicked doctrine from that time to this, when it has marvellously spread abroad. The subverting of that good bishop was a sad event, for he had, before that, been very devout in his service to God and the Virgin Mary."[‡] However, not all had been so grossly "turned aside," to adopt the expression of the Franciscan. The townspeople were divided in two parties. On one side were Franciscan monks, and the partisans of Romanism: on the other, Briçonnet, Lefevre, Farel, and those who loved the new preaching. A man of low station, named Leclerc, was one of the most servile adherents of the monks; but his wife and his two sons, Peter and John, had joyfully received the Gospel; and John, who was by trade a wool-carder, soon attracted notice among the infant congregations. James Pavanne, a native of Picardy, a young man of open and upright character, evinced an ardent zeal for the Reformed opinions. Meaux was become a focus of light. Persons called thither by business, and who there heard the Gospel, returning, bore it with them to their respective homes. It was not merely in the city that the Scripture was the subject of inquiry; "many of the adjacent villages were awakened," says a chronicler, "so that in that diocese seemed to shine forth a sort of image of the regenerated church."

The environs of Meaux were, in autumn, clothed with rich harvests, and a crowd of labouring people resorted thither from the surrounding countries. Resting themselves, in the heat of the day, they would talk with the people of those parts of a seed time and harvest of another kind. Certain peasantry, who had come from Thierachia, and more particularly from Landouzy, after their return home continued in the doctrine they had heard, and, ere long, an evangelical church was formed in this latter place!—a church which is among the most ancient in the kingdom. "The report of this unspeakable blessing spread through France," says the chronicler.[§] Briçonnet himself preached the Gospel from the pulpit, and laboured to diffuse, far and wide, that "free, gracious, true, and clear light, which dazzles and illuminates

every creature capable of receiving it; and, while it enlightens him, raises him, by adoption, to the dignity of a child of God."^{*} He besought his hearers not to listen to those who would turn them aside from the word. "Though an angel from heaven," exclaimed he, "should preach any other Gospel, do not give ear to him." At times melancholy thoughts presented themselves to his mind. He did not feel confident in his own steadfastness, and he recoiled from the thought of the fatal consequences that might result from any failure of faith on his part. Forewarning his hearers, he would say, "Though I, your bishop, should change my voice and doctrine, take heed that you change not with me."[†] At that moment nothing foreboded such a calamity. "Not only," says the chronicler, "the word of God was preached, but it was practised: all kinds of works of charity and love were visible; the morals of the city were reformed, and its superstitions disappeared."[‡]

Still indulging in the thought of gaining over the king and his mother, the bishop sent to Margaret a translation of St. Paul's Epistles, richly illuminated, humbly soliciting her to present it to the king, "which, coming through your hands," added he, "cannot fail to be acceptable. They make a truly royal dish," continued the worthy bishop, "of a fatness that never corrupts, and having a power to restore from all manner of sickness. The more we taste them, the more we hunger after them, with desires that are ever fed and never cloyed."[§]

What dearer commission could Margaret receive? The moment seemed auspicious. Michael d'Arande was at Paris, detained there by command of the king's mother, for whom he was translating portions of the Scriptures.^{||} But Margaret would have preferred that Briçonnet himself should present St. Paul to her brother: "You would do well to come," wrote she, "for you know the confidence the king and his mother have in you."[¶]

Thus, at this time, (in 1522 and 1523,) was God's word placed before the eyes of Francis the First and Louisa of Savoy. They were thus brought in contact with that Gospel of which they were afterwards to be the persecutors. We see nothing to indicate that that Word made on them any saving impression; curiosity led them to uncloset that Bible which was the subject of so much discussion; but they soon closed it again as they had opened it.

Margaret herself with difficulty struggled against the worldliness which surrounded her. Her tender regard for her brother, respect for her mother, the flattery of the court, all conspired against the love she had vowed to Jesus Christ. Many, indeed, were her temptations. At times, the soul of Margaret, assailed by so many enemies, and dizzy with the tumult of life, turned aside from her Lord. Then, becoming conscious of her sin, the princess shut herself in her apartments, and gave vent to her grief in sounds very different from those with which Francis and the young lords, who were the companions of his pleasures, filled the royal palaces in their carousings:

I have forsaken thee, for pleasure ering;
In place of thee, my evil choice preferring;
And from thee wandering, whither am I come?
Among the cursed—to the place of doom.
I have forsaken thee, oh Friend sincere;

* MS. in the Royal Library, S. F. No. 337.

† Hist. Cathol. de Fontaine.

‡ Actes des Mart. p. 182.

§ MS. in the Royal Library, S. F. No. 337.

|| Par le commandement de Madame a quy il a lyvré quelque chose de la sainte Escripture qu'elle desire parfaire. (Ibid.)

¶ Ibid.

* Act des Mart. p. 182.

† Hist. Cathol. de notre temps, par Fontaine, de l'ordre de Saint Francois, Paris, 1562.

‡ These facts are derived from old and much damaged papers discovered in the church of Landouzy-la-Ville (Aisne), by M. Colany, during the time he filled the office of pastor in that town.

§ Actes des Mart. p. 182.

And from thy love, the better to get free,
Have clung to things most contrary to thee.*

After this, Margaret, turning in the direction of Meaux, wrote, in her distress, "I again turn toward you, Mons. 'Fabry,' and your companions, desiring you, in your prayers, to entreat of the unspeakable mercy an alarm that shall rouse the unwatchful weak one from her heavy and deathlike slumbers."†

The friends of the Reformation were beginning to indulge in cheering anticipations. Who would be able to resist the Gospel if the authority of Francis the First should open the way for it? The corrupting influence of the court would be succeeded by a sanctifying example, and France would acquire a moral power which would constitute her the benefactress of nations.

But the Romish party on their side had caught the alarm. One of their party at Meaux, was a Jacobin monk, of the name of Roma. One day, when Lefevre, Farel, and their friends were in conversation with him, and certain other partisans of the papacy, Lefevre incautiously gave utterance to his hopes: "Already," said he, "the Gospel is winning the hearts of the nobles and the common people, and, ere long, we shall see it spreading throughout France, and casting down the inventions that men have set up." The aged doctor was warmed by his theme, his eyes sparkled, and his feeble voice seemed to put forth new power, resembling the aged Simeon, giving thanks to the Lord because his eyes had seen His salvation. Lefevre's friends partook of his emotion; the opposers were amazed and silent. . . . Suddenly Roma rose from his seat, exclaiming, "then I and all the monks will preach a crusade—we will raise the people, and if the king suffers the preaching of your Gospel, we will expel him from his kingdom by his own subjects."‡ Thus did a monk venture to stand up against the knightly monarch. The Franciscans applauded his boldness. It was necessary to prevent the fulfilment of the aged doctor's predictions. Already the mendicant friars found their daily gatherings fall off. The Franciscans, in alarm, distributed themselves in private families. "Those new preachers are heretics," said they, "they call in question the holiest practices, and they deny the most sacred mysteries." Then, growing bolder, the more violent of the party, sallying forth from their cloister, presented themselves at the bishop's residence, and, being admitted, "Make haste," said they, "to crush this heresy, or the pestilence which now afflicts Meaux will extend its ravages through the kingdom."

Briçonnet was roused, and for a moment disturbed by this invasion of his privacy; but he did not give way. Despising the interested clamour of a set of ignorant monks, he ascended the pulpit, and preached in vindication of Lefevre, designating the monks as pharisees and hypocrites. Still this opposition from without had already awakened anxiety and conflict in his soul. He tried to quiet his fears by persuading himself that it was necessary to pass through such spiritual struggles. "By such conflict," said he, in expressions that sound mystical to our ears, "we are brought to a death that ushers into life; and, while ever mortifying life, living we die, and dying, live."§ The way had been more sure, if, turning to the Saviour, as the apostles, when driven by the winds and tossed, he had cried out, "Lord, save us, or we perish!"

The monks of Meaux, enraged at this repulse, resolved to carry their complaint before a higher tribu-

nal. An appeal lay open to them; and if the bishop should be contumacious, he may be reduced to complicity. Their leaders set forth for Paris, and concerted measures with Beda and Duchesne. They presented themselves before the Parliament, and lodged information against the bishop and the heretical teachers. "The town," said they, "and all the neighbouring country, is infected with heresy, and the muddy waters go forth from the bishop's palace."

Thus France began to hear the cry of persecution raised against the Gospel. The priestly and the civil power—the Sorbonne and the Parliament laid their hands upon the sword, and that sword was destined to be stained with blood. Christianity had taught men that there are duties anterior to all civil relationships; it had emancipated the religious mind, laid the foundations of liberty of conscience, and wrought an important change in society:—for Antiquity, everywhere recognizing the *citizen*, and nowhere the man, had made of religion a matter of mere state regulation. But scarcely had these ideas of liberty been given to the world when the Papacy corrupted them. In place of the despotism of the prince, it substituted that of the priest. Often, indeed, had both prince and priest been by it stirred up against the Christian people. A new emancipation was needed: the sixteenth century produced it. Wherever the Reformation established itself, the yoke of Rome was thrown off, and liberty of conscience restored. Yet is there such a proneness in man to exalt himself above the truth, that even among many Protestant nations of our own time, the Church, freed from the arbitrary power of the priest, is near falling again into subserviency to the civil authority; thus, like its divine Founder, banded from one despotism to another; still passing from Caiaphas to Pilate, and from Pilate to Caiaphas!

Briçonnet, who enjoyed a high reputation at Paris, easily cleared himself. But in vain did he seek to defend his friends; the monks were resolved not to return to Meaux empty-handed. If the bishop would escape, he must sacrifice his brethren. Of a character naturally timid, and but little prepared for 'Christ's sake' to give up his possessions and standing—alarmed, agitated, and desponding, he was still further misled by treacherous advisers: "If the evangelical divines should leave Meaux," said some, "they will carry the Reformation elsewhere." His heart was torn by a painful struggle. At length the wisdom of this world prevailed: on the 12th of April, 1523, he published an *ordonnance* by which he deprived those pious teachers of their license to preach. This was the first step in Briçonnet's downward career.

Lefevre was the chief object of enmity. His commentary on the four Gospels, and especially the epistle "to Christian readers," which he had prefixed to it, inflamed the wrath of Beda and his fellows. They denounced the work to the faculty—"Has he not ventured," said the fiery syndic, "to recommend to all the faithful the reading of the Holy Scriptures? Does he not affirm that whosoever loves not the word of Christ is no Christian;* and again, that the word of God is sufficient of itself to lead us to eternal life?"

But Francis I. saw nothing more in this accusation than a theological squabble. He appointed a commission, before which Lefevre successfully defended himself, and was honourably acquitted.

Farel, who had fewer protectors at court, found himself obliged to quit Meaux. It appears that he at first repaired to Paris,† and that having there unsparingly

* Les Marguerites, i. p. 40.

† MS. in the Royal Library, S. F. No. 337.

‡ Farel. *Epître au Due de Lorraine*. Gen 1634.

§ MS. in the Royal Library, S. F. No. 337.

* Qui verbum ejus hoc modo non diligunt, quo pacto hi Christiani essent. (Pref. Comm. in Evang.)

† "Farel avoir subsisté tant qu'il put à Paris." (Bezou Hist. Eccles. i. 6.)

assailed the errors of Rome, he again found himself obliged to remove, and left that city, retiring to Dauphiny, whither he was desirous of carrying the Gospel.

To have intimidated Lefevre, and caused Briçonnet to draw back, and Farel to seek refuge in flight, was a victory gained, so that the Sorbonne already believed they had mastered the movement. Monks and doctors exchanged congratulations; but enough was not done in their opinion, blood had not flowed. They went, therefore, again to their work, and blood, since they were bent on shedding it, was now to slake the thirst of Roman fanaticism.

The evangelical Christians of Meaux, seeing their pastors dispersed, sought to edify one another. A wool-carder, John Leclerc, who had imbibed the true Christian doctrine from the instructions of the divines, the reading of the Bible, and some tracts,* distinguished himself by his zeal and his expounding of the Scripture. He was one of those men whom the Spirit of God inspires with courage,† and places in the foremost rank of a religious movement. The Church of Meaux soon came to regard him as its minister.

The idea of one universal priesthood, known in such living power to the first Christians had been revived by Luther in the sixteenth century. But this idea seems then to have dwelt only in theory in the Lutheran Church, and was really acted out only among the congregations of the Reformed Churches. The Lutheran congregations (agreeing in this point with the Anglican Church) took, it seems, a middle course between the Romish and the Reformed Churches. Among the Lutherans, everything proceeded from the pastor or priest; and nothing was counted valid in the Church but what was regularly conveyed through its rulers. But the Reformed Churches, while they maintained the divine appointment of the ministry, by some sects denied, approached nearer to the primitive condition of the apostolical communities. From this time forward, they recognized and proclaimed that the flock are not to rest satisfied with receiving what the priest gives out; that, since the Bible is in the hands of every one, the members of the Church, as well as those who take the lead, possess the key of that treasury whence the latter derive their instructions; that the gifts of God, the spirit of faith, of wisdom, of consolation, and of knowledge are not imparted to the minister alone; but that each is called upon to employ for the good of all whatever gift he has received; and that it may often happen that some gift needful for the edification of the Church may be denied to the pastor, and granted to some member of his flock. Thus the mere passive state of the Churches was changed into one of general activity; and it was in France especially that this transformation took place. In other countries, the Reformers are found almost exclusively among the ministers and doctors; but in France, the men who had read or studied had for fellow-labourers men of the lowest class. Among God's chosen servants in that country we have a doctor of the Sorbonne and a wool-comber.

Leclerc began to visit from house to house, strengthening and confirming the disciples in their faith. But not resting satisfied with these ordinary labours, he longed to see the papal edifice overthrown, and France coming forward to embrace the Gospel. His ungovernable zeal was such as to remind an observer of Hottinger at Zurich, and Carlstadt at Wittemberg. He wrote a proclamation against the Antichrist of Rome, in which he announced that the Lord was about to

consume that wicked one with the spirit of his mouth, and proceeded boldly to post his placard at the very door of the cathedral.* Soon all was confusion in the neighbourhood of the ancient edifice. The faithful were amazed, the priests enraged. What! shall a base wool-comber be allowed to assail the pope? The Franciscans were furious. They insisted that at least on this occasion a terrible example should be made—Leclerc was thrown into prison.

His trial took place in the presence of Briçonnet himself, who was now to witness and endure all that was done. The wool-comber was condemned to be publicly whipped through the city, three successive days, and on the third day to be branded on the forehead. The mournful spectacle began. Leclerc was led through the streets, his hands bound, his back bare, and receiving from the executioners the blows he had drawn upon himself by his opposition to the Bishop of Rome. A great crowd followed the martyr's progress, which was marked by his blood: some pursued the heretic with yells; others, by their silence, gave no doubtful signs of sympathy with him; and one woman encouraged the martyr by her looks and words—she was his mother.

At length, on the third day, when the bloody procession was over, Leclerc was made to stop at the usual place of execution. The executioner prepared a fire, heated the iron which was to sear the flesh of the minister of the Gospel, and approaching him branded him as a heretic on his forehead. Just then a shriek was uttered—but it came not from the martyr. His mother, a witness of the dreadful sight, wrung with anguish, endured a violent struggle between the enthusiasm of faith and maternal feelings; but her faith overcame, and she exclaimed in a voice that made the adversaries tremble, "Glory be to Jesus Christ and his witnesses."† Thus did this Frenchwoman of the 16th century have respect to that word of the Son of God, "Whosoever loveth his son more than me is not worthy of me."‡ So daring a courage at such a moment might have seemed to demand instant punishment; but that Christian mother had struck powerless the hearts of priests and soldiers. Their fury was restrained by a mightier arm than theirs. The crowd falling back and making way for her, allowed the mother to regain, with faltering step, her humble dwelling. Monks, and even the town-serjeants themselves, gazed on her without moving; "not one of her enemies," says Theodore Beza, "dared to put forth his hand against her." After this punishment, Leclerc, being set at liberty, withdrew, first to Rosay en Brie, a town six leagues from Meaux, and subsequently to Metz, where we shall again meet with him.

The enemy was triumphant. "The Cordeliers having regained possession of the pulpit, propagated their accustomed falsehoods and absurdities."§ But the poor working-people of Meaux, no longer permitted to hear the word of God in regular assemblies, began to hold their meetings in private, "imitating," says the chronicler, "the sons of the prophets in the days of Ahab, and the Christians of the early church; assembling as opportunity offered, at one time in a house, at another in a cavern, and at times in a vineyard or a wood. On such occasions, he among them who was most conversant with the Holy Scriptures, exhorted the rest; and this being done, they all prayed together with much fervency, cheered by the hope that the Gospel would be received in France, and the tyranny of Anti-

* *Aliis pauculis libellis diligenter lectis.* (Beza: *Icones.*)

† *Animosæ fidelis plenius.* (*Ibid.*)

‡ *Vide vol. ii. pp. 87, 89.*

* *Cet hérétique écrivit des pancartes qu'il attacha aux portes de la grande église de Meaux (MS. de Meaux).* See also Beza: *Icones*, Crespin, *Actes des Martyrs*, &c.

† *Hist. Ecclési. de Th. de Beza*, p. 4. *Hist. des Martyrs* de Crespin, p. 92.

‡ *Actes des Martyrs*, p. 193.

christ be at an end.* Where is the power can arrest the progress of truth?

One victim, however, did not satisfy the persecutors; and if the first against whom their anger was let loose was but a wool-comber, the second was a gentleman of the court. It was become necessary to overawe the nobles as well as the people. The Sorbonne of Paris was unwilling to be outstripped by the Franciscans of Meaux. Berquin, "the most learned among the nobles," continuing to gather more confidence from the Scriptures, had composed certain epigrams against the "drones of the Sorbonne;" and had afterward gone so far as to charge them with impiety.†

Beda and Duchesne, who had not ventured any reply in their usual style to the witticisms of a gentleman of the court, adopted a different line of conduct when they discerned that serious convictions were at the bottom of these attacks. Berquin had become a *Christian*; his ruin was therefore decided on. Beda and Duchesne having seized some of his translations, found in them sufficient to bring more than one heretic to the stake: "He asserts," they exclaimed, "that it is wrong to invoke the Virgin Mary in place of the Holy Spirit, and to call her the *source of all grace*!‡ He declares himself against the custom of speaking of her as *our hope and our life*, and says that these titles belong only to the Son of God." There were other charges against Berquin; his closet was, as it were, a library, whence the supposed tainted works were diffused through the kingdom. Above all, Melancthon's *Loci Communes* served to stagger the more learned. The man of piety, entrenched amid his folios and tracts, had, in his christian love, made himself translator, corrector, printer, and bookseller. . . . It seemed indispensable to stop the stream at its source.

Accordingly, one day, while Berquin was quietly engaged in his studies, the house was of a sudden surrounded by armed men, demanding admittance. The Sorbonne and its agents, armed with authority from the Parliament, were at his door. Beda, the dreaded syndic, was at their head, and never did inquisitor more perfectly perform his function. Followed by his satellites, he made his way to Berquin's study, communicated the object of his mission, and desiring his followers to keep an eye upon him, commenced his search. Not a volume escaped his notice, and an exact inventory was made under his direction. Here lay a treatise by Melancthon; there a pamphlet by Carlstadt; farther on a work of Luther's; here "heretical" books which Berquin had translated from Latin into French; there—others of his own composition. With two exceptions, all the books, seized, abounded with Lutheran doctrine, and Beda quitted the house, carrying away his booty and more elated than a general laden with the spoil of conquered nations.§

Berquin perceived that a violent storm had burst upon his head, but his courage did not falter: he had too much contempt for his adversaries to fear them. Meanwhile, Beda lost no time. On the 31st May, 1523, the Parliament decreed that all the books seized at Berquin's house should be laid before the faculty of theology. Its decision was soon made known, and on the 25th of June, it condemned all the works, except the two already mentioned, to be burnt as heretical; and enjoined that Berquin should be required to abjure his errors. The Parliament ratified the decision. Berquin appeared at the bar of this formidable body: he

knew that the next step beyond it might be to the scaffold; but, like Luther at Worms, he stood firm. It was in vain that the Parliament insisted on his retracting; he was not of those who fall away after being made partakers of the Holy Ghost. *He that is begotten of God keepeth himself, and that wicked one touched him not.** Every such fall proves that conversion has either been only apparent, or else partial;† now Berquin's was a real conversion. He answered the court before which he stood with decision; and the Parliament, using more severity than the Diet of Worms, directed its officers to take the accused into custody, and lead him away to prison. This took place on the 1st of August, 1523. On the 5th, the Parliament handed over the heretic to the Bishop of Paris, in order that that prelate might take cognizance of the affair, and jointly with the doctors and counsellors, pass sentence on the culprit. Berquin was forthwith transferred to the official prison.‡

Beda, Duchesne, and their companions had their victim in their clutches; but the court bore no favour to the Sorbonne, and Francis was more powerful than Beda. A feeling of indignation spread among the nobles: what do these monks and priests mean, not to respect the rank of a gentleman? What charge do they bring against him? was the question asked in the presence of Francis. Is it that he blames the practice of invoking the Virgin instead of the Holy Spirit? But Erasmus and many more have censured it. Is it on such frivolous charges they go the length of imprisoning an officer of the king?§ This attack of theirs is a blow struck against knowledge and true religion; an insult to nobles, knights, and royalty itself. The king decided on again making the Sorbonne feel the weight of his authority. He issued letters summoning the parties in the cause before his council, and on the 8th of August a messenger presented himself at the official prison, bearing a royal mandate enjoining that Berquin should be at liberty.

It seemed at first doubtful whether the monks would yield compliance. Francis had anticipated some difficulty, and, in charging the messenger with the execution of his orders, had added: "If you meet with any resistance, I authorize you to break open the doors." There was no misunderstanding these words. The monks and the Sorbonne submitted to the affront put upon them; and Berquin, released from duurance, appeared before the king's council, and was there acquitted.||

Thus did Francis I., humble the ecclesiastical power. Under his reign Berquin fondly hoped that France might free herself from the Papal yoke; and he began to meditate a renewal of hostilities. With this intent, he opened communications with Erasmus, who at once acknowledged his right intentions.¶ But the philosopher, ever timid and temporizing, replied—"Remember to avoid irritating the drones; and pursue your studies in peace.** Above all, do not implicate me in your affairs, for that will be of no service to either of us."††

Berquin was not discouraged. If the great genius of the age draws back, he will put his trust in God

* Hebrews vi. 4. 1 John v. 18.

† This is believed to be a faithful rendering of the original. The interpretation and the application may be open to question.—(T.)

‡ Ductus est in carcerem, reus hæreses periclitatus. (Er. Epp. 1279. Crévier, Gaillard, loc. cit.)

§ Ob hujusmodi nenas. Erasm. Epp. 1279.)

|| At judices, ubi viderunt causam esse nullius momenti, absolverunt hominem. (Ibid.)

¶ Ex epistola visus est mihi vir bonus. (Ibid.)

** Sinceret crabrones et sus se studiis oblectaret. (Erasm. Epp. 1379.)

†† Deinde ne me involveret sue causæ. (Ibid.)

* Actes des Martyrs, p. 183.

† Impietatis etiam accusatos, tum voce, tum scriptis. (Bezæ Icones)

‡ Incongrue beatam Virginem invocari pro Spiritu Sancto. (Erasm. Epp. 1279.)

§ Gaillard Hist. de Francois I. iv. 241. Crévier, Univ. de Paris. v. p. 171.

who never deserts his work. God's work *will* be effected—either *by* humble instrumentality, or *without* it. Erasmus himself acknowledged that Berquin, like the palm tree, rose in renewed vigour from every new gust of persecution that assailed him.*

Not such were all who had embraced the Evangelical doctrines. Martial Mazurier had been one of the most zealous of preachers.† He was accused of having advocated very erroneous opinions;‡ and even of having committed, while at Meaux, certain acts of violence. "This Martial Mazurier, being at Meaux," such are the words of a manuscript preserved in that city; and which we have already had occasion to quote—"entering the church of the reverend Fathers, the Cordeliers, and seeing the statue of St. Francis, in high relief, outside the door of the convent, where that of St. Roch is now placed, struck it down, and broke it." Mazurier was arrested, and thrown into prison, where he at once fell back upon his own reflections and the keenest perplexity.‡ It was the Gospel rule of morals, rather than its great doctrines, that had won him over to the ranks of the Reformers; and that rule, taken alone, brought with it no strength. Terrified at the prospect of the stake awaiting him, and believing that in France, the victory would be sure to remain with Rome, he easily persuaded himself that he should have more influence and honour by going back to the Papacy. Accordingly, he recanted his former teaching, and directed that doctrines altogether opposed to those ascribed to him, should be preached in his parish;§ and uniting, at a later period, with most fanatical of the Romish party—and particularly with the celebrated Ignatius Loyola,|| he became, thenceforward, the most zealous supporter of the Papal cause. From the days of the Emperor Julian apostates have ever been among the sternest enemies of the doctrines which they once professed.

An occasion soon offered for Mazurier to make proof of his zeal. The youthful James Pavanne had also been thrown into prison. Martial hoped to cover his own shame by involving another in the like fall. The youth, the amiable disposition, the learning, and the integrity of Pavanne, created a general interest in his favour; and Mazurier imagined that he himself should be deemed less culpable if he could but persuade Master James to a similar course. Visiting him in his cell, he began by pretending that he had advanced farther in inquiry into the truth than Pavanne had done. "You are under a mistake, James," he often repeated to him: "You have not gone deep into these matters: you have made acquaintance only with the agitated surface of them."¶ Sophisms, promises, threats were freely resorted to. The unfortunate youth, deceived, disturbed, and perplexed, yielded to these perfidious advances; and on the morrow of Christmas day, 1524, he publicly abjured his pretended errors. But from that hour a spirit of melancholy and remorse, sent by the Almighty, weighed heavy on his soul. Deep sadness consumed him, and his sighs were unceasing. "Ah!" he repeated, "for me life has nothing left but bitterness." Such are the mournful consequences of apostasy.

Nevertheless, among those Frenchmen who had received the word of God, were found men of more intrepid hearts than Pavanne and Mazurier. Toward the end of 1523, Leclerc settled at Metz, in Lorraine,

"and there," says Theodora Beza, "he acted on the example of St. Paul, who, while labouring at Corinth as a tent-maker, persuaded both the Jews and the Greeks."* Leclerc, while pursuing his industry as a wool-comber, instructed those of his own condition; and among these last there had been several instances of real conversion. Thus did this humble artisan lay the foundation of a church which afterward became celebrated.

But at Metz, Leclerc did not stand alone. Among the ecclesiastics of that city was one John Châtelain, an Augustine monk of Tournay, and doctor of theology, who had been brought to the knowledge of God,† through his acquaintance with the Augustines of Antwerp. Châtelain had gained the reverence of the people by the strictness of his morals;‡ and the doctrine of Christ, when preached by him, attired in cope and stole, appeared less strange to the inhabitants of Metz, than when it proceeded from the lips of a poor artisan, laying aside the comb with which he carded his wool, to take up and explain a French version of the gospels.

By the active zeal of these two men, the light of evangelical truth began to be diffused throughout the city. A very devout woman named Toussaint, one of the middle class of the people, had a son called Peter, with whom, in the hours of his childish sports, she would often speak of serious things. Everyone, even to the humblest, lived then in expectation of some extraordinary event. One day the child was amusing himself in riding on a stick, in a room where his mother was conversing with some friends on the things of God, when she said, in a voice of emotion, "Antichrist will soon come with great power, and will destroy such as shall have been converted by the preaching of Elias."§ These words being frequently repeated, arrested the attention of the child, and he afterward recalled them. At the time when the doctor of theology and the wool-comber were engaged in preaching the gospel at Metz, Peter Toussaint was grown up. His relations and friends, wondering at his precocious genius, conceived the hope of seeing him in an exalted station in the church. An uncle on his father's side was *primicier*, or head of the chapter of Metz.|| The cardinal, John of Lorraine, son of Duke René, who kept a large establishment, expressed much regard for the *primicier* and his nephew, the latter of whom, notwithstanding his youth, had just before obtained a prebend, when his attention was drawn to the study of the gospel. Why may not the preaching of Châtelain and Leclerc be that of Elias? It is true Antichrist is everywhere arming against it. But what matter! "Let us," said he, "lift up our heads, looking to the Lord, who will come and will not tarry."¶ The light of truth was beginning to find entrance among the principal families of Metz. The knight Esch, an intimate friend of the *primicier*, or dean, and much respected, had been recently converted.** The friends of the gospel were rejoicing in this event—Pierre was accustomed to term him "our worthy master the knight;" adding with noble candour, "if we may be allowed to call any man master on earth."††

* Acts of the Apostles, xviii. 3. 4. Apostoli apud Corinthios exemplum secutus. (Bezae Icones.)

† Vocatus ad cognitionem Dei. (Act. Mart. 190.)

‡ Gaillard, Hist. de François I. v. p. 232.

§ Cum equitabam in arundine longa, memini sæpe audisse me a matre, venturum Antichristum cum potentia magna perditurumque eos qui essent et Eliæ prædicationem conversi. (Tossanus Farello, 4 Sept. 1525, from a MS. of the conclave of Neuchâtel.)

¶ Ibid. 4th Sept. 1525.

** Clarissimum illum equitem... cum multum familiaritæ et amicitie, cum primicerio Metensi, patruo meo. (Toss. Farello, 2d Aug. 1524.)

†† Ibid. 21st July, 1525. MS. of Neuchâtel.

* Ille, ut habebat quiddam cum palmâ commune, adversus deterrentem tollebat animos. (Ibid.) There is probably an allusion to Pliny, Hist. Naturalis, xvi. 42.

† Historie l'Université par Crevier, v. p. 293.

‡ Gaillard, Hist. de François I. v. p. 234.

§ "Comme il étoit homme adroit, il esquivait la condamnation," says Crevier, v. p. 293.

|| Cum Ignatio Loyola init amicitiam. (Launoi Navarræ gymnasi historia, p. 621.)

¶ Actes des Martyrs, p. 99.

Thus Metz was about to become a focus of light when the rash zeal of Leclerc abruptly arrested its slow but sure progress, and excited a commotion which threatened ruin to the infant church. The populace of Metz had continued to observe their accustomed superstitions, and Leclerc's spirit was stirred within him at the sight of the city almost wholly given to idolatry. One of their high festivals drew nigh. About a league distant from the city stood a chapel inclosing statues of the virgin and of the most venerated saints of the surrounding country, whither the people of Metz were in the habit of resorting in pilgrimage on a certain day in the year, to worship these images and obtain the pardon of their sins.

On the eve of this festival the pious and the courageous spirit of Leclerc was deeply agitated. Had not God said—"Thou shalt not bow down to thy gods, but thou shalt utterly overthrow them, and quite break down their images."* Leclerc understood the words as addressed to himself, and without conferring with Chatelain, Esch, or any of those whom he may have expected would dissuade him, quitted the city, and approached the chapel. There he collected his thoughts as he sat silently before these statues. As yet the way was open to him to retire; but to-morrow—in a few hours—the entire population of a city, which ought to be worshipping God alone, will be bowing before these blocks of wood and stone. A struggle ensued in the heart of the humble wool-carder, similar to that which was so often endured in the hearts of the early Christians. What signified the difference, that here it was the images of the saints of the neighbouring country, and not of heathen gods and goddesses—did not the worship rendered to these images belong of right to God alone? Like Polyucte before the idols of the temple, his heart shuddered, and his courage was roused:

Ne perdons plus le tempts, le sacrifice est prêt,
Allons y du vrai Dieu soutenir l'intérêt;
Allons fouler aux pieds ce foudre ridicule
Dont arme un bois pourri ce peuple trop crédule
Allons en éclairer l'aveuglement fatal,
Allons briser ces dieux de pierre et de métal
Abandonnons nos jours, à cette ardeur celeste—
Faisons triompher Dieu; qu'il dispose du reste.
Corneille, Polyucte.†

Leclerc accordingly rose from his seat, and approaching the images, removed and broke them, in his holy indignation scattering the fragments before the altar. He did not doubt that this action was by special inspiration of the spirit of the Lord, and Theodore Beza was of the same judgment.‡ This done, Leclerc returned to Metz, re-entering it at day-break, and noticed only a few persons at the moment of his passing the gate of the city.§

Meanwhile all were in motion in the ancient city of Metz. The bells rang, the various religious bodies mustered, and the entire population, headed by the priests and monks, left the city, reciting prayers and chanting hymns to the saints whom they were on their way to worship. Crosses and banners went forward in orderly procession, and drums and instruments of music mingled with the hymns of the faithful. After an hours march, the procession reached the place of pilgrimage. But what was the astonishment of the priests, when advancing with censers in hand, they beheld the images they had come to worship mutilated, and their fragments strewed upon the earth. They drew

back appalled, and announced to the crowd of worshippers the sacrilege that had been committed. Instantly the hymns were hushed—the music stopped—the banners were lowered, and agitation pervaded the assembled multitude. Canons, curates, and monks, laboured still farther to inflame their anger and excited them to search out the guilty person, and require that he should be put to death.* A shout was raised on all sides. "Death—Death to the sacrilegious wretch." They returned in haste and disorder to the city.

Leclerc was known to all; several times he had been heard to call the images *idols*; moreover he had been observed at day-break returning from the direction of the chapel. He was apprehended, and at once confessed the fact, at the same time conjuring the people to worship God alone. But his appeal only the more inflamed the rage of the multitude, who would have dragged him to instant execution. Placed before his judges, he courageously declared that Jesus Christ—God manifest in the flesh—ought to be the sole object of worship; and was sentenced to be burnt alive! He was conducted to the place of execution.

Here an awful scene awaited him: his persecutors had been devising all that could render his sufferings more dreadful. At the scaffold they were engaged heating pincers, as instruments of their cruelty. Leclerc heard with calm composure the savage yells of monks and people. They began by cutting off his right hand; then taking up the red hot pincers, they tore away his nose; after this, with the same instrument, they lacerated his arms, and having thus mangled him in many places, they ended by applying the burnings to his breasts.† All the while that the cruelty of his enemies was venting itself on his body, his soul was kept in perfect peace. He ejaculated solemnly,—"Their idols are silver and gold, the work of men's hands. They have mouths, but they speak not: eyes have they, but they see not; they have ears, but they hear not: noses have they, but they smell not: they have hands, but they handle not: feet have they, but they walk not: neither speak they through their throat. They that make them are like unto them; so is every one that trusteth in them. O Israel, trust thou in the Lord: he is their help and their shield." The enemies were awed by the sight of so much composure, believers were confirmed in their faith,§ and the people, whose indignation had vented itself in the first burst of anger, were astonished and affected.¶ After undergoing these tortures, Leclerc was burned by a slow fire in conformity to the sentence. Such was the death of the first martyr of the Gospel in France.

But the priests of Metz did not rest there: in vain had they laboured to shake the fidelity of Chatelain—"He is like the deaf addor," said they, "he refuses to hear the truth."¶ He was arrested by the servants of the Cardinal of Lorraine, and transferred to the castle of Nommeny.

After this he was degraded by the officers of the bishop, who stripped him of his vestments, and scraped the tips of his fingers with a piece of broken glass, saying: "Thus do we take away the power to sacrifice, consecrate, and bless, which thou didst formerly receive by the anointing of thy hands."** Then

* Totam civitatem concitarunt ad auctorem ejus facinoris querendum. (Act. Mart. lat. p. 189.)

† Naso candentibus forcipibus abrepto, iisdemque brachio utroque, ipsis que mammis crudelissime perustis. (Beza Icones.) MS. of Meaux, Crespin, &c.

‡ Altissima voce recitans. (Beza Icones.) Psalm cxv. 4-9.

§ Adversariis territis, piis magnopere confirmatis. (Ibid.)

¶ Nemo qui non commoveretur, attonitus. (Act. Mart. lat. p. 189.)

** Instar aspidis serpentis aures omni surditate affectas. (Act. Mart. lat. p. 189.)

** Utrisque manus digitos lamina vitrea erasit. (Ibid. p. 66.)

* Exodus xx. 4; xxiii. 24.

† Polyucte, by P. Corneille. What many admire in poetry, they pass condemnation on in history.

‡ Divini spiritus afflatu impulsus. (Beza Icones.)

§ Mane apud urbis portam deprehensus.

throwing over him the habit of a layman, they handed him over to the secular power, which doomed him to be burnt alive. The fire was quickly lighted, and the servant of Christ consumed in the flames. "Nevertheless," observe the historians of the Gallican Church, who, in other respects, are loud in commendation of these acts of rigour, "Lutheranism spread through all the districts of Metz."

From the moment this storm had descended on the church of Metz, distress and alarm had prevailed in the household of Toussaint. His uncle, the dean, without taking an active part in the measures resorted to against Leclerc and Châtelain, shuddered at the thought that his nephew was one among those people. His mother's fears were still more aroused: not a moment was to be lost; all who had given ear to the evangelic doctrine felt their liberty and lives to be in danger. The blood shed by the the inquisitors had but increased their thirst for more. New scaffolds would ere long be erected: Pierre Toussaint, the knight Esch, and others besides, hastily quitted Metz, and sought refuge at Basle.

Thus violently did the storm of persecution rage at Meaux and at Metz. Repulsed from the northern provinces, the Gospel for a while seemed to give way; but the Reformation did but change its ground, and the south-eastern provinces became the basis and theatre of the movement.

Farel, who had retired to the foot of the Alps, was labouring actively in his work. It was a small thing to him to enjoy in the bosom of his family the sweets of domestic life. The report of the events that had taken place at Meaux and at Paris had communicated a degree of terror to his brothers; but a secret influence attracted them toward those new and wonderful truths which their brother William was in the habit of dwelling upon. The latter, with all the earnestness of his character, besought them to be converted to the Gospel;* and Daniel, Walter, and Claude, were at length won over to that God whom their brother declared to them. They did not at first relinquish the worship of their forefathers, but when persecution arose they boldly suffered the loss of friends, property, and country, for the liberty to worship Christ.†

The brothers of Luther and Zwingle do not appear to have been so decidedly converted to the Gospel. The Reformation in France had from its outset a peculiarly domestic character.

Farel's exhortations were not confined to his brothers. He made known the truth to his relatives and friends at Gap and its vicinity. It would even appear, if we give credit to one manuscript, that, availing himself of the friendship of certain ecclesiastics, he began to preach the Gospel in some of the churches;‡ but other authorities affirm that he did not at this time occupy the pulpit. However that may be, the opinions he professed were noised abroad, and both priests and people insisted that he should be silenced: 'What new and strange heresy is this?' said they; 'how can we think that all the practices of devotion are useless? The man is neither monk nor priest: he has no business to preach.'§

It was not long before the whole of the authorities, civil and ecclesiastical, were combined against Farel. It was sufficiently evident he was acting with that sect which was everywhere spoken against. "Let us cast out from amongst us," cried they, "this firebrand of

discord." Farel was summoned before the judges, roughly handled, and forcibly expelled the city.*

Yet he did not forsake his country—the open plains and villages—the banks of the Durance, of the Guisanne, of the Isere—was there not many a soul in those localities that stood in need of the Gospel? and if he should run any risk, were not these forests, caverns, and steep rocks, which had been the familiar haunts of his childhood, at hand to afford him their shelter? He began, therefore, to traverse the country, preaching in private dwellings and secluded meadows, and retiring for shelter to the woods and overhanging torrents.† It was a training by which God was preparing him for other trials: "Crosses, persecutions, and the lyings-in-wait of Satan, of which I had intimation, were not wanting," said he; "they were even much more than I could have borne in my own strength, but God is my father: He has ministered, and will for ever minister to me all needful strength."‡ Very many of the inhabitants of these countries received the truth from his lips; and thus the same persecution that drove Farel from Paris and Meaux, was the means of diffusing the Reformation in the countries of the Saone, the Rhone, and the Alps. In all ages, it has been found that they who have been scattered abroad, *have gone everywhere preaching the word of God.*§

Among the Frenchmen who were at this time gained over to the Gospel, was a Dauphinese gentleman, the Knight Anemond de Coct, the younger son of the the auditor of Coct, the lord of Chatelard. Active, ardent, truly pious, and opposed to the generally received veneration of relics, processions, and clergy, Anemond readily received the evangelic doctrine, and was soon entirely devoted to it. He could not patiently endure the formality that reigned around him, and it was his wish to see all the ceremonies of the Church abolished. The religion of the heart, the inward worship of the Spirit, was everything in his estimation. "Never," said he, "has my mind found any rest in externals. The sum of Christianity is in that text—'John truly baptized with water, but ye shall be baptized with the Holy Ghost.' We must become 'new creatures.'"

Coct, endued with the vivacity of his nation, spoke and wrote one day in French, the next in Latin. He read and quoted Donatus, Thomas Aquinas, Juvenal, and the Bible! His style was brief, and marked by abrupt transitions. Ever restless, he would present himself wherever a door seemed to be open to the Gospel, or a famous teacher was to be heard. His cordiality won the affection of all his acquaintances. "He is a man of distinction, both for his birth and his learning," observed Zwingle, at a later period, "but yet more distinguished for his piety and obliging disposition."¶ Anemond is a sort of type of many Frenchmen of the Reformed opinions: vivacity, simplicity, a zeal which passes readily into imprudence—such are the qualities often recurring among those of his countrymen who have embraced the Gospel. But at the very opposite extreme of the French character, we behold the grave aspect of Calvin, serving as a weighty counterpoise to the light step of Coct. Calvin and Anemond, are, as the two poles between whom the religious world of France revolves.

* Il fut chassé, voire fort rudement, tant par l'évêque que par ceux de la ville. (MS. of Choupard.)

† Olim errabundus in sylvis, in nemoribus, in aquis vagatus sum. (Farel ad Capit. de Bucer. Basil 28th Oct. 1526. MS. of Neufchâtel.)

‡ Non defuere crux, persecutio et Satanae machinamenta . . . (Farel Galeote.) *Œuvres de Calvin*, t. ii. § Acts viii.

§ Nunquam in externis quievit spiritus meus. (Coctus Farello, MS. of the Conclave of Neufchâtel.)

¶ Virum est genere, doctrinæ clarum, ita pietate humane teque longe clariorem. (Zw. Epp. p. 319.)

* MS. of Choupard.

† Farel, says a French MS. preserved at Geneva, was a gentleman in station, of ample fortune, which he gave up for the sake of his religion—as did also three of his brothers.

‡ Il prêcha l'Évangile publiquement avec une grande liberté. (MS. of Choupard.)

§ Ibid. Hist. des Evêq. de Nîmes, 1733.

No sooner had Anemond received from Farel the knowledge of Jesus Christ,* than he set about winning souls to that doctrine of "spirit and life." His father, was no more. His elder brother—of a stern and haughty temper—disdainfully repulsed his advances. Laurent—the youngest of the family, and affectionately attached to him—seemed but half to enter into the understanding of his words, and Anemond, disappointed in his own family, turned his activity in another direction.

Hitherto it was among the laity only that this awakening in Dauphiny had been known. Farel, Anemond, and their friends, wished much to see a priest taking the lead in the movement, which promised to make itself felt throughout the Alps. There dwelt at Grenoble a curate—a minorite, by name Pierre de Seville, famed for the eloquence of his preaching, right-minded and simple—"conferring not with flesh and blood," and whom God, by gradual process, was drawing to the knowledge of Himself.† It was not long before Seville was brought to the acknowledgment that there is no unerring teacher save the word of the Lord; and, relinquishing such teaching as rests only on the witness of men, he determined in his heart to preach a Gospel, at once, "clear, pure, and holy."‡ These three words exhibit the complete character of the Reformation. Coet and Farel rejoiced to hear this new preacher of Grace, raising his powerful voice in their country; and they concluded that their own presence would thenceforth be less necessary.

The more the awakening spread, the more violently did opposition arise. Anemond, longing to know more of Luther, Zwingle, and of the countries which had been the birth-place of the Reformation, and indignant at finding the Gospel rejected by his own countrymen, resolved to bid farewell to his country and family. He made his will—settling his property, then in the hands of his elder brother, the lord of Chatelard, on his brother Laurent.§ This done, he quitted Dauphiny and France, and passing over, with impetuous haste, countries which were then not traversed without much difficulty, he went through Switzerland, and scarcely stopping at Basle, arrived at Wittenberg, where Luther then was. It was shortly after the second diet of Nuremberg. The French gentleman accosted the Saxon Doctor with his accustomed vivacity, spoke with enthusiastic warmth concerning the Gospel, and dwelt largely on the plans he had formed for the propagation of the truth. The grave Saxon smiled as he listened to the southern imagination of the speaker; and Luther,|| who had some prejudices against the national character of the French, was won, and carried away by Anemond. The thought, that this gentleman had made the journey from France to Wittenberg, for the Gospel's sake, affected him.¶ "Certainly," remarked the Reformer to his friends, "that French knight is an excellent man, and both learned and pious."*** and Zwingle formed a similar opinion of him.

Anemond having seen what had been effected by the agency of Luther and Zwingle, imagined that if they

would but take in hand France and Savoy, nothing could stand against them; and accordingly, failing to persuade them to remove thither, he earnestly desired them that, at least, they would write. He particularly besought Luther to address a letter to Charles, Duke of Savoy, brother of Louisa and of Philibert, and uncle to Francis the First and Margaret. "That prince," observed he to Luther, "is much drawn to piety and true religion,* and he takes pleasure in conversing concerning the Reformation with certain persons at his court. He is just the one to enter into your views—for his motto is '*Nihil deest timentis bus Deum*;'† and that is your own maxim. Assailed alternately by the Empire and by France, humbled, broken in spirit, and continually in danger, his heart knows its need of God and His grace: all he wants is to be impelled to action, once gained over to the Gospel, his influence would be immense in Switzerland, Savoy, and France. Pray write to him."

Luther was a thorough German, and would not have been at ease beyond the frontier of his own nation. Yet, in true Catholicity of heart, his hand was immediately put out where he recognised brethren; and wherever a word might be spoken with effect, he took care to make it heard. Sometimes, on the same day, he would write letters to countries separated by the widest distances—as the Netherlands, Savoy, Livonia.

"Assuredly," he answered Anemond, "a love for the Gospel is a rare and inestimable jewel in a prince's crown."‡ And he proceeded to write to the duke a letter which Anemond probably carried with him as far as Switzerland.

"I beg your highness's pardon," wrote Luther, "if I, a poor and unfriended monk, venture to address you; or, rather, I would ask of your highness to ascribe this boldness of mine to the glory of the Gospel—for I cannot see that glorious light arise and shine in any quarter without exulting at the sight. . . . My hope is, that my Lord Jesus Christ may win over many souls by the power of your serene highness's example. Therefore, it is, I desire to instruct you in our teaching. We believe that the very beginning of salvation and the sum of Christianity consists in faith in Christ, who, by his blood alone, and not by any works of ours, has put away sin, and destroyed the power of death. We believe that this faith is God's gift, formed in our hearts by the Holy Spirit, and not attained by any effort of our own—for faith is a principle of life,§ begetting man spiritually, and making him a new creature."

Luther passed then to the effects of faith, and showed that it was not possible to be possessed of that faith without the superstructure of false doctrine and human merits—built up so laboriously by the church—being at once swept away. "If grace," said he, "is the purchase of Christ's blood, it follows that it is not the purchase of works of ours. Hence the train of works of all the cloisters in the world are, for this purpose, useless: and such institutions should be abolished, as opposed to the blood of Jesus Christ, and as leading men to trust in their own good works. Ingrafted in Christ, nothing remains for us but to do good; because, being become good trees, we ought to give proof of it by bearing good fruits."

"Gracious prince and lord," said Luther, in conclusion, "may your highness, having made so happy a beginning, help to spread this doctrine—not by the

* In a letter to Farel, he signs :—*Filius tuus humilis*. (2 Sept. 1524.)

† *Pater cœlestis animum sic tuum ad se traxit*. (Zwinglius Seville, Epp. p. 320.)

‡ *Nitide, purè, sancteque prædicare in animum inducis*. (Ibid.)

§ "My brother Anemond Coet, when setting forth from this country, made me his heir." (MS. Letters in the Library at Neuchâtel.)

|| "Mire ardens in Evangelium," said Luther to Spalatin. (Epp. ii. p. 340.) "Sehr brünstig in der Herrlichkeit des Evangelii," said he to the Duke of Savoy. (Ibid. p. 401.)

¶ *Evangelii gratia huc profectus e Gallia*. (L. Epp. ii. p. 340.)

*** *Hic Gallus eques . . . optimus vir est, eruditus ac pius*. (Ibid.)

* Ein grosser Leibhaber der wahren Religion und Gottseligkeit. (Ibid. p. 401.)

† "They that fear God shall want no good thing." (Hist. Gen. de la Maison de Savoie par Guichenon, ii. p. 228.)

‡ Eine seltsame Gabe und hohes Kleinod unter den Fürsten. (L. Epp. ii. p. 401.)

§ Der Glaube ist ein lebendig Ding . . . (Ibid. p. 502.) The Latin is wanting.

sword, which would be a hindrance to the Gospel—but by inviting to your states teachers who preach the word. It is by the breath of his mouth that Jesus will destroy anti-Christ; so that, as Daniel describes, he may be broken without hand. Therefore, most serene prince, let your highness cherish that spark that has been kindled in your heart. Let a flame go forth from the house of Savoy, as once from the house of Joseph.* May all France be as stubble before that fire. May it burn, blaze, and purify—that so that renowned kingdom may truly take the title of 'Most Christian,' which it has hitherto received only in reward of blood shed in the cause of anti-Christ."

Thus did Luther endeavour to diffuse the Gospel in France. We have no means of knowing the effect of this letter on the prince; but we do not find that he ever gave signs of a wish to detach himself from Rome. In 1523 he requested Adrian VI. to be godfather to his first-born son: and, at a later period, we find the pope promising him a cardinal's hat for his second son. Anemond, after making an effort to be admitted to see the court and Elector of Saxony,† and, for this purpose, providing himself with a letter from Luther, returned to Basle, more than ever resolved to risk his life in the cause of the Gospel. In the ardour of his purpose, he would have roused the entire nation. "All that I am, or ever can be," said he, "all I have, or ever can have, is my earnest desire to devote to the glory of God."‡

At Basle, Anemond found his countryman Farel. The letters of Anemond had excited in him a great desire to be personally acquainted with the Swiss and German Reformers. Moreover, Farel felt the need of a sphere in which his activity might be more freely put forth. He accordingly quitted France, which already offered only the scaffold to the preachers of a pure Gospel. Taking to by-paths, and hiding in the woods, he with difficulty escaped out of the hands of his enemies. Often had he mistaken the direction in which his route lay. "God," observes he, "designs, by my helplessness in these little matters, to teach me how helpless I am in greater things."§

At length he entered Switzerland, in the beginning of 1524. There he was destined to spend his life in the service of the Gospel—and then it was that France began to pour into Switzerland those noble heralds of the Gospel, who were to seat the Reformation in *Romane* Switzerland, and communicate to it a new and powerful impulse throughout, and far beyond the limits of the confederated cantons.

The Catholicity of the Reformation is a beautiful character in its history. The Germans pass into Switzerland—the French into Germany, and, at a somewhat later period, we see the English and the Scotch passing to the continent, and the continental teachers to Great Britain. The Reformations of the several countries take their rise independently of each other—but as soon as they look around them, their hands are held out to each other. To them there is one Faith, one Spirit, one Lord. It is an error to treat the history of the Reformation in connexion with any single country. The work was one and the same in all lands: and the Protestant churches were from the very beginning a "whole body, fitly joined together."||

Certain persons who had fled from France and Lorraine, at this time, formed in the city of Basle a French

church, whose members had escaped from the scaffold. These persons had spread the report of Lefevre, Farel, and the events that had occurred at Meaux; and, when Farel entered Switzerland he was already known as one of the most fearless heralds of the truth.

He was immediately introduced to Æcolampadius, who, some time before this, had returned to Basle. Seldom does it happen that two characters more opposite are brought together. Æcolampadius charmed by his gentleness—Farel carried away his hearers by his earnestness—but, from the moment they met, these two men felt themselves one in heart.* It resembled the first meeting of Luther and Melancthon. Æcolampadius bade him welcome, gave him an apartment in his house, received him at his table, and introduced him to his friends; and it was not long before the learning, piety, and courage of the young Frenchman, won the hearts of his new friends. Pellican, Imelia, Wolfhard, and others of the preachers of Basle, were fortified in their faith by the energy of his exhortations. Æcolampadius was just then suffering under depression of spirits—"Alas!" he wrote to Zwingle, "it is in vain I preach—I see no hope of any effect being produced. Perhaps among the Turks I might succeed better.† Oh!" added he, sighing, "I ascribe the failure to myself alone." But the more he saw of Farel, the more his heart felt encouragement; and the courage he derived from the Frenchman laid the ground of an undying affection. "Dear Farel," said he to him, "I trust the Lord will make ours a friendship for all eternity—and if we are parted below, our joy will only be the greater when we shall be gathered in presence of Christ, in the heavens!"‡ Pious and affecting thoughts. The coming of Farel was evidently help from above.

But while the Frenchman took delight in the society of Æcolampadius, he drew back with cool independence from a man at whose feet the principal nations of Christendom paid homage. The prince of scholars—the man whose smile and words were objects of general ambition—the teacher of that age—Erasmus—was passed over by Farel. The young Dauphinese had declined to pay his respects to the venerated philosopher of Rotterdam—having no relish for those who are never more than half-hearted for truth, and who, in the clear understanding of the consequences of error, are nevertheless full of allowances for those who propagate it. Accordingly we have in Farel that decision which has become one of the distinguishing characters of the Reformation in France, and in those cantons of Switzerland bordering on France—characters which have been by some deemed stiffness, exclusiveness, and intolerance. A controversy had commenced between Erasmus and Lefevre, arising out of the commentaries put forth by the latter—and in all companies parties were divided for the one and against the other.§ Farel had unhesitatingly ranged himself on the side of his teacher. But that which chiefly roused his indignation was the cowardly course pursued by the philosopher toward the evangelical party. Erasmus's doors were closed against them. That being the case, Farel will not enter them! to him, this was felt to be no loss; convinced as he was that the very ground of a true theology—the piety of the heart

* Das ein Feuer von dem Hause Sophoy ausgehe. (L. Epp. ii. p. 406)

† Vult videre aulam et faciem Principis nostri. (Ib. p. 340.)

‡ Quidquid sum, habeo, ero, habebove, ad Dei gloriam insu- mere meus est. (Coct. Epp. MS. of Neuchâtel.)

§ Vultit Dominus per infirma hæc, docere quid possit homo in majoribus. (Farel Capitoni, Ibid.)

|| Eph. iv. 16.

* Amicum semper habui a primo colloquio. (Farel ad Bul- ling. 27th May, 1556.)

† Fortasse in mediis Turcis felicius deouissem. (Zw. et Ecol. Epp. p. 200)

‡ Mi Farelle, spero Dominum conservaturum amicitiam nostram immortalem; et si hic conjungi nequimus, tanto beatus alibi apud Christum erit contubernium. (Zw. et Ecol. Epp. p. 201.)

§ Nullum est pene convivium . . . (Er. Epp. p. 179.)

—was wanting to Erasmus. "Frobenius's wife knows more of theology than he does," remarked Farel; and stung by the intelligence that Erasmus had written to the Pope, advising him how to set about "extinguishing the spread of Lutheranism,"* he publicly declared that Erasmus was endeavouring to stifle the Gospel.

This independence of young Farel disturbed the composure of the man of learning. Princes, kings, learned men, bishops, priests, and men of the world, all were ready to offer him the tribute of their admiration: Luther himself had treated him with respect, so far as he was personally mixed up in this controversy; and this Dauphinese—a nameless refugee—ventured to brave his power. So insolent a freedom caused Erasmus more annoyance than the homage of the world at large could give him joy, and hence he lost no opportunity of venting his spite against Farel. Moreover, in assailing him he contributed to clear himself, in the judgment of the Roman Catholics, of the suspicion of heresy—"I never met with such a liar—such a restless seditious spirit as that man,"† observed he; "his heart is full of vanity, and his tongue charged with malice."‡ But the anger of Erasmus did not stop at Farel—it was directed against all the Frenchmen who had sought refuge at Basle, and whose frankness and decision were an offence to him. They paid evidently no respect to persons; and wherever the truth was not frankly confessed, they took no notice of the man, how great soever his genius might be. Wanting, perhaps, in the graciousness of the Gospel, there was in their faithfulness that which reminds one of the prophets of old—and it is truly delightful to contemplate men who stand erect before that to which the world bows down. Erasmus, astonished by this lofty disdain, complained of it in all companies. "What mean we," wrote he to Melancthon, "to reject pontiffs and bishops, only to submit to the insolence of more cruel ragamuffin tyrants and madmen,§ for such it is that France has given us." "There are some Frenchmen," he wrote to the Pope's secretary (at the same time sending him his book on Free Will,) "who are even more insane than the Germans themselves. They have ever on their lips these five words—*Gospel—Word of God—Faith—Christ—Holy Spirit*—and yet I doubt not but that it is the spirit of Satan that urges them on."|| In place of Farellus he often wrote *Fallicus*, thus designating as a cheat and deceiver, one of the most frank-hearted men of his age.

The rage and anger of Erasmus were at their height, when information arrived that Farel had termed him a *Balaam*. Farel thought that Erasmus, like that prophet, was (perhaps unconsciously) swayed by gifts to curse the people of God. The man of learning, no longer able to restrain himself, resolved to chastise the daring Dauphinese: and one day, when Farel was discussing certain topics of Christian doctrine with some friends, in the presence of Erasmus, the latter rudely interrupted him with the question—"On what ground do you call me Balaam?"¶ Farel, who was at first disconcerted by the abruptness of the question, soon recovered himself, and made answer that it was not he who had given him that name. Being pressed to say

who it was, he mentioned Du Blet of Lyons, who like himself had sought refuge at Basle.* "Perhaps he may have made use of the expression," replied Erasmus, "but it is yourself who taught it him." Then ashamed to have lost his temper, he hastily changed the subject: "Why is it," asked he, "that you assert that we are not to invoke the saints? Is it because Holy Scripture does not enjoin the practice?" "It is," answered the Frenchman. "Well," said the man of learning, "I call on you to show from Scripture that we should invoke the Holy Ghost?" Farel gave this clear and solid answer: "If He be God, we must invoke Him."† "I dropped the conversation," said Erasmus, "for the night was closing in"‡ From that time, whenever Farel's name came under his pen, the opportunity was taken to represent him as a hateful person, on every account to be shunned. The Reformer's letters are, on the contrary, marked by moderation as regards Erasmus. Even in those most constitutionally hasty, the Gospel is a more gracious thing than Philosophy.

The Evangelic doctrine had already many friends in Basle, in the town-council, and among the people; but the Doctors and the University opposed it to the utmost of their power. Ecolampadius and Stor, pastor at Liestal, had maintained certain theses against them. Farel thought it well to assert in Switzerland also the great maxim of the Evangelic school of Paris and Meaux—*God's Word is all-sufficient*. He requested permission of the University to maintain some theses—"the rather," he modestly added, "to be reproved if I am in error, than to teach others."§ But the University refused its permission.

Farel then appealed to the council, and the council issued public notice, that a Christian man, by name William Farel, having, by the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, prepared certain articles conformable to the Gospel,|| leave was given him to maintain the same in Latin. The University forbade all priests and students to be present at the conference, and the council met the prohibition by one of an opposite tenor.

The following are some of the thirteen propositions that Farel put forth:

"Christ has left us the most perfect rule of life; no one can lawfully take away, or add anything thereto."

"To shape our lives by any other precepts than those of Christ, leads directly to impiety."

"The true ministry of priests is to attend only to the ministry of the Word; and for them there is no higher dignity."

"To take from the *certainty* of the Gospel of Christ, is to destroy it."

"He who thinks to be justified by any strength or merits of his own, and not by *faith*, puts himself in the place of God."

"Jesus Christ, who is head over all things, is our polar star, and the only guide we ought to follow."¶

Thus did this native of France stand up at Basle.** A child of the mountains of Dauphny, brought up at Paris, at the feet of Lefevre, thus boldly proclaimed in the celebrated Swiss University, and in presence of

* Ut diceret negotiatorem quemdam Dupletum hoc dixisse. (Ibid. 2129.)

† Si Deus est, inquit, invocandus est. (Er. Epp. p. 804.)

‡ Omissa disputatione, nam imminabat nox. (Ibid.) We have only Erasmus' account of this conversation; he himself reports that Farel gave a very different account of it.

§ Damit er gelehrt werde, ober irre. (Fussli Beytr. iv. p. 244.)

|| Aus Eingießung des heiligen Geistes ein christlicher Mensch und Bruder. (Ibid.)

¶ Guilelmus Farellus Christianis lectoribus, die Martis post Reminiscere. (Fussli Beytr. iv. p. 247.) Fussli does not give the Latin text.

** Schedam conclusionum a Gallo illo. (Zw. Epp. p. 333.)

* Consilium quo sic extingatur incendium Lutheranum. (Er. Epp. p. 179.)

† Quo nihil vidi mendacius, virulentius, et seditiosius. (Ib. p. 798.)

‡ Acidæ linguæ et vanissimus. (Ibid. p. 2129.)

§ Scabiosos . . . rabiosos . . . nam nuper nobis misit Gallia. (Ibid. p. 350.)

¶ Non duitem quin agantur spiritu Satanæ. (Er. Epp. p. 350.)

¶ Diremi disputationem . . . (Ibid. p. 804.)

Erasmus, the great principles of the Reformation. Two leading ideas pervaded Farel's theses—the one involved a return to the Scripture, the other a return to the Faith—two movements distinctly condemned by the Papacy, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, as heretical and impious, in the celebrated constitution *Unigenitus*, and which, ever closely connected with each other, in reality overturn the whole of the Papal system. If Faith in Christ is the beginning and end of Christianity, the word of Christ, and not the voice of the Church is that to which we must adhere. Nor is this all; for if Faith unites in one the souls of believers, what signifies an external bond? Can that holy union depend for its existence on croziers, bulls, or tiasas? Faith knits together in spiritual and true oneness all those in whose hearts it has taken up its abode. Thus at one blow disappeared the triple delusion of human deservings, traditions of men, and simulated unity. And these compose the sum of Roman Catholicism.

The discussion was opened in Latin.* Farel and Ecclampadius stated and established their articles, calling repeatedly upon those who differed from them to make answer; but none answered to the call. The sophists, as Ecclampadius terms them, boldly denied them—but from their skulking corners.† The people therefore began to look with contempt upon the cowardice of their priests, and learned to despise their tyranny.‡

Thus did Farel take his stand among the defenders of the Reformation. So much learning and piety rejoiced the hearts of observers, and already more signal victories were looked forward to. "He is singly more than a match for all the Sorbonne put together,"§ said they. His openness, sincerity, and candour, charmed all.|| But in the very height of his activity he did not forget that every mission must begin at our own souls. The mild Ecclampadius made with the earnest-hearted Farel an agreement, by which they mutually engaged to exercise themselves in humility and gentleness in their familiar intercourse. Thus on the very field of contention were these courageous men engaged in composing their souls to peace. The impetuous zeal of Luther and of Farel were not unfrequently necessary virtues; for a degree of effort is required to move society and recast the Church. In our days we are very apt to forget this truth, which then was acknowledged by men of the mildest character. "Some there are," said Ecclampadius to Luther, in introducing Farel to him, "who would moderate his zeal against the opposers of the truth; but I cannot help discerning in that same zeal a wonderful virtue, and which, if well directed, is not less needed than gentleness itself."¶ Posterity has ratified the judgment of Ecclampadius.

In the month of May, 1524, Farel, with some friends from Lyons, repaired to Schaffhausen, Zurich, and Constance. Zwingle and Myconius welcomed with the liveliest joy the French refugee, and Farel never forgot the kindness of that welcome. But on his return to Basle he found Erasmus and others of his enemies at work, and received an order to quit the city. His friends loudly expressed their displeasure at this stretch of authority—but in vain, and he was driven

from that Swiss territory, which was even then regarded as an asylum for signal misfortunes. "Such is our hospitality!" ejaculated Ecclampadius in indignation: "We are a people like unto Sodom."*

At Basle Farel had contracted a close friendship with the knight D'Esch—the latter resolved to bear him company, and they set forth, provided by Ecclampadius with letters for Capito and Luther, to whom the doctor of Basle commended Farel as the same William who had laboured so abundantly in the work of God.† At Strasburg Farel formed an intimacy with Capito, Bucer, and Hedio—but we have no account of his having gone to Wittenberg.

When God withdraws his servants from the field of combat, it is commonly that they may be again brought forward in increased strength and more completely armed for the conflict. Farel and his companions from Meaux, from Metz, from Lyons, and from Dauphiny, driven by persecution from France, had been tempered with new firmness in Switzerland and in Germany, in the society of the earlier Reformers; and now, like soldiers scattered by the first charge of the enemy, but instantly collecting again their force, they were about to turn round and go forward in the name of the Lord. Not only on the frontiers, but in the interior of France, the friends of the Gospel were beginning to take courage. The signal was made—the combatants were arming for the assault—the word was given. "Jesus, his truth and grace"—a word of more power than the clang of arms in the tug of war, filled all hearts with enthusiasm, and all gave omen of a campaign pregnant with new victories, and new and more wide-spreading calamities.

Montbeliard at this time stood in need of a labourer in the Gospel. Duke Ulric of Wurtemberg—young, impetuous, and cruel—having been dispossessed of his hereditary states, in 1519, by the Suabian league, had retired to that province, his last remaining possession. In Switzerland he became acquainted with the Reformers. His misfortunes had a wholesome effect, and he listened to the truth.‡ Ecclampadius apprized Farel that a door was opened at Montbeliard, and the latter secretly repaired to Basle.

Farel had not regularly entered on the ministry of the word; but at this period of his life we see in him all the qualifications of a servant of the Lord. It was not lightly or rashly that he entered the service of the Church. "If I considered my own qualifications," said he, "I would not have presumed to preach, but would have preferred to wait till the Lord should send more gifted persons."§ But he received at this time three several calls. No sooner had he reached Basle than Ecclampadius, moved by the wants of France, besought him to give himself to the work there. "Consider," said he, "how little Jesus is made known in their language—will you not teach them a little in their own dialect, to enable them to understand the Scriptures."|| At the same time the inhabitants of Montbeliard invited him among them, and lastly, the prince of that country gave his assent to the invitation.¶ Was not this a thrice repeated call from God? . . . "I did not see," said he, "how I could refuse to act upon it."** It was in obedience to God that I complied with

* Adeo hospitium habemus rationem, veri Sodomitæ. (Zw. Epp. p. 494.)

† Gulielmus ille qui tam probe navavit operam. (Zw. et Eccl. Epp. p. 175.)

‡ Le prince qui avoit connoissance de l'Evangile. (Farel. Sommaire.)

§ Sommaire c'est à dire, brève déclaration de G. Farel, dans l'epilogue. . . . Ibid.

¶ Etant requis et demandé du peuple et du consentement du prince. (Ibid.)

** Sommaire, c'est à dire, brève déclaration de G. Farel, dans l'epilogue.

* Schedam conclusionum latine apud nos disputatam. (Ib.)

† Agunt tamen magnos interim thrasones, sed in angulis lucifuge. (Zw. Epp. p. 333.)

‡ Incipit tamen plebs paulatim illorum ignaviam et tyrannidem verbo Dei agnoscere. (Ibid.)

§ Ad totam Sorbonicam affligendam si non et perpendam. (Eccl. Luthero, Epp. p. 200.)

¶ Farello nihil candidius est. (Ibid.)

** Verum ego virtutem illam admirabilem et non minus placiditate, at tempestive fuerit, necessariam. (Ibid.)

it." Concealed in the house of Ecolampadius, little disposed to take the responsible post offered to him, and yet constrained to yield to so manifest an indication of God's will, Farel undertook the task—and Ecolampadius, calling upon the Lord, ordained him,* giving him at the same time some wise counsels. "The more you find yourself inclined to vehemence," said he, "the more must you exercise yourself to maintain a gentle bearing; temper your lion heart with the softness of the dove."† The soul of Farel responded to such an appeal.

Thus Farel—once the devoted adherent of the ancient Church, was about to enter on the life of a servant of God, and of the Church in its renewed youth. If, in order to a valid ordination, Rome requires the imposition of the hands of a bishop deriving uninterrupted succession and descent from the Apostles, she does so—because she sets the tradition of men above the authority of the word of God. Every church in which the supremacy of the Word is not acknowledged, must needs seek authority from some other source;—and then, what more natural than to turn to the most revered servants of God, and ask of them what we do not know that we have in God himself? If we do not speak in the name of Jesus Christ, is it not at least something gained to be able to speak in the name of St. John or of St. Paul? One who has with him the voice of antiquity is indeed more than a match for the rationalist, who speak only his own thought. But Christ's minister has a yet higher authority. He preaches—not because he is the successor of St. Chrysostom or St. Peter—but because the Word which he proclaims is from God. Successional authority—venerable as it may appear—is yet far more than a thing of man's invention, in place of God's appointment. In Farel's ordination, we see nothing of successional derived sanction. Nay more, we do not see in it that which becomes the congregations of the Lord—among whom everything should be done "*decently and in order*," and whose God is "*not the God of confusion*." In his case there was no setting apart by the Church; but then extraordinary emergencies justify extraordinary measures. At this eventful period, God himself was interposing, and Himself ordaining, by marvellous dispensations, those whom he called to bear a part in the regeneration of society; and that was an ordination that abundantly compensated for the absence of the Church's seal. In Farel's ordination we see the unchanging word of God, intrusted to a man of God, to bear it to the world; the calling of God, and of the people, and of the consecration of the heart. And perhaps no minister of Rome or of Geneva was ever more lawfully ordained for that holy ministry. Farel took his departure for Montbeliard, in company with the knight D'Esch.

Thus did Farel find himself occupying an advanced post. Behind him were Basle and Strasburg, assisting him by their advice and by the productions of their printing presses. Before him lay the provinces of Franche-comte, Burgundy, Lorraine, Lyons, and other districts of France; wherein men of God were beginning to stand up against error, in the thick darkness. He set himself immediately to preach Christ—exhorting believers not to suffer themselves to be turned aside from the Holy Scriptures, either by threatenings or artifice. Taking the part long afterward taken by Calvin on a grander scale, Farel, at Montbeliard, was like a general stationed on a height, surveying, with searching vigilance, the field of battle, cheering those who were actively engaged, rallying those whom the enemy's

charge had forced to give way, and by his courage animating those who hung back.* Erasmus wrote directly to his Roman Catholic friends, informing them that a Frenchman, escaped out of France, was making a great noise in these regions.†

The efforts of Farel were not without effect. People wrote to him: "On all sides seem to multiply men who devote their lives to the extension of Christ's kingdom."‡ The friends of the Gospel gave thanks to God for the daily increasing brilliancy in which the Gospel shone in France.§ Gainsayers were confounded, and Erasmus, writing to the bishop of Rochester, observed: "The faction is every day spreading, and has penetrated into Savoy, Lorraine, and France."||

For a considerable time Lyons seemed the centre of the Evangelic movement in the interior, as Basle was of that beyond the frontiers. Francis the First, called to the south, on an expedition against Charles V., arrived in those countries, attended by his mother and sister, and by his court. Margaret had with her, in her company, certain men who had embraced the Gospel. "The rest of her people she left behind," remarks a letter written at the time.¶ While under the eyes of Francis, 14,000 Swiss, 6,000 Frenchmen, and 1,500 noble knights, were defiling through Lyons, on their way to repel the Imperial army that had invaded Provence, and that great city resounded with the clang of arms, the tramp of cavalry, and the sound of trumpets—the friends of the Gospel were on their way to the more peaceful triumphs. They were intent on attempting, at Lyons, what they had not been able to realize at Paris. Remote from the Sorbonne and the Parliament, a freer course might be open to God's word. Perhaps the second city of the kingdom was destined to be the first wherein the Gospel should be received. Was it not there that the excellent Peter Waldo had begun to make known the divine Word? In that earlier age he had roused the national mind. Now that God had made all things ready to emancipate His church, was there not ground to hope for more extensive and decisive results? Accordingly the Lyonese, who in general were not, it must be confessed, "poor men," began to handle, with more confidence, the "sword of the Spirit which is the word of God."

Among those about Margaret's person, was her almoner, Michel d'Arande. The Duchess gave direction that the Gospel should be publicly preached in Lyons, and master Michel boldly proclaimed the pure word of God to a numerous auditory—attracted partly by the good tidings, and partly by the favour with which the preacher and his preaching were regarded by the sister of their king.**

Anthony Papillon, a man of cultivated mind, an accomplished Latinist, a friend of Erasmus, the earliest of his countrymen thoroughly instructed in the Gospel,†† accompanied the Princess. At Margaret's request he

* The comparison is in the words of a friend who was acquainted with Farel, during his abode at Montbeliard: *Strenuum et oculatum imperatorem, qui iis etiam animus facias qui in acie versantur.* (Tossanus Farello, MS. de Neuchâtel, 2d Sept. 1524.)

† . . . Tumultuatur et Burgundia nobis proxima, per Phalucum quemdam Callum qui e Gallia profugus. (Er. Epp. p. 809.)

‡ Suppullulare qui omnes conatus aderant, quo possit Christi regnum quam latissime patere. (MS. de Neuchâtel, 2d Aug. 1524.)

§ Quod in Gallis omnibus sacrosanctum Dei verbum in dies magis ac magis elucescat. (Ibid.)

|| Factio crescit in dies latius, propagata in Sabaudiam, Lothoringiam, Franciam. (Er. Epp. p. 809.)

¶ De Seville à Coët du 29th Dec. 1524. (MS. du Conclave de Neuchâtel.)

** Elle a une docteur de Paris, appelé maître Michel Eley monstarius, lequel ne prêche devant elle que purement l'Évangile. (Seville à Coët, MS. de Neuchâtel.) †† Ibid.

* Avec l'invocation du non de Dieu. (Ibid.)

† Leoniam magnanimitatem columbina modestia frangas. (Ecol. Epp. p. 193.)

had translated Luther's tract on the monks' vows, "on which account he was often called in question by that vermin of the city of Paris," remarks Sebville.* But Margaret had protected the scholar from the enmity of the Sorbonne, and had obtained for him the appointment of chief master of requests to the Dauphin, with a seat in the council.† He was almost equally useful to the Gospel by the sacrifices he made for its cause as by his great prudence. Vaugris, a merchant, and Anthony Du Blet, a gentleman, and a friend of Farel, were the principal persons who took part with the Reformation at Lyons. The latter, whose activity was untiring, served as a sort of connecting link between the Christians scattered throughout those countries, and was the medium of their intercourse with Basle. The armed bands of Francis the First had done no more than traverse Lyons, while the spiritual soldiery of Jesus Christ had paused within it, and leaving the former to carry war into Provence, they commenced the "fight of faith" in the city of Lyons itself.

But their efforts were not confined to Lyons. Casting their eyes over the surrounding country, their operations were carried on, at one and the same time, at different points; and the Christians of Lyons supported and encouraged the confessors of Christ in the adjacent provinces, and bore His name where as yet it was not known. The new teaching re-ascended the banks of the Saone, and the voice of one bringing the glad tidings was heard in the narrow and irregular streets of Macon. Michel d'Arande, the almoner of the king's sister, himself visited that place in 1524, and, by Margaret's intercession, obtained license to preach in a town‡ which was afterward deluged with blood, and became forever memorable for its *sauteries*.

After extending their travels in the direction of the Saone, the Christians of Lyons, ever looking for an open door, re-ascended the acclivities of the Alps. There was at Lyons a Dominican, named Maigret, who had been expelled from Dauphiny, where he had preached the new doctrine with singular boldness, and who earnestly requested that some one would go over and help his brethren of Grenoble, and Gap Papillon and Du Blet repaired thither.§ A violent storm had just broken out there against Sebville and his preaching. The Dominicans moved heaven and earth, and, in their rage at the escape of Farel, Anemond, Maigret, and the other preachers, sought to crush such as were within their clutches.|| They therefore insisted that Sebville should be arrested.¶

The friends of the Gospel at Grenoble caught the alarm. Was Sebville also on the eve of being lost to them? Margaret interceded with her brother. Some persons of distinction at Grenoble, including the king's advocate, either secretly or avowedly favourable to the Gospel, exerted themselves in his behalf; and he was happily rescued from the fury of his enemies.*

His life indeed was saved but his mouth was stopped. "Remain silent," said his friends, "or you will be brought to the scaffold." "Only think what it is," wrote he to De Coct, "to have silence imposed upon me, under pain of death."†† Some, whose firmness had

been most relied on, were overawed by these threatenings. The king's advocate, and others exhibited marked coldness,* and many returned to the Roman Catholic communion, alleging that they would still offer to God a spiritual worship in the privacy of their hearts, and give to the outward observances of Catholicism a spiritual interpretation—a melancholy share, and one that leads men from one act of unfaithfulness to another.† There is no false system, adhesion to which, may not in this way be justified. The unbeliever, taking up with fancied myths and allegories, will preach Christ from the pulpit: and the follower of a superstition held in abhorrence among the heathen, will, by a moderate exercise of ingenuity, trace in it the symbol of a pure and elevated thought. In religion the very first essential is truth. There were, however, some of the Christians of Grenoble, and among them Amadee Galbert and a cousin of Anemond who held fast to their faith.‡ These men of piety were accustomed secretly to meet together with Sebville at each other's houses, and thus "spoke often one to another." Their place of meeting was chosen for the sake of its retirement; they met at night in the apartment of a brother, with closed doors to pray to Christ—as if they had been robbers meeting for some guilty purpose! Rumour would often follow them to their humble meeting with some groundless alarm. Their enemies winked at such secret conventicles, but they had inwardly doomed to the stake any one who should venture to open his lips in public to speak the word of God.‡

It was at this juncture that Du Blet and Papillon arrived in Grenoble. Finding that Sebville had been silenced, they exhorted him to go to Lyons, and there preach Christ. The following Lent promised to afford him the favourable opportunity of a vast crowd of hearers. Michel d'Arande, Maigret, and Sebville agreed together to put themselves in front of the battle, and thus all was arranged for an impressive testimony to the truth in the second city of the kingdom. The rumour of the approaching Lent spread into Switzerland: "Sebville is at large, and is purposing to preach at Lyons, in the church of St. Paul," wrote Anemond to Farel.§ But disasters, bringing with them confusion throughout France, intervened, and prevented the spiritual contest. It is in periods of tranquility that the Gospel achieves its blessed conquests. The battle of Pavia, which took place in the month of February, disconcerted the bold project of the Reformers.

Meanwhile, without waiting for Sebville, Maigret, amid much opposition from the clergy and the monks,|| had from the beginning of the winter been preaching at Lyons, Salvation by Christ alone. In his sermons, he passed over the worship of the creature, the saints, the Virgin, and the power of the priesthood. The great mystery of Godliness—"God manifest in the flesh"—was the one great doctrine exalted by him. "The early heresies of the poor men of Lyons were again showing themselves under a more dangerous form than ever," it was remarked. In spite of opposers, Maigret continued his preaching: the faith that animated him found utterance in emphatic words; it is in the very nature of truth to embolden the heart that receives it. Nevertheless it was decreed that at Lyons, as at Grenoble, Rome should get the upper hand. Under the very eyes of Margaret, the preacher was

* Ibid.

† Ibid.

‡ Arandius præche a Mascon. (Coct à Farel, Dec. 1524, MS. de Neufchâtel.)

§ Il y a deux grands personnages à Grenoble. (Coct à Farel, Dec. 1524, MS. de Neufchâtel.) The title of *Messire* is given to Du Blet, indicating a person of rank. I incline to think that that of *negotiator*, elsewhere given him, refers to his activity: yet he might be a merchant of Lyons.

|| Conjicere potes ut post Macretum et me in Sebillam exarzeret. (Anemond à Farel, 7th Sept. 1524, MS. de Neufchâtel.)

¶ Les Thomistes ont voulu proceder contre moi par inquisition et captation de personne. (Lettre de Sebville. Ibid.)

** Si ce ne fut certains amis secrets, je estois mis entre les mains des Pharisiens. (Lettre de Sebville, MS. de Neufchâtel.)

†† Ibid.

* Non solum tepedi sed frigidi. (MS. de Neufchâtel.)

† Duo cognato, Amadeo Galbertio exceptis. (MS. de Neufchâtel.)

‡ Mais de en parler publiquement, il n'y pend que le feu. (MS. de Neufchâtel.)

§ Le samodi des Quatre-Temps. (Dec. 1524, Ibid.)

|| Pour vray Maigret a prêché à Lion, malgré les prêtres et moines. (Ibid.)

arrested, dragged through the streets, and committed to prison. Vaugris, a merchant, who was just then leaving the town on his way to Switzerland, carried with him the news of what had happened. One thought cheered the melancholy these tidings diffused among the friends of the Reformation: "Maigret is seized," said they, "but thanks be to God, *Madame d'Alençon* is on the spot."^{*}

Their hopes soon left them. The Sorbonne had formally condemned certain propositions maintained by the faithful preacher;† Margaret, whose position was every day becoming more embarrassing, beheld the daring of the Reformers, and the hatred of those in power both rising at the same moment. Francis the First was beginning to lose patience at the restless zeal of the preachers, and to regard them as fanatics whom it was good policy to reduce to submission. Margaret, therefore, fluctuating between her desires to serve her brethren in Christ, and the failure of her ability to preserve them, sent them word that they were to abstain from rushing into new difficulties, seeing that she could not again make application to the king in their behalf. The friends of the Gospel believed that this resolution could not be irrevocable: "God give her grace," said they, "to say and write only what is needful to poor souls."‡ But even if they should lose this help of man, Christ was with them—and it seemed well that the soul should be stripped of other dependence, that it might lean upon God alone.

The friends of the Gospel had lost their power, and the powerful were declaring against it. Margaret was alarmed. Soon—heavy news, received from beyond the Alps, was to plunge the whole kingdom into mourning—absorbing attention in the one object of saving France and her king. But if the Christians of Lyons were motionless, did not Basle contain within its walls soldiers escaped from the battle, and ready to renew it? The exiles from France have never forgotten her: banished for three centuries by Roman fanaticism, we see their last descendants carrying to the towns and plains of their father-land, the treasure of which the Pope deprives them. At the crisis, when the good soldiers of Christ, in France, dejectedly threw away their arms, we see the refugees at Basle, preparing for renewed efforts. With the example before their eyes of the sceptre of St. Louis and of Charlemagne falling from the grasp of a Francis the First, should they not be incited to lay hold on a "kingdom which cannot be moved"?§

Farel, Anemond, Esch, Toussaint, and their friends in Switzerland, composed an Evangelical Association, having for its object the deliverance of their country from spiritual darkness. Intelligence reached them from all sides, that there was an increasing thirst after God's word in France;|| it was desirable to take advantage of it, and to water and sow the seed while yet it was seed time. (Ecolampadius, Oswald Myconius, and Zwingle, continually encouraged them to this. The Swiss teacher, Myconius, wrote thus in January, 1525, to De Coet: "Exiled as you are from your country by the tyranny of Antichrist, your presence among us is the proof that you have courageously stood forth in the cause of Truth. The oppressions of *Christian* bishops will lead the people to regard them as no better than deceivers. Stand fast: the time is not distant when we shall arrive in the wished-for haven,

whether we be struck down by the oppressors, or they themselves be cast down,* and all will then be well with us, if we do but continue faithful to Jesus Christ."

These cheering words were precious indeed to the French refugees; but just then, a blow struck by those very Christians of Switzerland, and of Germany, who sought to cheer them, carried grief to their hearts. In the feeling of their recent escape from the fires of persecution, they, at this time, beheld with dismay, the Evangelical Christians beyond the Rhine disturbing their repose by their deplorable differences. The controversy, in relation to the Lord's Supper, had begun. Deeply affected, and feeling the need of mutual love, the French Reformers would have made any sacrifice to conciliate the divergent parties. It became the great object of their desire. None more than they, felt from the outset the need of Christian unity. At a later period, Calvin afforded proof of this. "Would to God," said Peter Toussaint, "that, by my worthless blood, I could purchase peace, concord, and union in Christ Jesus."† The French, gifted with quick discernment, saw, from the very beginning, how the rising dissensions would stand in the way of the Reformation. "All would go favourably beyond our hopes, if we were but agreed among ourselves. Many there are who would gladly come to the light, but they are prevented by seeing such divisions among the learned."‡

The French were the first to suggest conciliatory advances: "Why," wrote they from Strasburg, "why not send Bucer or some other man of learning to confer with Luther? The more we delay the wider will our differences become." These fears seemed every day more founded.§

Failing in their endeavours, these Christians turned their eyes toward France, and the conversion of their own country to the faith, thenceforth exclusively engaged the hearts of these generous men, whom history—so loud in praise of men who have sought only their own glory—has, for three centuries, scarcely mentioned. Cast upon a foreign soil, they threw themselves on their knees, and, daily in their solitude, called down blessings from God upon their father-land.|| *Prayer* was the great instrument by which the Gospel spread through the kingdom, and the great engine by which the conquests of the Reformation were achieved.

But there were other men of prayer beside these. Never, perhaps, have the ranks of the Gospel comprised combatants more prompt to suffer in the hour of conflict. They felt the importance of scattering the Scriptures and pious writings in their country, which was still overclouded with the thick darkness of superstition. A spirit of inquiry was dawning in their nation, and it seemed necessary on all sides to unfurl the sails to the wind. Anemond, ever prompt in action, and Michel Bentin, another refugee, resolved to employ, in concert, their zeal and talents. Bentin decided to establish a printing press at Basle, and the knight to turn to account the little he knew of German, by translating into that language, the more striking tracts written by the Reformers. "Oh!" exclaimed they, rejoicing in their project: "would to God that France were so supplied with Gospel writings that in cottages, and in palaces, in cloisters, and in presbyteries, and in

* Non longe abest enim, quo in portum tranquillum pervenimus . . . (Oswald Myconius à Anemond de Coet. MS. de Neuchâtel.)

† 21st December, 1525. (MS. du Conclave de Neuchâtel.)

‡ Ibid.

§ Multis jam Christianis Gallis dolet, quod a Zwinglii aliorumque de Eucharistia sententia, dissentiant Lutherus. (Toussaint Farello, 14th July, 1525.)

|| Quam sollicitè quotidianis precibus commendem. (Toussaint Farello, 2d Sep. 1524, MS. de Neuchâtel.)

* MS. de Neuchâtel.

† Histoire de François I., par Gaillard, tom. iv. p. 233.

‡ Pierre Toussaint à Farel, Basle 17 Dec. 1524. (MS. de Neuchâtel.)

§ Heb. xii. 28.

|| Gallis verborum Dei sitientibus. (Coctus Farello, 2 Sep. 1524. MS. de Neuchâtel.)

the inner sanctuary of all hearts, a powerful witness might be borne for the grace of our Lord Jesus Christ.”*

For such an undertaking funds were necessary—and the refugees were destitute of funds. Vaugris was then at Basle. Anemond, on parting with him, gave him a letter to the brethren of Lyons, some of whom had considerable possessions in lands, and, notwithstanding they were oppressed, remained faithful to the Gospel. In his letter, he asked their assistance;† but that could not at all meet the extent of the need. The Frenchmen resolved to establish several presses at Basle, that should be worked day and night, so as to inundate all France with God's word.‡ At Meaux, Metz, and other places, there were those rich enough to contribute to this work; and as no one could appeal to Frenchmen with more authority than Farel, it was to him that Anemond made application.§

We do not find that the scheme of Anemond was realised; but the work was carried out by others. The presses of Basle were incessantly employed in printing French works, which were forwarded to Farel, and by him introduced into France. One of the earliest of the issues of this Religious Tract Society was Luther's *Exposition of the Lord's Prayer*. “We sell the *Pater* at four deniers de Bale to private persons,” wrote Vaugris—“but to the wholesale dealer, we supply copies at the rate of 200 for two florins, which is something less.”||

Anemond was accustomed to transmit from Bale to Farel any profitable books published or received in that city—at one time a tract on ordination, at another, an essay on the education of children.¶ Farel looked through them, composing, translating, and seeming, at one and the same time, all activity, and yet all meditation. Anemond urged on, and superintended the printing, and these letters, requests, and books, all these little single sheets, were among the instruments of regeneration to that age. While dissoluteness and profligacy descended from the throne to the lower orders, and darkness spread from the very steps of the altar, these writings, so inconsiderable and unnoticed, alone diffused the beams of light, and the seeds of holiness.

But it was especially God's word that the evangelic merchant of Lyons required for his fellow-countrymen. That generation of the sixteenth century, so eager for all that could satisfy the re-awakened intellect, was to receive in its vernacular tongue those early records of the first ages, redolent with the young breath of human nature, and those holy oracles of apostolic times, bright with the fullness of the revelation of Christ. Vaugris wrote to Farel—“Pray, see if it be not possible to have the New Testament translated by some competent hand; it would be a great blessing to France, Burgundy, and Savoy. And if you should not be already provided with the proper types, I would order some from Paris or Lyons—but if we have the types at Basle, it would be all the better.”

Lefevre had previously published at Meaux, but by detached portions, the books of the New Testament, in the French language. Vaugris wished some one to undertake a revision of the whole for a new edition. Lefevre undertook to do so, and, as we have already

related, published the entire volume on the 12th October, 1524. Conrad, an uncle of Vaugris, who had also sought an asylum in Basle, sent for a copy. De Coet, happening to be in company with a friend on the 18th November, first saw the book, and was overjoyed. “Lose no time in going to press again,” said he, “for I doubt not a vast number of copies will be called for.”*

Thus was the word of God offered to France side by side with those traditions of the Church which Rome is still continually presenting to her. “How can we discern,” asked the Reformers, “between what is of a man in your traditions, and that which is of God, save only by the Scriptures of truth? The maxims of the Fathers, the decretals of the Church, cannot be the rule of faith: they show us what was the judgment of those earlier divines; but only from the word can we gather the thoughts of God. Everything must be tested by Scripture.”

In this manner, for the most part, these printed works were circulated. Farel and his friends transmitted the sacred books to certain dealers or *colporteurs*—poor men of good character for piety, who, bearing their precious burden, went through towns and villages—from house to house—in Franche-comté, Burgundy, and the neighbouring districts, knocking at every door. The books were sold to them at a low price, that the interest they had in the sale might make them the more industrious in disposing of them.† Thus as early as 1524 there existed in Basle, and having France for the field of their operations, a Bible society—an association of *colporteurs*—and a religious tract society. It is, then, a mistake to conceive that such efforts date only from our own age; they go back, at least in the identity of the objects they propose, not merely to the days of the Reformation, but still farther, to the first ages of the Church.

The attention which Farel bestowed on France did not cause him to neglect the places where he resided. Arriving at Montbeliard, toward the end of July, 1524, he had no sooner sown the seed, than, to use the language of Cæcolampadius, the first-fruits of the harvest began to appear. Farel, exulting, communicated his success to his friends. “It is easy,” replied the doctor of Basle, “to instil a few dogmas into the ears of our auditors; but God alone can change their hearts.”‡

De Coet, overjoyed with this intelligence, hurried to Peter Toussaint's house. “To-morrow,” said he, with his usual vivacity, “I set off to visit Farel.” Toussaint, more calm, was then writing to the evangelist of Montbeliard: “Have a care,” wrote he; “the cause you have taken in hand is of solemn importance, and should not be contaminated by the counsels of men. The great ones may promise you their favour, assistance, aye, and heaps of gold—but to put confidence in these things is to forsake Jesus Christ, and to walk in in darkness.”§ Toussaint was in the act of closing his letter when De Coet entered; and the latter, taking charge of it, set off for Montbeliard.

He found all the city in commotion. Several of the nobles, in alarm, and casting a look of contempt on Farel, exclaimed, “What can this poor wretch want with us! Would that he had never come among us. He must not remain here, or he will bring ruin upon us as well as upon himself.” These nobles, who had retired to Montbeliard in company with the duke for shelter, feared least the stir which everywhere accom-

* Opto enim Galliam Evangelicis voluminibus abundare. (Coetus Farello, MS. de Neuchâtel.)

† Ut pecuniæ aliquid ad me mittant. (Coet. Far. MS. de Neuchâtel.)

‡ Ut præla multa erigere possimus. (Ibid.)

§ An censes inveniri posse Lugduni, Meldæ, aut alibi in Galliis qui nos ad hæc juvare velint. (Ibid.)

¶ Vaugris à Farel; (Bâle, 29th Aug. 1524. MS. de Neuchâtel.)

¶ Mitto tibi librum de instituendis ministris Ecclesiæ cum libro de instituendis pueris. (Coetus Farello, 2d Sept. 1524, Ibid.)

* MS. of the Conclave of Neuchâtel.

† Vaugris à Farel. (MS. of Neuchâtel.)

‡ Animus autem immutare, divinum opus est. (Cæcol. Epp. p. 200.)

§ . . . A quibus si pendemus, jam a Christo defecimus. (MS. de Neuchâtel.)

panied the spread of the Reformation, should, by drawing upon them the notice of Charles V. and Ferdinand, lead to their being driven from their only remaining asylum. But the ecclesiastics were Farel's bitterest opposers. The superior of the Franciscans at Besançon hastened to Montbeliard, and concocted defensive measures with the clergy of that place. The following Sunday, Farel had scarcely begun to preach when he was interrupted, and called a liar and a heretic. Immediately the whole assembly was in an uproar. The audience rose, and called for silence. The duke hastened to the spot, put both the superior and Farel under arrest, and insisted that the former should prove his charges, or else retract them. The superior chose the latter course, and an official report was published of the transaction.*

This attack only rendered Farel more zealous than before: thenceforward he believed it his duty, fearlessly, to unmask these interested priests; and, drawing the sword of the Word, he applied it unsparingly. He was now more than ever led to imitate Jesus, rather in his character as the purifier of the temple, driving out thence the traffickers and money-changers, and overthrowing their tables, than as the one whom prophecy declared: "*He shall not strive nor cry, neither shall his voice be heard in the streets.*" Cœcolampadius was affrighted. These two men were the perfect types of two characters diametrically opposite, and yet both worthy of our admiration—"Your mission," wrote Cœcolampadius to Farel, "is gently to draw men to the truth, not to drag them with violence; to preach the Gospel, not to pronounce maledictions. Physicians resort to amputation, only when external applications have failed. Act the part of the *physician*, not of the executioner. In my judgment it is not enough that you are gentle toward the friends of the Truth. You must likewise *win over the adversaries*. Or if the wolves are to be driven from the fold, at least let the sheep hear the voice of the shepherd. Pour oil and wine into the wounded heart—and be the herald of *glad tidings*, not a judge or a tyrant."† The report of these things spread both in France and Lorraine, and this gathering together of refugees in Basle and Montbeliard began to alarm the Sorbonne and the Cardinal. Gladly would they have broken up so ominous an alliance; for error knows no greater triumph than the enlisting a renegade in its ranks. Already had Martial Mazurier, and others, given the papal party in France, an opportunity of rejoicing over shameful desertions; but if they could only succeed in seducing one of those confessors of Christ who had fled for safety to the banks of the Rhine—one who had suffered much for the name of the Lord—that were indeed a victory for the hierarchy. Measures were concerted and directed in the first instance against the youngest.

The Dean, the Cardinal of Lorraine, and all the circle which assembled at the prelate's house, deplored the sad fate of Peter Toussaint, once the object of so many hopes. He is at Basle, said they, living in the very house of Cœcolampadius, in close intercourse with that leader in this heresy. They wrote to him movingly, as though his salvation was at stake. These letters were the more distressing to the poor young man, because they bore evident marks of sincere affection.‡ One of his relations, probably the Dean himself, urged him to remove to Paris, Metz, or whatever

place he pleased, provided it were but a distance from the Lutherans. This relation bearing in mind how much Toussaint was indebted to him, doubted not his immediate compliance with the injunction; when, therefore, he found his efforts unavailing, his affection was succeeded by violent hatred. This resistance, on the part of the young refugee exasperated against him all his family and friends. Recourse was had to his mother, who was entirely under the influence of the monks: * the priests came about her frightening her, and persuading her that her son had been guilty of crimes which could not be named without shuddering. On this the distressed parent wrote to her son an affecting letter, "full of tears," as he says, in which she described her misery in heart-rending terms. "Oh! wretched mother," said she, "Oh! unnatural son!—Cursed be the breasts that suckled thee, cursed be the knees that bare thee."†

Poor Toussaint was overwhelmed with consternation. What was he to do? Return to France he could not. To leave Basle and proceed to Zurich or Wittenberg, beyond the reach of his kindred, would only have added to their distress. Cœcolampadius suggested a middle course. "Leave my house," said he.‡ With a sorrowful heart Toussaint complied, and went to lodge with a priest, both ignorant and obscure, and so well fitted to quiet the fears of his relations. What a change for him! He had no intercourse with his host except at meals. At such times they were continually differing on matters of faith, but, no sooner was his meal ended, than Toussaint hastened to shut himself in his chamber; where, undisturbed by noise and controversy, he carefully studied the word of God. "The Lord is my witness," said he, "that in this valley of tears, I have but one desire, and that is, to see Christ's kingdom extend itself, that all with one mouth may glorify God."§

One incident took place and cheered Toussaint. The enemies of the Gospel at Metz were becoming more and more powerful. At his entreaty the chevalier d'Esch, undertook a journey in July, 1525, to strengthen the evangelical Christians of that city. He traversed the forests of Vosges, and reached the place where Leclerc had laid down his life, bringing with him several books with which Farel had supplied him.¶

But the French exiles did not confine their attention to Lorraine. De Coët received letters from one of Farel's brothers, depicting, in gloomy colours, the condition of Dauphiny. He carefully avoided showing them, lest he should alarm the faint-hearted, but bore them on his heart before God in fervent prayer, for His all-powerful aid.** In December, 1524, one Peter Verrier, a messenger from Dauphiny, intrusted with commissions for Farel and Anemond, arrived on horseback at Montbeliard. The knight, with his usual impetuosity, immediately resolved on returning into France. "If the said Peter has brought money," wrote he to Farel, "do you take it: if he has brought letters open them, take copies, and send them to me. Do not, however, sell the horse, but keep it, since I may per-

* Jam capulo proxima. (MS. de Neuchâtel.)

† Litteras ad me dedit plenas lacrymis quibus maledicet et uberibus quæ me lactarunt, &c. (Ibid.)

‡ Visum est Cœcolampadio consultum . . . ut a se cederem. (Ibid.)

§ Ulor domo ejusdam sacrificii. (Ibid.)

¶ Ut Christi regnum quam latissime pateat. (MS. de Neuchâtel.)

¶ Qu'il s'en retourne à Metz, là on les ennemis de Dieu s'élèvent journellement contre l'Evangile. (Tossanus Farello; 17th Dec. 1524. MS. de Neuchâtel.)

** Accepi ante horam a fratre tuo epistolam quam hic nulli manifestavi: terrentur enim infirmi. (Cœtus Farello, 2d Sept. 1524.)

* Der Christliche Handel zu Mumpelgard, verlossen mit gründlichen Wahrheit.

† Quod Evangelistam, non tyrannicum legislatorum præstes. (Cœcol. Epp. p. 206.)

‡ Me in dies divexari legendis amicorum litteris qui me . . . ab instituto remorari nituntur. (Tossanus Farello, 2d Sep. 1524. Manuscript de Neuchâtel.)

haps need it. I am minded to enter France secretly, and visit Jacobus Faber, (Lefevre) and Arandius. Write me your opinion of this plan."*

Such was the unreserved confidence which existed among these refugees. De Coct, it is true, was already indebted thirty-six crowns to Farel, whose purse was ever at the service of his friends. The knight's plan of returning to France was one of more zeal than wisdom. His habitual want of caution would have exposed him to certain death. This, Farel doubtless explained to him. Leaving Basle he withdrew to a small town, having, as he said, "great hopes of acquiring the German tongue, *God willing*."[†]

Farel continued to preach the Gospel at Montbéliard. His spirit was grieved within him, beholding the great body of the people of that place wholly given to the worship of images. In his opinion it was no better than a return to heathen idolatry.

Nevertheless the exhortations of Ecolampadius, and the fear of compromising the truth, would, perhaps, have long restrained him, but for an unforeseen circumstance. One day, toward the end of February (it was the feast of St. Anthony,) Farel was walking near the banks of a little river that runs through the town, below the lofty rock on which stands the citadel, when as he reached the bridge, he met a procession, reciting prayers to St. Anthony, and headed by two priests, bearing the image of that saint. He thus found himself suddenly brought into contact with these superstitions. A violent struggle took place in his soul; shall he be silent, or conceal himself? would it not be a cowardly want of faith? These dumb idols, borne on the shoulders of ignorant priests, made his blood boil. He boldly advanced, snatched from the priest's arms the shrine of the holy hermit, and threw it from the bridge into the stream. Then, turning toward the astonished crowd, he exclaimed aloud, "Poor idolators, will ye never put away your idols!"[‡]

The priests and people were motionless in astonishment. A holy fear for a while paralysed them; but soon recovering they exclaimed, "The image is sinking," and their motionless silence was succeeded by transports of rage. The crowd would have rushed upon the sacrilegious wretch who had hurled into the river the object of their adoration; but Farel, we know not how, escaped their fury.[§]

Many may regret that the Reformer allowed himself to be hurried into an act which tended to check the progress of the truth. We can enter into their feelings. Let no man think himself authorized to attack with violence, an institution which has the public sanction. Yet is there in this zeal of the Reformer a something more noble than the cold prudence so common in the world, and which shrinks from incurring the smallest danger, or making the most trifling sacrifice for the advancement of God's kingdom. Farel well knew that by this act he was exposing himself to the death which Lelercle had suffered. But his own conscience bore testimony that he desired only to promote the glory of God, and this elevated him above all fear.

After this incident of the bridge, in which we discern his natural character, Farel was obliged to conceal himself, and soon afterward to quit the city. He took refuge with Ecolampadius at Basle; but he ever retained that attachment to Montbéliard, which a ser-

vant of God never ceases to cherish for the scene of the first-fruits of his ministry.*

At Basle, sad tidings awaited him. Himself a fugitive, he now learned that Anemond de Coct was dangerously ill. Farel immediately remitted to him four gold crowns: but on the 25th of March, a letter from Oswald Myconius brought him intelligence of the knight's death. "Let us so live," wrote Oswald, "that we may enter into that rest which we trust the soul of Anemond has now entered upon."[†]

Thus prematurely died Anemond; still young, full of activity and energy, in himself a host, ready to undertake every labour, and brave every danger in the hope of evangelizing France. *God's ways are not our ways*. Not long before, and near Zurich too, another noble, Ulric von Hutten, had breathed his last. Points of resemblance are not wanting between the two; but the piety and Christian virtues of the native of Dauphiny entitle him to rank far above the level of the witty and intrepid enemy of the Pope and monks.

Shortly after Anemond's death, Farel, finding it impossible to remain at Basle, whence he had already been expelled, joined his friends Capito and Bucer at Strasbourg.

Thus at Montbéliard and at Basle, as well as at Lyons, the ranks of the Reformers were thinned. Of those who most zealously contended for the faith, some had been removed by death—others were scattered by persecution, and in exile. In vain did the combatants turn their efforts in every direction. On all sides they were repulsed. But though the forces concentrated first at Meaux, then at Lyons, and lastly at Basle, had been successively broken up, there remained here and there, in Lorraine, at Meaux, and even in Paris, good soldiers, who struggled, more or less openly, in support of God's word in France. Though the Reformation saw its ranks broken, it still had its single champions. Against these the Sorbonne and the Parliament now turned their anger. The resolution was taken to exterminate from the soil of France the devoted men who had undertaken to plant thereon the standard of Jesus Christ; and unprecedented misfortunes seemed at this season to conspire with the enemies of the Reformation to favour the attainment of their purpose.

During the latter part of Farel's stay at Montbéliard great events had indeed taken place on the theatre of the world. Lannoy, and Pescara, Charles's generals, having quitted France on the approach of Francis I., that Prince crossed the Alps, and blockaded Pavia. On the 24th of February, 1525, Pescara attacked him. Bonnivet, la Trémouille, la Palisse and Lescaure died, fighting by his side. The Duke of Alençon, the first prince of the blood and husband of Margaret, fled, carrying with him the rear-guard, and died of shame and grief at Lyons. Francis himself, thrown from his horse, surrendered his sword to Charles de Lannoy, viceroy of Naples, who received it kneeling on one knee. The King of France was the Emperor's prisoner! His captivity seemed to be the greatest of all misfortunes. "Nothing is left me but honour and life," wrote that Prince to his mother. But to none was this event more affecting than to Margaret. The glory of her country over-clouded, France without a monarch, and exposed to accumulated dangers, her beloved brother the captive of his haughty foe, her husband dishonoured and dead, what an overflowing cup of bitterness! But she had a Comforter: and while her brother sought to comfort himself by repeating, "*Tout est perdu, fors l'honneur*!" (all is lost save honour!)

* *Ingens affectus, qui me cogit Mumpelgardum amare.* (Farel's Epp.)

† Quo Anemundi spiritum jam pervenisse speramus. (Myconius Farello, MS. de Neuchâtel.)

* Coct à Farel, Dec. 1524. MS. de Neuchâtel.

† Coct à Farel, Jan. 1525. (Ibid.)

‡ Revue du Dauphiné, tom. ii. p. 33. MS. de Chouard.

§ M. Kirchhoffer, in his Life of Farel, gives this circumstance as an uncertain tradition; but it is related by Protestant writers, and besides seems to me perfectly consistent with the character of Farel and the fears of Ecolampadius. It is our duty to admit the weakness of the Reformation.

She was able to say, '*Fors Jesus seul, mon frere, fils de Dieu*,' "Save Christ alone, my brother, Son of God!"*

All France, nobles, parliament, and people, were overwhelmed in consternation. Ere long, as in the first three centuries of the Church, the calamity which had overtaken the state was charged upon the Christians, and the cry of fanatics on all sides demanded their blood as the means of averting farther misfortunes. The moment, therefore, was favourable to the opposers of the truth; it was not enough to have dislodged the evangelical Christians from the three strong positions they had taken up, it was necessary to profit by the popular panic to strike while the iron was hot, and utterly to extirpate a power which was becoming so formidable to the Papacy.

At the head of this conspiracy, and loudest in these clamours, were Beda, Duchesne, and Lecouturier. These irreconcilable enemies of the Gospel flattered themselves that they might easily obtain, from public terror, the victims hitherto refused. They went immediately to work employing fanatical harangues, lamentations, threats, and libels, to arouse the angry passions of the nation and its governors, vomiting fire and flame against their adversaries, and heaping insults upon them†.

They stopped at nothing; dishonestly quoting their words, without reference to any explanatory context, substituting expressions of their own in place of those used by the teachers they wished to inculpate, and omitting, or adding, according as was necessary, to blacken the character of their opponents.‡ Such is the testimony of Erasmus himself.

Nothing so much excited their anger as the doctrine of Salvation by Free Grace—the corner-stone of Christianity and of the Reformation. "When I contemplate," said Beda, "these three men, Lefevre, Erasmus, and Luther, in other respects gifted with so penetrating a genius, leagued together in a conspiracy against meritorious works, and resting all the weight of salvation on faith alone, I am no longer astonished that thousands, led away by such teaching, begin to say, 'Why should I fast and mortify my body?' Let us banish from France this hateful doctrine of grace. This neglect of good works is a fatal snare of the devil."

Thus did the syndic of the Sorbonne fight against the faith. He would naturally find supporters in a profligate court, and likewise in another class of people, more respectable, but not less opposed to the Gospel; we mean those grave men, and rigid moralists, who, devoted to the study of laws and judicial forms, discern in Christianity no more than a system of laws, and in the Church only a sort of moral police, and who, unable to make the doctrines of man's spiritual helplessness, the new birth, and justification by faith, square with the legal habit of their minds, are induced to regard them as fanciful imaginations, dangerous to public morals and to national prosperity. This aversion to the doctrine of free grace, manifested itself in the 16th century, under two widely different forms. In Italy and in Poland it took the form of Socinianism, so called from its originator, who was descended from a celebrated family of jurists at Sienna; while in France, it showed itself in the stern decrees and burnings of the Parliament.

Contemning the great truths of the Gospel, as promulgated by the Reformers, and thinking it necessary to do something at this season of overwhelming calamity, the Parliament presented an address to Louisa of Savoy, remonstrating strongly on the conduct of the government toward the new teaching: "Heresy," said they, "has raised its head among us, and the king, by his neglecting to bring the heretics to the scaffold, has drawn down upon us the wrath of heaven."

At the same time the pulpits resounded with lamentations, threatenings, and maledictions; and prompt and signal punishments were loudly demanded. Martial Mazurier took a prominent part among the preachers of Paris, and endeavouring by his violence to efface the recollection of his former connexion with the partisans of the Reformation, inveighed against such as were "secretly the disciples of Luther." "Know you," cried he, "the rapid progress of this poison? Know you its strength? It acts with inconceivable rapidity; in a moment it may destroy tens of thousands of souls. Ah! well may we tremble for France."*

It was not difficult to excite the Queen-mother against the favourers of the Reformation. Her daughter Margaret, the chief personages of the court, she herself, Louisa of Savoy, who had ever been devoted to the Roman Pontiff, had been by certain of the fanatics, charged with countenancing Lefevre, Berquin, and the other innovators. Had she not been known, insinuated her accusers, to read their tracts and translations of the Bible? The Queen-mother was not unwilling to clear herself of such dishonouring suspicions. Already she had despatched her confessor to the Sorbonne to inquire of that body as to the best method of extirpating this heresy. "The detestable doctrine of Luther," said she, in her message to the faculty, "every day gains new adherents." The faculty smiled on the receipt of this message. The time had been when the representations they had made were dismissed without so much as a hearing; but now their advice was humbly solicited in the matter. At length they held within their grasp that heresy which they had so long desired to stifle. They deputed Noel Beda to return an immediate answer to the Queen-Regent. "Since," said the fanatical syndic, "the sermons, discussions, and books, with which we have so often opposed heresy, have failed to arrest its progress, a proclamation ought to be put forth, prohibiting the circulation of the writings of the heretics—and if these measures should prove insufficient, force and restraint should be employed against the persons of the false teachers; for they who resist the light must be subdued by punishments and terror."†

But Louisa had not even waited for their answer. Scarcely had Francis fallen into the hands of Charles V., when she wrote to the Pope, consulting him as to his wishes with respect to heretics. It was important to Louisa's policy to secure to herself the favour of a pontiff who had power to raise all Italy against the conqueror of Pavia; and she did not think that favour would be too dearly bought at the cost of some French blood. The Pope, delighted at the opportunity of letting loose his vengeance in the "most Christian kingdom," against a heresy of which he had failed to arrest the progress either in Switzerland or Germany, gave instant directions for the establishment of the Inquisition in France, and despatched a bull to that effect to the Parliament. At the same time Duprat, whom the pontiff had created a cardinal, at the same time bestowing upon him the archbishopric of Sens and a rich

* Mazurier contra occultos Lutheri discipulos declamavit, ac recentius veneni celeritatem vinque denunciavit. (Lannoi regii Navarrae gymnassii historia, p. 621.)

† Histoire de l'Université, par Crevier, v. p. 196.

* Les Marguerites de la Marguerite, p. 29.

† Plus quam scurrillibus conviciis debacchantes . . . (Er. Franco Regi, p. 1103.)

‡ Pro meis verbis supponit sua, prætermittit addit. (Ibid. p. 897.)

§ Cum itaque cerneram tres istos . . . uno animo in opera meritoria conspicias. (Natalis Bedæ Apologia adversus clandestinos Lutheranos, fol. 41.)

abbey, laboured to testify his gratitude for these favours, by his indefatigable opposition to the heretics. Thus the Pope, and the Regent, the doctors of the Sorbonne and the Parliament, the Chancellor, and the fanatics, were now combining to ruin the Gospel and put its confessors to death.

The Parliament was first in motion. The time had arrived, when it was necessary that the first body in the state should take steps against the new doctrine: moreover, it might seem called to act, inasmuch as the public tranquillity was at stake. Accordingly, the Parliament, "under the impulse of a holy zeal against the innovations," issued an edict,* "that the Bishop of Paris, and certain other bishops, should be held responsible to M. Philippe Pott, president of requests, and Andrew Verjus, its counsellor, and to Messires William Duchesne, and Nicolas Leclerc, doctors of divinity, to institute and conduct the trial of persons tainted with the Lutheran doctrine."

"And with a purpose of making it appear that those persons were acting rather under the authority of the Church than of the Parliament, it pleased his Holiness, the Pope, to forward a brief, dated 20th May, 1525, in which he approved the commissioners that had been named."

"Accordingly, in pursuance of these measures, all who, being called before these deputies, were by the bishop or by the ecclesiastical judges, pronounced *Lutherans*, were handed over to the secular arm—that is, to the said Parliament, who forthwith condemned them to the flames.†" We quote the very words of a manuscript of that age.

Such was the dreadful court of Inquisition, appointed, during the captivity of Francis I., to take cognizance of the charge against the Evangelic Christians of France, as dangerous to the state. Its members were two laymen and two ecclesiastics; and one of these latter was Duchesne, next to Beda the most fanatical of the adverse party. Shame had prevented their placing Beda himself in the commission, but his influence was only the more secured by the precaution.

Thus the machinery was set up—its various springs in order—and every one of its blows likely to be mortal. It was an important point to settle against whom its first proceedings should be taken. Beda, Duchesne, and Leclerc, M. Philip Pott, the president, and Andrew Verjus, the counsellor, met to deliberate on this point. Was there not the Count of Montbrun, the old friend of Louis XII., and the former ambassador at the court of Rome, Brignonnet, then Bishop of Meaux? This committee of public safety, of 1525, thought that by singling out its object from an elevated station, it should strike terror through all hearts. This consideration seems to have decided them; and the venerable bishop received notice of trial.

Far from quailing before the persecution of 1523, Brignonnet had persisted, in conjunction with Lefevre, in opposing the popular superstitions. The more eminent his station in the Church and in the State, the more fatal did the effect of his example appear, and the more did his enemies judge it necessary to extort from him a public recantation, or to bring him to a yet more public retribution. The court of inquisition lost no time in collecting and preparing the evidence against him. He was charged with harbouring the teachers of the new heresy: it was alleged that a week after the superior of the Cordeliers had preached in St. Martin's church at Meaux, by direction of the Sorbonne, to restore

sound doctrine—Brignonnet had himself occupied the pulpit, and, in publicly refuting him, had designated the preacher and his brother Cordeliers impostors, false prophets, and hypocrites; and that, not satisfied with that, he had, through his official, summoned the superior to appear personally to answer to him.*

It would even seem, if we may trust to one manuscript of the time, that the Bishop had gone much farther, and that he in person, attended by Lefevre, had in the autumn of 1524 gone over his diocese, committing to the flames, wherever he came, all images, the crucifix alone excepted. So daring a conduct, which would go to prove so much decision, combined with much timidity in the character of Brignonnet—if we give credit to the fact—would not fix upon him the blame visited on other *iconoclasts*; for he was at the head of that Church whose superstitions he then sought to reform, and was, therefore, acting at least in the sphere of his rights and duties.†

However we may regard it, in the eyes of the enemies of the Gospel, the charge against Brignonnet was of a very aggravated character. He had not merely impugned the Church's authority, he had erected himself against the Sorbonne itself—that society, all the energies of which were directed to the perpetuation of its own greatness. Great, therefore, was the joy in the society at the intelligence that its adversary was to stand a trial before the Inquisition, and John Bochart, one of the leading lawyers of the time, pleading before the Parliament against Brignonnet, exclaimed aloud—"Neither the bishop, nor any single individual can lawfully exalt himself, or open his mouth against the faculty. Neither is the faculty called to discuss or give its reasons at the bar of the said bishop, whose duty it is to offer no opposition to the wisdom of that holy society, but to esteem it as under the guidance of God himself.‡"

In conformity with this representation, the Parliament put forth an edict on the 3d October, 1525, wherein, after authorizing the arrest of all those who had been informed against; it gave orders that the bishop should be examined by Master James Menager and Andrew Verjus, counsellors of the court, touching the matters charged against him.§

The order of the Parliament struck terror to the bishop's heart. Brignonnet, twice honoured with the post of ambassador at Rome—Brignonnet, a bishop, a noble, the intimate friend of Louis XII., and Francis I.—to undergo an interrogatory by two counsellors of the court . . . He who had fondly dreamed that God would kindle in the hearts of the king, his mother, and his sister, a flame that would run through the kingdom, now beheld that kingdom turning against him, in the endeavour to quench that fire which it had received from Heaven. The king was a captive; his mother was placing herself at the head of the enemy's force; and Margaret dismayed by the misfortunes of her country, no longer dared to avert the blow directed against her dearest friends, and falling first on the spiritual

* Hist. de l'Université, par Crevier, v. p. 204.

† In the library of the pastors of Neuchâtel, is a letter of Seville, in which the following passage occurs: "Je te notifie que l'evêque de Meaux en Brie par *eum Jacobo Fabro stapulensi*, depuis trois mois, en visitant l'evêché ont brûlé *actu* tous les images, réservé le crucifix, et sont personnellement ajournés à Paris a ce mois de mars venant pour répondre *coram suprema curia et universitate*." I am rather disposed to think the fact truly stated, though Seville was not on the spot, Mezeray, Daniel, and Maimbourg make no mention of it. These Roman Catholic writers, who are not very circumstantial, may have had motives for passing over the fact in silence, considering the issue of the trial; and moreover, the report of Seville agrees with all the known facts. However, the matter is open to question.

‡ Hist. de l'Université, par Crevier, v. p. 204.

§ Maimbourg Hist. du Calv. p. 14.

* De la religion catholique en France, par de Lezeau. MS. de la bibliothèque de Sainte-Geneviève at Paris.

† The MS. of the Library of St. Geneviève, whence I have derived this fragment, bears the name of Lezeau, but in the catalogue that of Lefebvre.

father who had so often cheered and comforted her. Not long before this, she had written to Briconnet a letter full of pious emotions: "Oh!" she had said, "that this poor languid heart might experience some warmth of that love with which I would that it were burnt to ashes."* But the time had arrived when the question was one of literal burnings. Such mystical expressions were not now in season; and one who resolved to confess the faith must brave the scaffold! The poor bishop, who had been so sanguine in the hope to see the Reformation gradually and gently winning its way in men's minds, trembled in dismay when he found, that, at the eleventh hour, it must be purchased at the sacrifice of life itself. It is possible such a thought may never before have occurred to him, and he recoiled from it in an agony of fear.

One hope, however, remained for Briconnet; and that was, that he might be allowed to appear before the Chambers of Parliament in general assembly agreeably to the privilege belonging, by custom, to his rank. Doubtless, in that august and numerous assembly some generous hearts would respond to his appeal, and espouse his cause. Accordingly, he humbly petitioned the court to grant him this indulgence; but his enemies had equally with himself calculated the possible issue of such a hearing. Had they not learned a lesson when Luther, in presence of the Germanic Diet, at Worms, had shaken the resolution of those who had previously seemed most decided? Carefully closing every avenue of escape, they exerted themselves with such effect, that the Parliament on the 25th October, 1525, in an edict affirming that previously issued,† refused Briconnet the favour he had petitioned for.

Behold the Bishop of Meaux, placed like a common priest of the lowest order before Masters James Menager and Andrew Verjus. Those two juriconsults, the obedient tools of the Sorbonne, were not likely to be swayed by those higher considerations to which the Chambers of Parliament might be accessible; they were men of facts: was it, or was it not, a fact, that the bishop had set himself in opposition to the society? With them, this was the only question. Accordingly Briconnet's conviction was secured.

While the sword was thus impending over the head of the bishop, the monks, priests, and doctors, made the best use of their time; they saw plainly that if Briconnet could be persuaded to retract, their interest would be better served than by his martyrdom. His death would but inflame the zeal of those who were united with him in their faith, while his apostasy would plunge them in the deepest discouragement. They accordingly went to work. They visited him, and pressed him with their entreaties. Martial Mazurier especially strained every nerve to urge him to a fall, as he himself had fallen. Arguments were not wanting, which might, to Briconnet, seem spacious. Would he then take the consequence, and be rejected from his office? If he remained in the church, might he not use his influence with the king and the court to an extent of good which it was not easy to estimate? What would become of his friends when his power was at an end? Was not his resistance likely to compromise the success of a Reformation which, to be salutary and lasting, ought to be carried into effect by the legitimate influence of the clergy? How many would be stumbled by his persisting in opposition to the Church; and, on the other hand, how many would be won over by his concessions! His advisers pretended that they, too, were anxious for a Reformation; "All is going on by insensible steps," said they; "both at the court, in the city, and in the provinces, things are progress-

ing: and would he, in the mere lightness of his heart, dash the fair prospect in view! After all he was not asked to relinquish what he had taught, but merely to comply with the established order of the Church. Could it be well, at a time when France was suffering under the pressure of so many reverses—to stir up new confusions? "In the name of religion, country, friends—nay, even of the Reformation itself—*consent!*" said they. Such are the sophisms that are the ruin of many a noble enterprise.

Yet every one of these considerations had its influence on the bishop's mind. The Tempter, who came to Jesus in the wilderness, presented himself to Briconnet in fair and specious colours;—and instead of saying, with his Master, "*Get thee behind me, Satan!*" he heard, listened, and considered his suggestions. . . . Thenceforward his faithfulness was at an end.

Briconnet had never been embarked, with all his heart, like Farel or Luther in the movement which was then remoulding the Church. There was in him a sort of mystical tendency, which enfeebles the souls in which it gains place, and takes from them the firmness and confidence which are derived from a Faith that rests simply on the word of God. The cross he was called to take up, that he might follow Christ, was too heavy for him.* Shaken in resolution, alarmed, dizzy, and not knowing which way to turn, he faltered, and stumbled against the stone that had been artfully laid in his path. . . . he fell: and, instead of throwing himself into the arms of Christ, he cast himself at the feet of Mazurier,†, and, by a shameful recantation, brought a dark cloud upon the glory of a noble fidelity.‡

Thus fell Briconnet, the friend of Lefevre and of Margaret: and thus the earliest protector of the gospel in France, denied that good news of Grace, in the criminal thought that his abiding faithful would compromise his influence in the Church, at the court, and in the kingdom. But what his enemies represented as the saving of his country, was, perhaps, the greatest of its misfortunes. What might not have been the consequence, if Briconnet had possessed the courage of Luther? If one of the most eminent of the French bishops, enjoying the respect of the king and the love of the people, had ascended the scaffold, and there, like 'the poor of this world,' sealed, by a courageous confession and a Christian death, the truth of the Gospel—would not France herself have been put upon reflection? Would not the blood of the Bishop of Meaux have served, like that of Polycarp and Cyprian, as *seed of the Church*; and should we not have seen those provinces, so famed for many recollections, emancipating themselves, in the sixteenth century, from the spiritual darkness in which they are still enveloped?

Briconnet underwent the form of an interrogatory, in presence of Masters James Menager and Andrew Verjus, who declared that he had sufficiently vindicated himself from the crime charged against him. He was then put under penance, and convened a synod, at which he condemned the writings of Luther, retracted whatever he had taught, at variance with the Church's teaching, restored the custom of invocation of saints, persuading such as had left the rites of the Church to return to them; and as if desiring to leave no doubt as to his reconciliation with the pope and the Sorbonne, kept a solemn fast on All-saints-eve,

* Crucis statim oblatae terrore percussus. (Bezae Icones.)

† Dementatus. (Ibid.)

‡ Ut Episcopus etiam desisteret suis consiliis effecit. (Lau-
noir, regii Navarre gymnasii hist. p. 621.)

§ Nisi turpi palinodia gloriam hanc omnem ipse sibi invol-
disset. (Bezae Icones.)

* MS. de la Biblioth. Royale, S. F. No. 337.

† Maimbourg Hist. du Calv. p. 15.

and issued orders for pompous processions, in which he appeared personally, evidencing still farther his faith by his largesses and apparent devotion.*

The fall of Brignonnet is perhaps the most memorable of all those recorded of that period. There is no like example of one so deeply engaged in the work of the Reformation, so abruptly turning against it; yet must we carefully consider both his character and his fall. Brignonnet stood relatively to Rome, as Lefèvre stood in relation to the Reformation. Both represented a sort of *juste milieu*—appertaining, in strictness of speech, to neither party—as it were, one on the right and the other on the left centre. The Doctor of Etaples leans toward the Word; the bishop inclines toward the Hierarchy;—and when these men, who touch each other, are driven to decision, we see the one range himself on the side of Christ, and the other on the side of Rome. We may add, that it is not possible to think that Brignonnet can have entirely laid aside the convictions of his faith, and at no time did the Roman doctors put confidence in him; not even after he had retracted. But he did, as did afterward the Bishop of Cambray, whom he in some points resembled; he flattered himself he might outwardly submit to the Pope's authority, while he in his heart continued subject to the divine Word. Such weakness is incompatible with the principle of the Reformation. Brignonnet was one of the most distinguished of the quietist or mystic school; and it is well known that one of the leading maxims of that school has ever been to settle down in, and adapt itself to, the church in which it exists, whatever that church may be.

The mournful fall of Brignonnet was felt as a shock to the hearts of his former friends, and was the sad forerunner of those deplorable apostacies to which the friendship of the world so often led, in another age of French history. The man who seemed to hold the reins of the movement was abruptly precipitated from his seat, and the Reformation was, in that country, thenceforth to pursue its course without a leader or guide, in lowliness and secrecy. But the disciples of the Gospel from that time lifted up their eyes, regarding with more fixedness of faith, their Head in heaven, whose unchanging faithfulness their souls had known.

The Sorbonne was triumphant. A great advance toward the final ruin of the Reformation in France had been made, and it was important to follow up their success. Lefèvre stood next after Brignonnet, and Beda had, therefore, without loss of time, turned his hostility against him, publishing a tract against the celebrated doctor, full of such gross calumnies, that we have Erasmus's judgment of them, that "even cobblers and smiths could lay the finger on the falsehood of them."† What seemed above all to enrage him was that doctrine of *Justification by Faith*, which Lefèvre had proclaimed in the ears of Christians. To this Beda continually recurred as an article which, according to him, overturned the Church. "What!" he exclaimed, "Lefèvre affirms that whoever ascribes to himself the power to save himself, will be lost, while whosoever, laying aside all strength of his own, casts himself into the arms of Christ, shall be saved. . . . Oh, what heresy! thus to teach the uselessness of meritorious works. . . . What hellish doctrine!—what delusion of the devil! Let us oppose it with all our power."‡

Instantly that engine of persecution, which took ef-

fect in the recantation or in the death of its victims, was turned against Lefèvre; and already hopes were entertained that he would share the fate of Leclerc the wool-comber, or that of the Bishop Brignonnet. His trial was quickly gone through; and a decree of Parliament condemned nine propositions extracted from his commentaries on the Gospels, and placed his translation of the Scriptures on the list of prohibited works.*

These measures were felt by Lefèvre to be only the prelude of others. From the first intimation of the approaching persecution he had clearly perceived, that in the absence of Francis the First he would not be able to bear up under his enemies' attacks, and that the time had arrived to act on the direction, "When they persecute you in one city flee ye unto another."† Lefèvre quitted Meaux, where, ever since the bishop's apostasy, he had experienced nothing but bitterness of soul, and had found his efforts paralysed; and as he looked back upon his persecutors, he shook off the dust from off his feet, "not to call down evil upon them, but in testimony of the evils that were coming upon them: for," says he, "as that dust is shaken from off our feet, just so are they cast off from the favour and presence of the Lord."‡

The persecutors beheld their victim at large; but they derived comfort from the thought that, at least France was delivered from this father of heresy.

Lefèvre, a fugitive from his enemies, arrived at Strasburg under an assumed name. There he was immediately introduced to the friends of the Reformation; and what must have been his joy, to hear publicly taught that same Gospel of which he caught the first gleams in the Church; why, it was just his own faith! It was exactly what he had intended to express! It was as if he had been a second time born to the Christian life. Gerard Roussel, one of those Evangelical Christians, who, nevertheless, like the Doctor of Etaples, attained not to complete enfranchisement, had been likewise compelled to quit France. Both together attended the lectures of Capito and of Bucer,§ and met in private intercourse with those faithful teachers.¶ It was even rumoured that they had been commissioned to do so, by Margaret, the king's sister.‡ But the adoring contemplation of the ways of God, rather than polemical questions, engaged Lefèvre's attention. Casting a glance upon the state of Christendom, and filled with wonder at what he beheld passing on its stage, moved with feelings of gratitude, and full of hopeful anticipation, he threw himself on his knees, and prayed to the Lord "to perfect that which he saw then beginning."***

At Strasburg one especially agreeable surprise awaited him—his pupil, his 'son in the faith,' Farel, from whom he had been parted by persecution for nearly three years, had arrived there just before. The aged doctor of the Sorbonne found, in his young pupil, a man in the vigour of life, a Christian, 'strong in the faith.' and Farel grasped with affectionate respect the shrivelled hand which had guided his earliest steps, conscious of the liveliest joy at thus recovering his spiritual father in the society of faithful men, and in a city that had received the truth. They attended in company the pure teaching of eminent teachers, broke

* I. Lelong Biblioth. sacræ, 2d part, p. 44.

† St. Matth. x. 14—23.

‡ Quod excussi sunt a facie Domini sicut pulvis ille excussus est a pedibus. (Faber in Ev. Matth. p. 40)

§ Faber stapulensis et Gerardus Rufus, clam e Gallia profecti, Capitonem et Bucerum audierunt. (Melch. Adam. Vita Capitonis p. 90)

¶ De omnibus doctrinæ præcipuis locis cum ipsis disseruerint. (Ibid.)

‡ Missi a Margaretha regis Francisci sorore. (Melch. Ad. Vit. Capitonis, p. 90.)

*** Farel à tous seigneurs, peuple et pasteurs.

* Mezeray, ii. p. 981; Daniel, v. p. 644; Moreri, article Brignonnet.

† Perpendens perniciosissimam demonis fallaciam. . . . Occurri quantum valui. (Nat. Bedæ Apolog. adv. Lutheranos, fol. 42.)

bread together in the supper of the Lord, according to Christ's institution, and received touching proofs of the love of the brethren. "Do you recollect," said Farel to Lefevre, "an expression you once let fall to me, when we were both as yet in darkness, '*William! God will renew the world; and you will live to see it!*' See here the beginning of what you then foretold." "Yes," answered the pious old man; God is renewing the world. . . . O, my son, continue to preach boldly the holy Gospel of Jesus Christ.**

Lefevre, from an excess of prudence doubtless, chose to remain incognito at Strasburg, and took the name of *Anthony Peregrinus*, while Roussel chose that of *Solmin*. But the celebrated doctor could not elude notice; and soon the whole city, even to the very children, saluted him with marks of respect.† He did not dwell by himself, but lodged in the same house with Capito, Farel, Roussel, and Vedastus (known and loved for his retiring diffidence,) and a certain converted Jew named Simon. The houses of Capito, Ecclampadius, Zwingle, and Luther, offered a kind of open table and lodging. Such in those days, was the attraction of "brotherly love." Many Frenchmen besides, were residing in this city on the banks of the Rhine, and there composed a church in which Farel often preached the doctrine of Salvation. Such Christian communion soothed the feeling of banishment from their native land.

While these brethren were thus enjoying the asylum afforded them by brotherly love, those in Paris and other parts of France were exposed to great danger. Briçonnet had recanted—Lefevre was beyond the frontier—all this was something gained, but the Sorbonne was still without those public examples of punishment which it had advised. Beda and his followers were without victims. One man there was who gave them more annoyance than either Briçonnet or Lefevre, and he was Louis Berquin. The gentleman of Artois, more fearless than his tutors, allowed no opportunity to pass of teasing the monks and theologians, and unmasking their fanaticism. Passing from the capital to the provinces, he would collect the writings of Erasmus and of Luther. These he would translate,‡ at other times himself composing controversial tracts, and defending and disseminating the new teaching with the zeal of a young convert. Louis Berquin was denounced by the Bishop of Amiens, Beda seconded the accusation, and the Parliament committed him to prison. "This one," said the enemy, "shall not escape so easily as Briçonnet or Lefevre. But their bolts and bars had no effect on Berquin. In vain did the superior of the Carthusians, and other persons, labour to persuade him to apologise; he declared he would not retract an iota. "It seemed then," says a chronicler, "that no way remained but to send him to the stake."§

Margaret, in consternation at what had happened to Briçonnet, dreaded to see Berquin dragged to that scaffold which the bishop had so shamefully eluded. Not daring to visit him in his prison, she endeavoured to convey a few words of consolation to him—and he may have been upon her heart—when the princess composed that touching complaint in which a prisoner thus addresses the Lord:

O refuge free to all who feel distress!
Their help and stay!—Judge of the fatherless!
Exhaustless treasure of consoling grace!

* Quod et pius senex fatebatur; meque hortabatur pergerem in annuntiatione sacri Evangelii. (Farellus Pellicano Hotting. H. L. vi. p. 17.)

† Nam latere cupiunt et tamen pueris noti sunt. (Capito. Zwing. Epp. p. 439.)

‡ Erasmi Ep. p. 923.

§ Actes des Martyrs, p. 103.

The iron doors, the moat, the massive wall
Keep far from me.—a lone, forgotten thrall—
Friend, kinsman, brother,—each familiar face:
Yet mercy meets even this extremity;
For iron doors can never shut out *Thee!*—
Thou, Lord! art with me here, here in this dismal place.*

But Margaret did not rest there, she immediately wrote to her brother to solicit a pardon for her attendant. Fortunate might she deem herself if her efforts were not too late to rescue him from the hatred of his enemies.

While awaiting this victim, Beda resolved to strike terror into the adversaries of the Sorbonne and monks, by crushing the most celebrated man among them. Erasmus had declared himself against Luther:—But this mattered little;—if the ruin of Erasmus could be accomplished, then beyond all doubt the destruction of Farel, of Luther, and their associates would be sealed. The surest way of reaching our mark is to aim beyond it. Let the ecclesiastical power only set its heel on the neck of the philosopher of Rotterdam, and where was the heretical doctor who could hope to escape the vengeance of Rome? The attack had already been commenced by Lecouturier, better known by his Latin name of Sutor, who, from the solitude of a Carthusian cell, launched against Erasmus a publication of the most violent character, in which he called his adversaries, theologasters, and miserable apes, and charged them with scandalous offences, with heresy and blasphemy. Handling subjects which he did not understand, he reminded his readers, as Erasmus sarcastically remarks, of the old proverb: "*Ne sutor ultra crepidam.*"

Beda hastened to the assistance of his confederate. He ordered Erasmus to write no more;† and himself taking up the pen, which he had enjoined the greatest writer of the age to lay down, he made a selection of all the calumnies which the monks had invented against the philosopher, translated them into French, and formed them into a book which he circulated at court and in the city, in the hope that all France would join in the outcry he was raising.‡ This book was the signal for a general onset; the enemies of Erasmus started up on every side. Nicolas D'Ecmond, an old Carmelite of Louvain used to exclaim, as often as he mounted the pulpit, "There is no difference between Erasmus and Luther, unless it be that Erasmus is the greater heretic of the two;"§—and wherever the Carmelite might be—at table or on a journey, on the land or on the water—he was raving against Erasmus the heresiarch and forger.¶ The faculty of Paris, excited by these clamours, drew up a decree of censure against the illustrious writer.

Erasmus was astounded. Was this, then, the fruit of all his politic forbearance—was it for this that he had even engaged in hostilities against Luther? He, with an intrepidity which no one else had displayed, had flung himself into the breach—and was he now to be trampled down only that the common enemy might be reached more safely over his prostrate body? His indignation is raised at the thought, he turns sharply round, and while yet warm from his attack upon Luther, deals his retributive blows on the fanatical doctors who have assailed him in the rear. Never was his correspondence more active than now. He takes a survey of his position, and his piercing eye immediately discovers in whose hands rests the balance of his fate. He hesitates not an instant; he will at once lay his complaint and his protest at the feet of the Sorbonne, of the Par-

* Marguerites de la Marguerite des Princesses, 1. p. 445.

† Primum jubet ut desinam scribere. (Erasmi. Epp. p. 921.)

‡ Ut totum Galliam in me concitaret. (Ibid. p. 886.)

§ Nisi quod Erasmus esset major hæreticus. (Ibid. p. 915.)

¶ Quoties in conviciis, in vehiculis, in navibus . . . (Ibid.)

liament, of the king, of the emperor himself. "How was this fearful flame of Lutheranism kindled?" says he, writing to those among the divines of the Sorbonne in whose impartiality he still reposed some confidence: "How has it been fanned into fury, except such outrages as these which Beda has committed?" In war, a soldier who has done his duty receives a reward from his generals, but the only reward that you—the generals in this war—have to bestow upon me, is to deliver me up to the calumnies of Beda and Lecouturier!"

"What!" he exclaims, addressing the Parliament of Paris, "when I had these Lutherans on my hands—when, under the auspices of the emperor, the pope, and the other princes, I was struggling against them, even at the peril of my life, must I be assailed behind my back by the foul libels of Lecouturier and Beda? Ah, if evil fortune had not deprived us of King Francis, I might have appealed to that avenger of the muses against these insults of the barbarians.† But now it rests with you to restrain their malignity."

No sooner did an opportunity present itself of conveying a letter to the king, than he wrote to him also. His penetrating glance detected in these fanatical doctors of the Sorbonne, the germs of the League, the precursors of the three priests, who, at a later period, were to set up the *sixteen* against the last of the race of Valois; his genius enabled him to warn the king of future crimes and miseries which the experience of his successors would but too fully realise. "Religion," said he, "is their pretext, but their true aim is despotic power, to be exercised even over princes. They are moving onward with a steady step, though their path lies under ground. Should the sovereign not be inclined to submit himself in all things to their guidance, they will immediately declare that he may be deposed by the Church; that is to say, by a few false monks, and a few false divines conspiring together against the public peace."‡ Erasmus, when writing to Francis the First, could not have touched a more sensitive string.

Finally, that he might still more effectually secure himself against the malice of his enemies, Erasmus invoked the protection of Charles the Fifth himself: "Invincible Emperor," said he, "a horrible outcry has been raised against me, by men who, under the pretence of religion, are labouring to establish their own tyrannical power, and to gratify their own sensual appetites.§ I am fighting under your banner, and under the standard of Jesus Christ. It is by your wisdom and your authority that peace must be restored to the Christian world."

It was in language like this that the prince of literature addressed himself to the rulers of the age. The danger which impended over his head was averted; the secular power interposed, and the vultures were compelled to abandon the prey which in fancy they had already clutched. They then turned their eyes elsewhere, in search of other victims, and they were soon found.

It was in Lorraine first that blood was appointed to flow afresh. From the earliest days of the Reformation, there had been an alliance in fanaticism between Paris and the country of the Guises. If Paris was

at peace for a while, Lorraine took up the work, and then Paris began again, to give time for Nancy and Metz to recruit their strength. The first blow, apparently, was destined to fall upon an excellent man, one of the refugees of Basle, a friend of Farel, and Toussaint. The Chevalier d'Esch, while residing at Metz, had not been able to screen himself from the suspicions of the priests. It was ascertained that he carried on a correspondence with Christians of the Evangelic faith, and, on that discovery, he was thrown into prison at Pont-à-Mousson, a place situated five miles from Metz, on the banks of the Moselle.* The tidings filled the French refugees, and the Swiss themselves, with the deepest concern. "Alas! for that innocent heart!" exclaimed Ecclampadius. "I have full confidence in the Lord," added he, "that He will preserve this man to us, either in life, as a preacher of righteousness, to make known His name, or in death, to confess him as a martyr."† But at the same time Ecclampadius censured the thoughtlessness, the precipitancy, and what he termed the imprudent zeal, for which the French refugees were distinguished. "I wish," said he, "that my dear friends, the worthy gentlemen of France, would not be so eager to return to their own country until they have made all due inquiries beforehand; for the devil lays his snares everywhere. Nevertheless, let them obey the Spirit of Christ, and may that Spirit never forsake them."‡

There was reason, indeed, to tremble for the fate of the chevalier. The rancour of the enemy had broken out in Lorraine with redoubled fury. Brother Bonaventure Renel, the principal of the Cordeliers, and the confessor of Duke Anthony the Good, a man of an audacious temper, and of very questionable moral character, allowed that weak prince, who reigned from 1508 to 1544, a large measure of license in his pleasures; and persuaded him on the other hand, by way of atonement, as it were, to exercise a merciless severity against all innovators. "It is quite sufficient for any one," said the prince, profiting by the able instructions of Renel, "if he can repeat the *Pater* and the *Ave-Maria*. The greatest doctors are those who occasion the greatest disorders."§

Toward the end of the year 1524, information was conveyed to the duke's court that a pastor, named Schuch, was preaching a new kind of doctrine in the town of St. Hippolyte, at the foot of the Vosages. "Let them return to their duty," said Anthony the Good, "or I will march against the town, and lay it waste with fire and sword."||

Hereupon the faithful pastor resolved to devote himself for his flock: he repaired to Nancy, where the prince resided. Immediately on his arrival, he was lodged in a noisome prison, under the custody of brutal and cruel men. And now, at last, Brother Bonaventure had the heretic in his power. It was he who presided at the tribunal before which he was examined. "Heretic!" cried he, addressing the prisoner, "Judas! Devil!" Schuch, preserving the utmost tranquillity and composure, made no reply to these insults; but holding in his hand a little Bible, all covered with notes which he had written in it, he meekly and earnestly confessed Jesus Christ and him crucified! On a sudden he assumed a more animated mien—stood up boldly, raised his voice as if moved by the Spirit from on high—and looking his judges in

* Hoc gravissimum Lutheri incendium, unde natum, unde huc progressum, nisi ex Beddaices intemperis. (Erasm. Epp. p. 887.)

† Musarum vindicem adversus barbarorum incurSIONES.—(Ibid. 2070.)

‡ Nisi principes ipsorum voluntati per omnia praverit dicatur fautor hereticorum et destitui poterit per ecclesias. (Er. Epp. p. 1103.)

§ Simulato religionis prætextu, ventris tyrannidisque sue, negotium agentes. (Ibid. p. 662.)

* Noster captus detinetur in Bundamosa quinque millibus a Metis. (Eccl. Farello Epp. p. 301.)

† Vel vivum confessorum, vel mortuum martyrem servabit. (Ibid.)

‡ Nollem carissimos dominos meos Gallos properare in Galiliam. (Ibid.)

§ Actes des Martyrs, p. 97.

|| Actes des Martyrs, p. 95.

the face denounced against them the fearful judgments of God.

Brother Bonaventure and his companions, inwardly appalled, yet agitated with rage, rushed upon him at once with vehement cries, snatched away the Bible, from which he read those menacing words, and "raging like so many mad dogs," says the chronicler, "because they could not wreak their fury on the doctrine, carried the book to their convent, and burnt it there."

The whole court of Lorraine resounded with the obstinacy and presumption of the minister of St. Hippolyte; and the prince, impelled by curiosity to hear the heretic, resolved to be present at his final examination—secretly, however, and concealed from the view of the spectators. But as the interrogatory was conducted in Latin, he could not understand it; only he was struck with the steadfast aspect of the minister, who seemed to be neither vanquished nor abashed. Indignant at this obstinacy, Anthony the Good started from his seat, and said as he retired—"Why dispute any longer! He denies the sacrament of the mass; let them proceed to execution against him!"[†] Schuch was immediately condemned to be burnt alive. When the sentence was communicated to him, he lifted up his eyes to heaven, and mildly made answer: "I was glad when they said unto me, Let us go into the house of the Lord."[‡]

On the 19th of August, 1525, the whole city of Nancy was in motion. The bells gave notice of the death of a heretic. The mournful procession set out. It must pass before the convent of the Cordeliers, and there the whole fraternity were gathered in joyful expectation before the door. As soon as Schuch made his appearance, Father Bonaventure, pointing to the carved images over the convent gateway, cried out, "Heretic, pay honour to God, his mother, and the saints!" "O hypocrites!" replied Schuch, standing erect before those pieces of wood and stone, "God will destroy you, and bring your deceits to light!"

When the martyr reached the place of execution his books were first burnt in his presence, and then he was called upon to recant; but he refused, saying, "Thou, God, hast called me, and thou wilt strengthen me to the end;"[§] and immediately he began with a loud voice to repeat the 51st Psalm, "Have mercy upon me, O God! according to thy loving-kindness!" Having mounted the pile, he continued to recite the psalm until the smoke and flames stifled his voice.

Thus did the persecutors in France and Lorraine behold a renewal of their triumphs—their counsels had at length been followed. At Nancy the ashes of a heretic had been scattered to the winds: this seemed a challenge addressed to the capital of France. What! should Beda and Lecouturier be the last to show their zeal for the pope? Rather let one blazing pile serve as the signal for another, and heresy swept from the soil of France, would soon be driven back beyond the Rhine.

But Beda was not to pursue his successful career, until a contest, half serious, half ludicrous, had taken place between him and one of those men with whom the struggle against Popery was only a capricious effort of the intellect, not the solemn engagement and willing duty of the heart.

Among the learned men whom Brignonnet had allured to his diocese was a doctor of the Sorbonne, named Peter Caroli, a man of a vain and frivolous cast of mind, and as quarrelsome and litigious as Beda himself.

Caroli viewed the new doctrine as the means of making an impression and of thwarting Beda, whose ascendancy he could not endure. Accordingly on his return from Meaux to Paris he caused a great sensation, by introducing into every pulpit what was called "the new way of preaching." Then began a pernicious strife between the two doctors; it was blow for blow and trick for trick. Beda cites Caroli before the Sorbonne, and Caroli summons him before the episcopal court to answer for an infringement of privilege. The Sorbonne proceeds with the inquiry, and Caroli gives intimation of an appeal to the Parliament. A provisional sentence excludes him from the pulpit, and still he goes on preaching in all the churches of Paris. Being absolutely forbidden to preach in any pulpit, he takes to publicly expounding the Psalms in the college of Cambray. The Sorbonne prohibits him from continuing that practice, but he asks permission to conclude the exposition of the 22d Psalm which he has begun. Finally, on this petition being rejected, he posts the following placard on the college-gates:—*Peter Caroli, being desirous to obey the injunctions of the sacred faculty, has ceased to teach; he will resume his lectures, whenever it shall please God, at the verse where he left off: 'THEY HAVE PIERCED MY HANDS AND MY FEET.'*" Thus had Beda at length found an opponent with whom he was fairly matched. If Caroli had defended the truth in right earnest, the stake would have been his reward; but he was of too carnal a spirit to expose himself to the risk of death. How could capital punishment be inflicted on a man who laughed his judges out of countenance! Neither the episcopal court, nor the parliament, nor the council could ever proceed to a definite judgment in his cause. Two such men as Caroli would have wearied out the activity of Beda himself—but two like him the Reformation did not produce.*

This troublesome contest concluded, Beda applied himself to matters of more serious concern. Happily for the syndic of the Sorbonne, there were men who gave persecution a better hold of them than Caroli. Brignonnet, indeed, and Erasmus, and Lefevre, and Berquin had escaped him; but since he cannot reach these distinguished personages, he will content himself with meaner victims. The poor youth, James Pavanne, ever since his adjuration at Christmas, 1524, had done nothing but weep and sigh. He was constantly seen with a gloomy brow, his eyes fixed on the ground, groaning inwardly, and muttering reproaches against himself for having denied his Lord and Saviour.[†]

Pavanne undoubtedly was the most retiring and the most inoffensive of men; but what of that? he had been at Meaux, and this, in those days was sufficient. "Pavanne has relapsed!" was the cry: "the dog has returned to his vomit, and the swine that was washed to his wallowing in the mire." He was seized immediately, cast into prison, and after a while brought before the judges. This was all that young Pavanne desired. He felt his mind relieved as soon as the fetters were fastened on his limbs, and recovered all his energy in the open confession of Jesus Christ![‡] The persecutors smiled when they saw that this time nothing could disappoint them of their victim, no recantation, no flight, no intervention of a powerful protection. The meekness of the youth, his candour, his courage, were altogether unavailing to appease the

* Actes des Martyrs, recueillis par Crespin, en fr. p. 97.

† Histoire de Francois Ier, par Gaillard, iv. p. 233.

‡ Psalm cxxii. 1.

§ Eum auctorem vocationis sue atque conservatorem ad extremum usque spiritum recognovit. (Acta Mart. p. 202.)

* Gerdiesius, Historia sæculi xvi. renovati p. 52. D'Argentré, Collectio Judiciorum de novis erroribus ii. p. 21.—Gaillard, Hiet. de Francois I. tom. iv. p. 233.

† Animifacium suum detestantis dolorem, sæpe declaraverit. (Acta Mart. p. 203.)

‡ Puram religionis Christianæ confessionem addit. (Ibid. p. 203.)

malice of his enemies. He, on the contrary, looked on them with affection—for by loading him with chains, they had restored his peace of mind and his joy—but that benevolent look of his only hardened their hearts the more. The proceedings against him were conducted with all despatch, and a very short time had elapsed before a pile was erected in the Place de Grève, on which Pavanne made a joyful end—strengthening by his example all who in that great city had openly or secretly embraced the Gospel of Christ.

But this was not enough for the Sorbonne. If men of mean condition only are to be sacrificed, their number at least must make amends for their want of rank. The flames in the Place de Grève have struck terror into Paris and into the whole of France; but another pile, kindled on some other spot, will redouble that terror. It will be the subject of conversation at the court, in the colleges, in the workshop of the artisan; and tokens like these, better than all the edicts that can be issued, will prove that Louisa of Savoy, the Sorbonne, and the parliament, are determined to sacrifice the very last heretic to the anathemas of Rome.

In the forest of Livry, three leagues distant from Paris, and not far from the sight of an ancient abbey of the order of St. Augustin, lived a hermit, who, having chanced in his wanderings to fall in with some of the men of Meaux, had received the truth of the Gospel into his heart.* The poor hermit had felt himself rich indeed that day in his solitary retreat, when, along with the scanty dole of bread which public charity had afforded him, he brought home Jesus Christ and his grace. He understood from that time how much better it is to give than to receive. He went from cottage to cottage in the villages around, and as soon as he crossed the threshold, began to speak to the poor peasants of the Gospel, and the free pardon which it offers to every burdened soul, a pardon, infinitely more precious than any priestly absolution.† The good hermit of Livry, was soon widely known in the neighbourhood of Paris; many came to visit him at his poor hermitage, and he discharged the office of a kind and faithful missionary to the simple-minded in all the adjacent districts.

It was not long before intelligence of what was doing by the new evangelist reached the ears of the Sorbonne, and the magistrates of Paris. The hermit was seized, dragged from his hermitage, from his forest, from the fields he had daily traversed, thrown into a dungeon in that great city which he had always shunned, brought to judgment, convicted, and sentenced to “the exemplary punishment of being burnt by a slow fire.”‡

In order to render the example the more striking, it was determined that he should be burnt in the close of Notre Dame; before that celebrated cathedral, which typifies the majesty of the Roman Catholic Church. The whole of the clergy were convened, and a degree of pomp was displayed equal to that of the most solemn festivals.§ A desire was shown to attract all Paris, if possible, to the place of execution. “The great bell of the church of Notre Dame swinging heavily,” says an historian, “to rouse the people all over Paris.”¶ And accordingly from every surrounding avenue, the people came flocking to the spot. The deep-toned reverberations of the bell made the work-

man quit his task, the student cast aside his books, the shop-keeper forsake his traffic, the soldier start from the guard-room bench—and already the close was filled with a dense crowd, which was continually increasing.* The hermit attired in the robes appropriated to obstinate heretics, bareheaded, and with bare feet, was led out before the doors of the cathedral. Traquil, firm, and collected, he replied to the exhortations of the confessors, who presented him with the crucifix, only by declaring that his hope rested solely on the mercy of God. The doctors of the Sorbonne, who stood in the front rank of the spectators, observing his constancy, and the effect it produced upon the people, cried aloud—“He is a man foredoomed to the fires of hell.”† The clang of the great bell, which all this while was rung with a rolling stroke, while it stunned the ears of the multitude, served to heighten the solemnity of that mournful spectacle. At length the bell was silent, and the martyr having answered the last interrogatory of his adversaries by saying that he was resolved to die in the faith of the Lord Jesus Christ, underwent his sentence of being “burnt by a slow fire.” And so, in the cathedral close of Notre Dame, beneath the stately towers erected by the piety of Louis the younger, amid the cries and tumultuous excitement of a vast population, died peaceably, a man whose name history has not deigned to transmit to us, “the hermit of Livry.”

While men were thus engaged in destroying the first confessors of Jesus Christ in France, God was raising up others gifted with ampler powers for his service. A modest student—a humble hermit—might be dragged to the stake, and Beda might almost persuade himself that the doctrine they proclaimed would perish with them. But Providence has resources which the world knows not of. The Gospel, like the fabled bird of antiquity, contains within itself a principle of life which the flames can never reach, and from the ashes in which it seemed to lie extinguished, it springs afresh, pure and vigorous as ever. Often, when the storm is at its height, when the fiery bolt of persecution appears to have laid the truth prostrate, and enduring, impenetrable darkness, to have closed over it,—even at that moment there comes a gleam of light, and announces a great deliverance at hand. So, when all earthly powers were leagued together in France to effect the ruin of the Reformation, God was preparing an instrument, apparently feeble, to maintain His rights at a future day, and with more than human intrepidity to defend His cause. Averting our eyes from the persecutions and cruelties which have succeeded each other so rapidly since Francis I. became the prisoner of Charles,—let us turn them on a child who shall hereafter be called forth to take his station as a leader of a mighty host in the holy warfare of Israel.

Among the inhabitants of the city and university of Paris who listened to the sound of the great bell, was a young scholar of sixteen, a native of Noyon, in Picardy, of middle stature,‡ and pale, and somewhat dark complexion, whose powerful and sagacious mind was indicated by the keenness and peculiar brightness of his eye, and the animated expression of his countenance. His dress, which was extremely neat, but perfectly unostentatious, corresponded to the modesty and decorum of his character.§ This young man, whose name was John Cauvin or Calvin, was a stu-

* Histoire des Egl. Ref. par Th. od. de Bèze, i. p. 4.

† Ibid.

‡ Statura fuit mediocri, colore sub pallido et nigricante, oculis ad mortem usque limpidis, c ubique ingenii sagacitatem testarentur. (Beze Vita Calvin.)

§ Cultu corporis neque cultu neque sordido sed qui singularem modestiam deceret. (Ibid.)

* Cette semence de Faber et de ses disciples, prise au grenier de Luther, germa dans le sot esprit d'un ermite qui se tenait près la ville de Paris. (Hist. Catholique de notre temps par S. Fontaine, Paris, 1562.)

† Lequel par les villages qu'il frequentait, sous couleur de faire ses quêtes, tenait posques heretiques. (Hist. Catholique de notre temps par S. Fontaine, Paris, 1562.)

‡ Histoire catholique de notre temps, par Fontaine.

§ Avec une grande ceremonie. (Histoire des Egl. Ref. par Theod. de Bèze, i. p. 4.)

dent at the college of La Marche, of which Mathurin Cordier, a man celebrated for his integrity, learning, and peculiar skill in the instruction of youth, was at that time the regent. Educated in all the superstitions of popery, the student of Noyon was blindly submissive to the Church, dutifully observant of all the practices she enjoined,* and fully persuaded that heretics well deserved the flames to which they were delivered. The blood which was then flowing in Paris was, in his eyes, an additional aggravation of the crime of heresy. But although, by natural disposition timid, and, to use his own words, soft and pusillanimous,† he was endowed with that uprightness of mind, and that generosity of heart which induce men to sacrifice everything to the convictions of their conscience. Vainly, therefore, were those appalling spectacles presented to him in his youth; vain was the example of the murderous flames kindled in the Place de Grève and in the close of Notre Dame, for the destruction of the faithful followers of the Gospel. The remembrance of such horrors could not, afterward, deter him from entering on that "new way," which seemed to lead only to the dungeon and the scaffold. In other respects the character of the youthful Calvin afforded indications of what he was hereafter to become. The austerity of his morals was the precursor of equal austerity in his doctrine, and the scholar of sixteen already gave promise of a man who would take up in earnest all that should be imparted to him, and would rigidly exact from others what, in his own case, he felt it so much a matter of course to perform. Silent and grave while attending on the college lectures, taking no pleasure in the sports and idle frolics which others pursued during the hours of recreation—shrinking in disgust from all participation in vice,‡ he sometimes censured the disorders of his fellow-pupils with severity—with a measure, even of acrimony.§ Accordingly, a canon of Noyon assures us that his companions had surnamed him the "accusative."|| He stood among them as the representative of conscience and duty,—so far was he from being in reality what some calumniators endeavoured to make him. The pale aspect, the piercing eye of a student of sixteen, already inspired his associates with more respect than the black gowns of their masters; and this boy from Picardy, low in stature, and timid in demeanour, who came day by day to take his seat on the benches of the college of La Marche, was, even then, by the seriousness of his conversation and sobriety of his life unconsciously discharging the office of a minister and a Reformer.

Nor was it in these particulars alone that the strippling of Noyon evinced his superiority to his peers. His extreme timidity sometimes restrained him from manifesting the antipathy he felt to vanity and to vice; but, in his studies he was already exerting all the force of his genius, and all the intensity of his will,—and any one who observed him might have predicted that his life would be consumed in labour. The facility of his comprehension was wonderful—while his class-fellows were advancing by painful steps, he was bounding lightly over the course—and the knowledge which others were long in acquiring superficially, was instantaneously seized by his youthful genius, and per-

* *Primo quidem, quum superstitionibus Papatus magis participant addictus essem.* (Calv. Pref. ad Psalm.)

† *Ego qui natura timido, molli et pusillo animo me esse fateor.* (Ibid.)

‡ *Summam in moribus affectabat gravitatem et paucorum hominum consuetudine utebatur.* (Remundi Hist. Heres. vii. 10.)

§ *Severus omnium in suis sodalibus censor.* (Beza Vita Calv.)

|| *Annales de l'Eglise de Noyon par Levasseur, Chanoine, p. 1168.*

manently impressed on his memory. His masters, therefore, were obliged to withdraw him from the ranks, and introduce him singly to the higher branches of learning.*

Among his fellow-students were the young men of the family of Mommor, a house reckoned among the first nobility of Picardy. John Calvin was intimately connected with these young noblemen, especially with Claude, who at a later period was abbot of St. Eloi, and to whom he dedicated his Commentary on Seneca. It was in their company that he had come to Paris. His father, Gerard Calvin, notary apostolic, and procurator-fiscal of the county of Noyon, secretary of the diocese, and proctor of the chapter,† was a man of judgment and ability, whose talents had raised him to offices which were sought after by the best families; and all the noblesse of the province, but particularly the illustrious family of Mommor, entertained the highest esteem for him.‡ Gerard, who resided at Noyon, had married a young woman from Cambrai, named Jane Leffranq, remarkable for her beauty, and worthy of esteem for her humble piety, by whom he had already had a son called Charles, when on the 10th of July, 1509, she gave birth to second son, who received the name of John, and was baptised in the church of St. Godebert.|| A third son, named Anthony, who died young, and two daughters, made up the entire family of the procurator-fiscal of Noyon.

Gerard Calvin, living in habits of familiar intercourse with the ecclesiastical dignitaries and chief men of the province, was desirous that his children should receive the same education as those of the highest rank. John, in whom he had perceived an early development of talent, was brought up with the children of the family of Mommor; he lived in the house as one of themselves, and shared in the lessons of the young Claude. The effect of early discipline and culture in such a family was to impart to his intellectual character a degree of refinement which otherwise it could scarcely have acquired.¶ He was afterward sent to the college of Capettes, an establishment within the city Noyon.** The child had but few recreations. That severity, which was one feature in the character of the son, found a place likewise in the temperament of the father. Gerard brought him up rigidly—from his earliest years he was obliged to bend to the inflexible rule of duty—which after a little while became habitual to him, and

* *Exculto ipsius ingenio quod ei jam tum erat acerrimum, ita profecit ut aëteris sodalibus in grammaticis curriculis ad dialecticos et aliarum quas vocant artium studium promoveretur.* (Beza.)

† *Levasseur, docteur de la Sorbonne, annales de l'Eglise Cathédrale de Noyon, p. 1151. Drelincourt, Defense de Calvin, p. 193.*

‡ *Erat is Gerardus non parvi iudicii et consilii homo, ideoque nobilissimæ ejus regionis plerisque carus.* (Beza.)

§ *On the spot where now stands a house, distinguished by the sign of the Stag.* (Desmay, Doct. de la Sorbonne. Vit. de Jean Calvin, heresiarche, p. 30. Levasseur, Ann. de Noyon, p. 1157.)

|| *The calumnious and extravagant tales which have been circulated in regard to the person of Calvin, may be traced to a very early origin. J. Levasseur, who was afterward dean of the chapter of Noyon, relates that when his mother brought him into the world, the birth of the child was preceded by the preternatural appearance of a swarm of large flies,—“a sure presage that he would be an evil speaker and slanderer.” (Annales de la Cathédrale de Noyon, p. 115.) These absurdities and others of the same stamp, which have been invented to the prejudice of the Reformer may be safely left to refute themselves without any effort on our part. In our own day, those among the Romish doctors who are not ashamed to employ the weapons of calumny, make a selection of these coarse and ridiculous stories, not daring to repeat them all; yet they are all of equal value.*

¶ *Domus vestra puer educatus, jisdem tecum studiis initiatus primam vitam et literarum disciplinam familiæ vestræ nobilissimæ acceptam refero.* (Calv. Pref. in Senecam ad Claudium.)

** *Desmay, Remarques, p. 31. (Drelincourt, Defense, p. 158.)*

thus the influence of the father counteracted that of the family of Mommor. Timid by nature, with something, as he tells us himself, of rustic bashfulness in his disposition,* and rendered still more diffident by his father's severity, John would often escape from the splendid mansion of his protectors, to bury himself in solitude and obscurity.† In hours of seclusion like this, his youthful spirit grew familiar with lofty conceptions. It appears that he sometimes went to the neighbouring village of Pont l'Évêque, where his grandfather inhabited a cottage,‡ and where other relatives also, who at a later period changed their name through hatred of the heresiarch, then offered a kindly welcome to the procurator-fiscal. But it was to study, chiefly, that young Calvin devoted his days. While Luther, who was to act upon the mass of the people, was brought up as a peasant's son, Calvin, ordained to act chiefly as a theologian and a reasoner, and to become the legislator of the renovated Church, received, even in his childhood, a more liberal education.§

A spirit of piety evinced itself betimes in the child's heart. One of his biographers tells us, that he was taught, while yet young, to pray in the open air, under the vault of heaven, a practice which helped to awaken within his soul the sentiment of an omnipresent Deity.|| But although Calvin may, even in his earliest years, have heard the voice of God addressed to his heart, no one in the city of Noyon was more exact than he in the observance of every rule established by the Church. Gerard, therefore, remarking the bent of his mind, conceived the design of devoting his son to theology.¶ The knowledge of his destination contributed undoubtedly to impress upon his mind that serious and theological cast by which it was afterward distinguished. His intellect was formed by nature to take a decided bias from the first and to nourish the most elevated thoughts at an early age. The report that he was a chorister boy at this time is admitted by his adversaries themselves to be destitute of foundation; but they confidently affirm that while yet a child he was seen in religious processions carrying, instead of a cross, a sword with a cross-shaped hilt.** “A presage,” they add, “of what he was one day to become.” “The Lord has made my mouth like a sharp sword,” says the servant of the Lord, in Isaiah. The same may be said of Calvin.

Gerard was poor: the education of his son was burthensome to him, and he wished to attach him irrevocably to the church. The Cardinal of Lorraine had been appointed coadjutor to the Bishop of Metz, when only four years old. It was then a common practice to bestow ecclesiastical titles and revenues upon children. Alphonso of Portugal, was created a cardinal by Leo the Tenth, at the age of eight: Odet de Châtillon received the same dignity from Clement the Seventh, at the age of eleven; and, at a later period, the celebrated Mother Angelica, of Port Royal, was made coadjutrix of that convent at the age of seven. Gerard, who died a faithful Catholic, was regarded with favour by Charles de Hangest, Bishop of Noyon, and his vicars-general. Accordingly, the chaplaincy of La Gesine having become vacant by the resignation of the incumbent, the bishop, on the 15th May, 1521, bestowed that benefice on John Calvin, whose age was then

nearly twelve: He was inducted by the chapter a week after. On the eve of Corpus Christi, the bishop solemnly cut the child's hair;* and by this ceremony of tonsure, John was invested with the clerical character, and became capable of entering into sacred orders, and holding a benefice without residing on the spot.

Thus it is ordered that Calvin in his childhood, should have personal experience of the abuses of the church of Rome. There was not a tonsured head in the kingdom more sincerely pious than the chaplain of La Gesine, and the thoughtful child, was himself perhaps a little astonished, at the operation performed by the bishop and vicars-general. But in the simplicity of his heart, he revered those exalted personages too highly to harbour the least suspicion regarding the lawfulness of his tonsure. He had enjoyed the distinction about two years, when Noyon was visited with a terrible pestilence. Several of the canons petitioned the chapter, that they might be allowed to quit the city. Already many of the inhabitants had been struck by the “great death;” and Gerard began to reflect with alarm, that his son John, the hope of his age, might, in a moment, be snatched from his tenderness by the scourge of God. The children of the Mommor family were going to Paris to continue their studies. This was the very opportunity that the procurator-fiscal had always desired for his son. Why should he separate John from his fellow-pupils? On the 5th of August, 1523, therefore, he presented to the chapter a petition that the young chaplain might have “liberty to go whithersoever he would, during the continuance of the plague, without losing his allowances; which was granted accordingly, until the feast of St. Remigius.”‡ Thus it was that John Calvin, at the age of fourteen, quitted his paternal home. Calumny must be intrepid indeed, to attribute his departure to other causes, and in sheer wantonness, provoke that disgrace which justly recoils on all who give currency to evil reports, after their falsehood has been demonstrated. It would appear, that on his arrival in Paris, Calvin was received into the house of one of his uncles, Richard Cauvin, who lived near the church of St. Germain l'Auxerrois. “And so, while flying from the plague,” says the canon of Noyon, “he encountered a more fatal pestilence.”

A new world opened itself to the young man in this metropolis of literature. He determined to profit by his fortune, applied himself to study, and made great progress in latinity. He became intimately acquainted with the writings of Cicero, and learned from that great master, to employ the language of the Romans with an ease, a purity, an idiomatic grace, which excited the admiration of his enemies themselves. But he also discovered in that language a store of wealth which he was afterward to transfer into his own.

Hitherto the Latin had been the sole language of literature. It was, and even to our days it has continued, the language of the Romish Church. The modern tongues of Europe were created—at least they were emancipated—by the Reformation. The exclusive agency of the priests was now at an end; the people were called upon to learn and to know for themselves. In this single fact was involved the abrogation of the language of the priests—the inauguration of the language of the people. It is not to the Sorbonne alone, it is not to a few monks, a few divines, a few men of

* Ego qui natura subrusticus. (Præf. ad Psalm.)

† Umbram et otium temper amavi... latebras catære. (Præf. ad Psalm.)

‡ “It is reported that his grandfather was a cooper.” (Dre-lincourt, p. 36. Levasseur ann. de Noyon, p. 1151.)

§ Henry, dans Leben Calvins, p. 29.

¶ Calvin's Leben von Fischer, Leipzig, 1794. The author does not quote the authority on which he relates this fact.

** Destinatus autem cum pater ab initio theologiæ studiis, quod in illa etiam tenera ætate mirum in modum religiosus esset. (Bezae, Vita Calv.)

*** Levasseur, ann. de Noyon, pp. 1159, 1173.

* Vie de Calvin, par Desmay, p. 31; Levasseur, p. 1158.

† The particulars here given rest on the testimony of the priest, and vicar-general Desmay, (Jean Calvin, heresiarche, p. 32.) and the canon Levasseur, (Ann. de Noyon, p. 1160.) who found them, as they assure us, in the registers of the chapter of Noyon. These Romish authors, therefore, refute the inventions or mistakes of Richelieu and other writers.—See the preface.

letters, that the new doctrine is to be addressed ; it is to the noble, to the burgher, to the artisan—all men now are to be preached to : nay, more—all men now are to become preachers ; wool-combers and knights, no less than curates and doctors. A new language, therefore, is wanted, or, at any rate, the ordinary language of the people must undergo a mighty transformation—must experience a happy deliverance from its shackles : drawn from the common uses of life, it must be indebted to a renovated Christianity for its patent of nobility. The Gospel, so long laid to sleep, is now awake again : it appeals to the nation at large ; it kindles the most generous affections of the soul ; it opens the treasures of heaven to a generation whose thoughts were all confined within the petty circle of the world below ; it agitates the masses ; it speaks to them of God, of man, of good and evil, of the pope, of the Bible, of a crown in heaven—it may be, also, of a scaffold upon earth. The popular idiom, which hitherto had been employed only by the chronicler and the minstrel, was summoned by the Reformation, to act a new part, and consequently to receive a new development. Society finds a new world rising up around it ; and for this new world there must needs be new languages. The Reformation freed the French language from the swaddling bands in which it had hitherto been confined, and reared it to a speedy and vigorous maturity. Since then, that language has had full possession of all the exalted privileges that belong to a dialect conversant with the operations of mind and the great concerns of heaven—privileges which, under the tutelage of Rome, it had never enjoyed. True it is that the people form their own language ; they, and they alone, invent those happy words—those figurative and energetic phrases, which give colouring and animation to human speech. But there are latent powers in language which they know not how to elicit, and which men of cultivated intellect can alone call into action. When the time arrived for Calvin to engage in discussion and controversy, he was forced by the exigency of the case to enrich his native tongue with modes of expression hitherto unknown to it—indicating the dependence, the connexion, the minute diversity of ideas, the transition from one to another, and the various steps in the process of logical deductions.

The elements of all this were already working in the brain of the young student of the college of La Marche. This child, who was to exert so powerful a mastery over the human heart, was destined to exhibit equal power in bending and moulding to his will the idiom which was to serve as his instrument. The French of Calvin eventually became the language of Protestant France, and when we speak of Protestant France, we speak of the most cultivated portion of the French nation ; since out of that portion arose those families of scholars and dignified magistrates, who contributed so much to the refinement of the national character—out of that portion arose also the society of Port Royal,* one of the great agents by which the prose and even the poetry of France have been modelled—a society which aimed at introducing into the Catholicism of the Gallican Church both the doctrine and the language of the Reformation, and failing in one of these objects, succeeded in the other ; for who can deny that Roman Catholic France had to learn from her antagonists among the Jansenists and Reformers, how to handle those weapons of style, without which it would have been impossible for her to maintain her ground against them ?†

* M. A. Arnauld, the grandfather of Mother Angelica and of all the Arnaulds of Port Royal, was a Protestant—see "Port Royal, par M. Sainte-Beuve."

† Etudes Liter. sur Calvin, par M. A. Sayers, Genève, 1839, art. iv. This work has been followed by similar inquiries regarding Farel, Viret, and Beza.

In the mean time, while the future Reformer of religion and of language, was ripening in the college of La Marche, all was in commotion around that young and thoughtful scholar, without his being at all affected by the mighty movements which agitated society. The flames that consumed the hermit and Pavanne, shed dismay over Paris. But the persecutors were not satisfied ; a system of terror was set on foot throughout the whole of France. The friends of the Reformation no longer dared to correspond with each other, lest their letters should be intercepted, and so betray to the vengeance of the tribunals, not only those who had written them, but those also to whom they were addressed.‡ One man, however, was bold enough to undertake the office of conveying intelligence of what was passing in Paris and in France, to the refugees at Basle—by means of an unsigned letter sewed up in his doublet. He escaped the scattered parties of arquebusers—the *marchausée* of the different districts, the strict examinations of the provosts and their lieutenants—and arrived at Basle with the doublet on his back and its hidden deposit untouched. The tidings of which he was the bearer, struck terror into the hearts of Toussaint and his friends. "It is piteous to hear of the cruelties they are committing yonder !"—exclaims Toussaint. A little before this, two Franciscan friars had arrived at Basle closely pursued by the officers of justice. One of these friars, named John Provost, had preached at Meaux, and had afterward been thrown into prison in Paris.‡ The accounts they brought from the capital, as well as from Lyons, through which city they had passed on their way, excited the deepest compassion in the minds of the refugees : "May our Lord visit them with his grace !" said Toussaint, writing to Farel ; "believe me when I tell you that at times I am in great anxiety and tribulation."

These excellent men did not lose heart, however. In vain were all the parliaments on the watch ; in vain did the spies of the Sorbonne and the monks creep into churches and colleges, and even into private families, to catch up any word of Evangelic doctrine that might be dropped there ; in vain did the king's *gens d'armes* patrol the highways to intercept everything that seemed to bear the impress of the Reformation ; these Frenchmen, thus hunted and trodden on by Rome and her myrmidons, had faith in better days to come ; and even now, the termination of what they called the Babylonish captivity, was greeted by them afar. "At length," said they, "the seventieth year will arrive—the year of deliverance, and liberty of spirit and of conscience will be ours."§ But the seventy years were to be extended to nearly three centuries, and unheard-of calamities were to be endured before these hopes should be realized. It was not in man, however, that the refugees put their trust. "They who have begun the dance," said Toussaint, "will not stop short in the middle of it." But they believed that the Lord "knew those whom he had chosen, and would accomplish the deliverance of His people, by the hand of His power."||

The Chevalier d'Esch, had actually tasted the mercy of deliverance. Being dismissed from the prison of Pont-à-Mousson, he had hastened to Strasburg ; but his stay there was short. For "the honour of God," wrote Toussaint to Farel, "immediately prevail on

§ "Not a person dares to write to me."—(Toussaint to Farel, 4th Sept. 1525. MS. of Neuchâtel.)

|| Toussaint to Farel, 4th Sept. 1525.

† Ibid, 21st July, 1525.

§ Sane venit annus septuagesimus, et tempus appetit ut tandem vindicemur in libertatem spiritus et conscientie. (Ibid.)

|| Sed novit Dominus quos elegerit. (Toussaint to Farel, 21 July, 1525.)

our worthy master,* the Chevalier, to return as quickly as possible, for our other brethren have need of such a leader." In fact the French refugees had now fresh cause of alarm. They were apprehensive that the dispute respecting the Lord's Supper, which had afflicted them so grievously in Germany, would find its way across the Rhine, and prove the source of new troubles in France. Francis Lambert, the monk of Avignon, after visiting Zurich and Wittenberg, had arrived at Metz, where he was regarded with a measure of distrust, for it was feared that he might introduce the sentiments of Luther, and by fruitless, and, as Toussaint calls them, "monstrous" controversies, impede the progress of the Reformation.† Esch, therefore, returned to Lorraine, to be again exposed to great dangers, "in common with all in that region, who were seeking the glory of Christ."‡

But Toussaint was not the man who would invite others to join the battle, while he himself kept aloof from it. Deprived of the comfort of daily intercourse with Ecolampadius, reduced to the society of an ill-nurtured priest, he had sought more communion with Christ, and had gained an accession of courage. If he could not return to Metz, might he not at least go to Paris! True, the smoke that ascended from the piles on which Pavanne and the hermit of Livry had been sacrificed was scarcely yet cleared away, and its dark shadow might seem to repel from the capital all whose faith bore any resemblance to their's. But if, as he had heard, the terror that prevailed in the colleges of Paris and amid her streets was such, that none dared even to name the Gospel, or the Reformation—was not this a reason why he should repair thither? Toussaint quitted Basle, and took up his abode within those perilous walls, heretofore the seat of revelry and licentious pleasure, now the stronghold of fanaticism. His desire was to pursue his studies in Christian literature, and at the same time to form a connexion with the brethren who were in the colleges, particularly with those who were in the college of Cardinal Lemoine, where Lefevre and Farel had taught.§ But he was not long left at liberty to prosecute his design. The tyranny of the parliamentary commissaries and the doctors of the Sorbonne now reigned supreme over the capital, and whosoever was obnoxious to these, was sure to be accused of heresy.|| A duke and an abbot, whose names are not upon record, denounced Toussaint as a heretic; and, one day, the king's sergeants arrested the young Lorrainer, and threw him into prison. Separated from all his friends, and treated as a criminal, Toussaint felt his helplessness more as a sinner than a captive. "O Lord!" cried he, "withdraw not thy Spirit from me, for without that Holy Spirit I am altogether carnal and a sink of iniquity." While his body was held in chains, his heart turned for solace to the remembrance of those who were still at large to struggle for the Gospel. There was Ecolampadius, his father, "whose work," says he, "we are in the Lord."¶ There was Lefevre, whom (obviously on account of his age,) he deemed "unmeet to bear the burthen of the Gospel;"** there was Roussel, "by whom he trusted that the Lord would do great

* Sinos magistrum in terris habere deceat," he adds. (Tossanus Farello, MS. of Neuchâtel.)

† Vereor ne aliquid monstri aliat. (Ibid. 27 Sept. 1525.)

‡ Audio etiam equitem periclitari, simul et omnes qui . . . fayent. (Ibid. 27 Dec. 1525.)

§ Fratres qui in collegio Cardinalis Monachi sunt te salutant. (Tossanus Farello, MS. of Neuchâtel.)

|| Regnante hic tyrannide commissariorum et theologorum. (Ibid.)

¶ Patrem nostrum cujus nos opus sumus in Domino. (Ibid.) This letter is without a date, but it appears to have been written shortly after the liberation of Toussaint, and it shows the thoughts which occupied him at that period.

** Faber est impar oneri evangelico ferendo. (Ibid.)

things;"* and Vaugris, who had manifested all the zeal "of the most affectionate brother," in his efforts to rescue him from the power of his enemies.† There was Farel also, to whom he wrote, "I entreat your prayers on my behalf, that I may not be faint in this conflict."‡ How effectual must he have found the repetition of those beloved names in awakening thoughts which mitigated the bitterness of his captivity—for he showed no signs of fainting. Death, it is true, seemed to be impending over his head, in a city where the blood of multitudes of his brethren was afterward to be poured out like water;§ and, on the other hand, offers of the most lavish kind were made by the friends of his mother, and of his uncle the Dean of Metz, as well as by the Cardinal of Lorraine, to induce him to recant.|| But his reply to such offers was—"I despise them all. I know that God is now putting me to the trial. I would rather endure hunger—I would rather be a very abject in the house of the Lord, than dwell with great riches in the palaces of the ungodly."¶ At the same time he made a clear and open confession of his faith; "I glory," he said, "in being called a heretic by those whose lives and doctrine I see to be directly opposite to those of Christ."** And the young man subscribed himself, "Peter Toussaint, unworthy of his name of Christian."

Thus, in the absence of the monarch, new attacks were levelled against the Reformation. Berquin, Toussaint, and many others were in bonds; Schuch, Pavanne, and the hermit of Livry, had been put to death; Farel, Lefevre, Roussel, and many other defenders of sound doctrine, were in exile; and the tongues of the most eloquent were chained. The light of the Gospel waxed dim; the storm roared around, bending, and shaking as if it would uproot that tree which the hand of God had so recently planted on the French soil.

To those humbler victims who had already fallen, others of more note were now to succeed. The enemy, failing in their efforts when directed against persons of distinction, had submitted to work from beneath, upward; hoping gradually to bring to bear on the more eminent in station the sentence of condemnation and death. It was a sort of countermarch which answered the purpose they had in view. Scarcely had the wind scattered the ashes with which persecution strewed the Place de Grève and the close of Notre Dame, when farther blows were struck. The excellent Messire Anthony Du Blet, the "negociateur" of Lyons, sunk under the persecutions of the enemies of the truth; as did also another disciple, Francis Moulin. No detailed account of their deaths has come down to us.†† Not stopping there, the persecutors proceeded to take a higher aim. One there was whose eminent rank placed her beyond their reach—but who might yet be stricken in the persons of those dear to her. This was the Duchess of Alençon, Michel d'Arande, her chaplain—for the sake of whom Margaret had dismissed her other preachers, and who was accustomed in her presence to publish a pure Gospel—was singled out for attack and threatened with imprisonment and death.‡‡ About the same time An-

* Per Rufum magna operabitur Dominus. (Ibid.)

† Fidelissimii fratris officio functum. (Tossanus Farello, MS. of Neuchâtel.)

‡ Commendo me vestris precibus, ne succumbam in hac militia. (Ibid.)

§ Me periclitari de vita. (Ibid.)

|| Offerbantur hic mihi conditiones amplissimæ. (Ibid.)

¶ Malo exsire et abjectus esse in domo Domini. (Ibid.)

** Hæc, hæc gloria mea quod habere hereticus ab his quorum vitam et locum video pugnare cum Christo. (Ibid.)

†† Perit Francis Molinus ac Dubletus. (Erasm. Epp. p. 1109.) Erasmus, in his letter addressed to Francis I., in July, 1526, names all those who, during the captivity of that prince, fell victims to the Romish fanatics.

‡‡ Periclitatus est Michael Arantius. (Ibid.)

thony Papillon, for whom the princess had obtained the office of Chief Master of Requests to the Dauphin, died suddenly, and a report generally prevalent even among the enemies, ascribed his death to poison.*

The persecution was spreading through the kingdom, and drawing nearer to the person of Margaret. The isolated champions of truth were, one after another, stretched upon the field. A few more such victories, and the soil of France would be purged from heresy. Underhand contrivances and secret practices took the place of clamour and the stake. The war was conducted in open day; but it was decided that it should also be carried on darkly and in secrecy. If, in dealing with the common people, fanaticism employs the tribunal and the scaffold, it has in reserve poison and the dagger for those of more note. The doctors of a celebrated school are but too well known for having patronised the use of such means; and kings themselves have fallen victims to the steel of the assassins. But if France has had in every age its *Seides*, it has also had its Vincents de Paul and its Penelons. Strokes falling in darkness and silence were well fitted to spread terror on all sides; and to this perfidious policy and these fanatical persecutions, in the interior of the kingdom, were now added the fatal reverses experienced beyond the frontier. A dark cloud was spread over the whole nation. Not a family, especially among the higher classes, but was either mourning for a father, a husband, or a son, who had fallen on the plains of Italy,† or trembling for the liberty or life of one of its members. The signal misfortunes which had burst upon the nation diffused everywhere a leaven of hatred against the heretics. The people, the parliament, the Church, and even the throne, were joined hand in hand.

Was there not enough to bow the heart of Margaret in the defeat at Pavia, the death of her husband, and the captivity of her brother? Was she doomed to witness the final extinction of that soft light of the Gospel in which her heart had found such joy? News arrived from Spain which added to the general distress. Mortification and sickness had reduced the haughty Francis to the brink of the grave. If the king should continue a captive, or die, and the regency of his mother be protracted for some years, there was apparently an end of all prospect of a Reformation. "But when all seems lost," observed, at a later period, the young scholar of Noyon, "God interposes to deliver and guard His church in His own wondrous way."‡ The Church of France, which was as if travelling in birth, was to have a brief interval of ease before its pains returned upon it; and God made use of a weak woman—one who never openly declared for the Gospel—in order to give to the Church this season of rest. Margaret herself, at this time, thought more of saving the king and the kingdom, than of delivering the comparatively unknown Christians, who were yet resting many hopes upon her interference.§ But under the dazzling surface of human affairs, God often hides the mysterious ways in which He rules His people. A generous project was suggested to the mind of the Duchess of Alençon; it was, to cross the sea, or traverse the Pyrenees, and rescue Francis I. from the power of Charles V. Such was the object to which her thoughts were henceforth directed.

Margaret announced her intention, and France hailed

it with grateful acclamation. Her genius, her great reputation, and the attachment existing between herself and her brother, helped much to counterbalance, in the eyes of Louisa and of Duprat, her partiality for the new doctrines. All eyes were turned upon her, as the only person capable of extricating the nation from its perilous position. Let Margaret in person, make an appeal to the powerful emperor and his ministers, and employ the admirable genius with which she was gifted, in the effort to give liberty to her brother and her king.

Yet very various feelings existed among the nobility and the people in the prospect of the Duchess trusting herself in the centre of the enemies' councils, and among the stern soldiery of the Catholic king. All admired; but without sharing in her confidence and devotedness; her friends had fears for her, which, in the result were but too near being realized: but the evangelical party were full of hope. The king's captivity had been to them the occasion of hitherto unprecedented severities—his restoration to liberty they expected would put a period to those rigours. Let the king once find himself beyond the Spanish frontier, and the gates of those prison houses and castles, wherein the servants of God's word were immured, would instantly be set open. Margaret was more and more confirmed in a project to which she felt herself drawn by so many and various motives.

My heart is fixed; and not the heavens above
From its firm purpose can my spirit move;
Nor hell, with all its powers, my course withstand,
For Jesus holds its keys within his hand.*

Her woman's heart was strengthened with that faith which overcomes the world, and her resolution was irrevocably settled. Preparations were accordingly made for her journey.

The archbishop of Embrun, afterward cardinal of Tournon, and the president of Selves, had already repaired to Madrid to treat for the ransom of the king. They were placed under the direction of Margaret, as was also the Bishop of Tarbes, afterward Cardinal of Grammont; full powers being given to the Princess. At the same time Montmorency, afterward so hostile to the Reformation, was despatched in haste to Spain to solicit a safe-conduct for the king's sister.† The Emperor at first hesitated, alleging that it was for his ministers to arrange terms. "One hour's conference between your majesty, the king my master, and Madame d'Alençon," remarked Selves, would forward matters more than a month's discussion between the diplomatists."‡ Margaret, impatient to attain her object, set out unprovided with a safe-conduct, accompanied by a splendid retinue.§ She took leave of the court and passed through Lyons, taking the direction of the Mediterranean; but on her road she was joined by Montmorency, who was the bearer of letters from Charles, guaranteeing her liberty for a period of three months. She reached Aigues-Mortes,|| and at that port the sister of Francis the First embarked on board a vessel prepared for her. Led by Providence into Spain rather for the deliverance of nameless and oppressed Christians, than for the liberation of the powerful monarch of France, Margaret committed herself to that sea whose waves had borne her brother when taken prisoner after the fatal battle of Pavia.

* Marguerites de la Marguerite des princesses, tom. i. p. 126.

† Memoires de Du Bellay, p. 124.

‡ Histoire de France, par Garnier, tom. xxiv.

§ Pour taster au vif la volonté de l'esleu empereur... Madame Marguerite, duchesse d'Alençon, tres-notablement accompagnée de plusieurs ambassadeurs... (Les gestes de Francoise de Valois, par E. Dolet, 1540.)

|| Jam in itinere erat Margarita, Francisci soror... e fossis Marianis solvens, Barcinonem primum, deinde Cesar Augustum appulerat. (Belcarius, Rerum Gallicarum Comment. p. 565.)

* "Perit Papilio non sine gravi suspicione veneni," says Erasmus. (Ibid.)

† Gaillard Histoire de Francois Ier, tom. 2, p. 255.

‡ Nam habet Deus modum, quo electos suos mirabiliter custodiat, ubi omnia perditur. (Calvinus in Ep. ad Rom. xi. 2.)

§... Beneficio illustrissima Ducus Alanconia. (Toussaint à Parel.)



66

THE

ERRORS OF ROMANISM

TRACED TO

THEIR ORIGIN IN HUMAN NATURE.

BY RICHARD WHATELY, D. D.

||
ARCHBISHOP OF DUBLIN.

The thing that hath been, it is that which shall be; and that which is done, is that which shall be done: and there is no new thing under the sun. ECCLES. i. 9.

... γιγνόμενα μὲν, καὶ αἰεὶ ἰσόμενα, ἕως ἂν Ἡ ΑΥΤΗ ΦΥΣΙΣ ΑΝΘΡΩΠΩΝ ἢ μᾶλλον δὲ καὶ ἡσυχαιότερα, καὶ τοῖς εἶδεσι διηλλαγμένα, ὥς ἂν ἑκασταὶ αἱ μεταβολαὶ τῶν ξυντυχίων ἰφιστῶνται. Thucyd. b. iii. ch. 82.

PHILADELPHIA:

JAMES M. CAMPBELL & CO., 98 CHESTNUT STREET.

NEW YORK: SAXTON & MILES, 205 BROADWAY.

STEREOTYPED BY C. W. MURRAY & CO.

.....
1843.

THE HISTORY OF THE
CITY OF BOSTON

FROM THE FIRST SETTLEMENT
TO THE PRESENT TIME
BY SAMUEL JOHNSON
OF NEW-YORK

IN TWO VOLUMES.
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TO THE
REVEREND JOSEPH BLANCO WHITE, M.A.

OF ORIEL COLLEGE, OXFORD.

MY DEAR FRIEND—

I AM aware that it is a violation of established forms to take the liberty of dedicating this work to you, without previously applying for your permission.

The ground on which I petition for your indulgence is, my fear that your modesty might have led you, if not to withhold your consent altogether, yet to prohibit me from speaking of you in the manner I could wish. Not that it is my design to make this dedication the vehicle of a formal panegyric; or to comment either on that part of your character and conduct which is before the public, and which it would be an affront to my readers to suppose them not to know and admire; or again, on the particulars of our private friendship, in which they have no concern. But I feel bound to take this occasion of acknowledging publicly one particular advantage which I have derived from my intercourse with you: I am indebted to you for such an insight into the peculiarities of the church of Rome, as I could never have gained, either from any one who had not been originally, or from any one who still continued, a member of that church. Your intimate acquaintance with it, has enlarged and cleared the view I had long since taken of its system; as being the gradual, spontaneous growth of the human heart;—as being, what may be called, in a certain sense, the *religion of nature*; viz., such a kind of religion as “the natural man” is disposed to frame for himself.

One who has both been so deeply versed as yourself in the learning of that church, and has also had the opportunities you have enjoyed, of not merely forming a judgment of the apparent *tendencies* of each part of the system, but observing how it *actually* works, and what are the practical results—and who has subsequently been enabled, under the divine blessing, to embrace a purer faith—must, unless he fall far short of you in candour or intelligence, be much better qualified than either a Romanist, or one brought up in our church, to estimate the true character of the two religions. As, on the one hand, (like Moses, who was “skilled in all the learning of the Egyptians,”) you may be reckoned, as far as knowledge is concerned, an eminent Roman Catholic divine, so, on the other hand, you may, in one point of view, be considered as more eminently Protestant, than most members of our church. For I cannot, of course, be certain, of others, or even of myself, that, if we had, like you, been educated in the Romish church, we should have escaped, like you, from that spiritual bondage;—that we might not have either continued enslaved to her tenets, or have been plunged irrecoverably into that gulf of Atheism, to the brink of which she brings her votaries: which she does, as you have well pointed out, by sedulously presenting, as the sole alternative, implicit devotion to her decrees, or, no religion at all.

It is, as I have said, impossible to pronounce with certainty, of any one bred a Protestant, that he would have *become* so, had he been educated in the Romish system: but it might safely be pronounced, that I should *not* have done so, were I one of those who stigmatize you as an apostate, for renouncing and testifying against the system in which you were brought up. I should then deserve to be characterized as Protestant only by the accidents of country and kindred.

You are doubtless familiar however with the principle long since noticed by the great historian of Greece, and ready to make allowance for its operation, that “most men are slow to give another credit for feeling nobler sentiments, and acting on higher motives, than any that have ever found a place in their own breasts.”*

* ———— εἴτι ὑπὲρ τὴν ἑαυτοῦ φύσιν ἀκούει. μέχρι γὰρ τοῦδε ἀνεκτοὶ οἱ ἑταῖροί εἰσι περὶ ἐτέρων λεγόμενοι, ἕς ὅσον ἂν καὶ αὐτὸς ἕκαστος οἴηται ἱκανὸς εἶναι δεῖσθαι τι ὧν ἥκουσε. τῷ δὲ ὑπερβάλλοντι αὐτῶν φθινοῦντι, ἥδη καὶ ἀπιστοῦσιν. Thueyd. b. ii. ch. 35.

Posterity nevertheless will, I am convinced, do justice to your character, and appreciate your services.

Diram qui contudit *Hydram*,
Comperit invidiam supremo fine domari.

You have been led, by the circumstances in which you were placed, and of which you have taken due advantage, to examine different systems carefully, and to make up your mind on mature deliberation. And the same circumstances which induced you to observe, and enabled you to estimate, the *differences* between Romanists and Protestants, have also qualified you to notice the points of *resemblance* in all men; to recognize in all, of whatever country or persuasion, the tendency towards each of those Romish errors which you have seen magnified and exaggerated in that church;—to detect the minutest drop, in the most disguised mixture, of those poisons which you have seen in their rectified and concentrated form, operating to produce their baneful results.

With a view, therefore, to the particular object of the present work, it must have been very much my own fault, if I have not derived from your conversation the most valuable suggestions and corrections. I only regret that you did not yourself undertake the task, for which no one else can be, on the whole, so well qualified.

As it is, I have only to express thus publicly my sense of the advantages I have enjoyed, and to beg your favourable acceptance of this dedication of a work, to which you will thus have, indirectly, so much contributed. Should I be enabled, by placing in a somewhat new light, questions which have been long since copiously discussed, to awaken the attention even of a few, whether Romanists or Protestants, to the faults, either existing, or likely to arise, among them, you will, I am sure, rejoice to have had a share in contributing to such an effect, and to have your name connected with a work which shall have produced it. At all events, you will, I am sure, give me credit for good intentions: nor will you, I trust, be either surprised or mortified, if I should have to encounter, on this occasion especially, (the views set forth being far from flattering to human nature,) some of that opposition of various kinds, and from various quarters, with which many of my former publications have been assailed, and from which yours have not been exempt.

To myself this is not a matter of wonder, or of dissatisfaction. Not that I have any wish to excite controversy; or any intention of ever engaging in it: but he who endeavours to inculcate any neglected truths, or to correct any prevailing errors, must be prepared, if he succeed in attracting any share of public attention, to encounter more or less of opposition. It would be most extravagant to expect to convince at once, if at all, every one, or even many, who before thought differently. If, therefore, in such a case, he meet with no opposition, he may take that as a sign either that he has excited no interest at all, or that he was mistaken as to the state of the prevailing opinions among others, or that his own have not been fully understood. Opposition does not indeed, of itself, prove either that he is right, or that he is wrong: but, at all events, the discussion which results, is likely, if conducted with temper and sincerity, to lead to the ascertainment of the truth.

And it is worth remarking, that in many cases the opposition will appear even greater than it really is. For as the great majority of those who had before thought differently from an author, will, in general, continue to think so, and of course will be prepared, at once, loudly to censure him; so those, whether many or few, who are induced to alter, or to doubt, their former opinion, will seldom be found very forward to proclaim the change, at least till after a considerable interval. Even the most candid and modest, if they are also cautious, will seldom decidedly make up their minds anew, except slowly and gradually.

Hence it often happens, I believe, that while men are led, naturally enough, to estimate the effect produced by any work, from the comparative numbers and weight of those who applaud, and those who censure it, it shall, in fact, have produced little or no effect on either: those whom it may have really influenced, in bringing them to reconsider their former opinions, being rather disposed, for the most part, to say little about it.

Such as have maintained notions at variance with mine, in Christian meekness and candour, may be assured of my perfect good-will towards them, and of my earnest wish that whichever of us is in the right, may succeed in establishing his conclusions. As for any one who may have assailed, or who may hereafter assail me, with unchristian bitterness, or with sophistical misrepresentation, much as I of course lament that such weapons should ever be employed at all, I can truly say, (and I doubt not you will say the same for yourself,) that I had far rather see them employed against me, than on my side. There is also this consolatory reflection for any one who is so attacked: that weak or sophistical arguments are then the most likely to be resorted to, when better cannot be found;—that one who indulges in invective, affords some kind of presumption, that he at least can find no such reasons as are even to himself satisfactory;—and that misrepresentation is the natural resource of those who find the positions they are determined to oppose, to be such, that if fairly stated, and fully understood, they could not be overthrown. Such attacks, therefore, tend rather, as far as they go, to support, than to weaken, in the judgment of rational inquirers, the cause against which they are directed.

You may have observed too, that there are some particular charges often brought, without proof, against an author, which are not only unfounded, but are occasioned by qualities the very reverse of those imputed. You may have heard a writer censured as “sophistical,” precisely because he is *not* sophistical; and as “dogmatical,” *because* he is not dogmatical. With a work that is really sophistical, the obvious procedure is, either to pass it by with contempt, or, if the fallacies seem worth noticing, to detect and expose them. But if men find the arguments opposed to them to be such, that they cannot *prove* them sophistical, it is yet easy (and it is not unnatural) at least to *call* them so. The phrase “sophistical arguments,” accordingly, is often in reality equivalent to, “such as I would fain answer, but cannot.” Not that in such cases the imputation is necessarily insincere, or even necessarily false. One whose reasoning powers are not strong, may really suspect, though he cannot point it out, a latent fallacy in some argument which leads to a conclusion he objects to; and it may so happen that his suspicion is right, and that a fallacy may exist which he has not the skill to detect. But then, he is not justified in *pronouncing* the argument sophistical, till he is prepared to make good the charge. A verdict without evidence must always be unjust, whether the accused be, in fact, innocent or guilty.

Dogmatism again, to speak strictly, consists in assertions without proof. But one who does really thus dogmatize, you may have often seen received with more toleration than might have been anticipated. Those who think with him, often derive some degree of satisfaction from the confirmation thus afforded to their opinion, though not by any fresh argument, yet by an implied assent to such as have convinced themselves: those again who think differently, feel that the author has merely declared his sentiments, and (provided his language be not insolent and overbearing) has left them in undisturbed possession of their own. Not so, one who supports his opinions by cogent reasons: he seems, by so doing, to call on them either to refute the arguments, or to alter their own views. And however mildly he may express himself, they are sometimes displeased at the molestation thus inflicted, by one who is not content merely to think as he pleases, leaving others to do the same, but seems aiming to compel others (the very word “cogent,” as applied to reasons, seems to denote this character) to think with him, whether they like it or not. And this displeasure one may often hear vented in the application of the title “dogmatical;” which denotes, when so applied, the exact reverse of dogmatism; viz., that the author is not satisfied with simply declaring his own opinions; (which is really dogmatism,) but, by the reasoning he employs, calls on others to adopt them.

I am aware, however, that truth may be advocated, and by sound arguments, in a needlessly offensive form. It has always been my aim to avoid, as far as may be without a sinful compromise of truth, every thing tending to excite hostile feelings, either within or without the pale of my own church. And I cherish a hope, that I may have done something in the present work towards softening the feelings of the candid among Romanists and Protestants towards each other. I have not indeed attempted this, by labouring to extenuate or explain away the

erroneousness of the Romish tenets and practices; because this would imply, according to my views, a sacrifice of truth. But to trace those errors to the principles of our common nature, and, while we strongly censure the faults themselves, to acknowledge our own ever-besetting danger of falling into the like, is, I trust, a more conciliating, as I am convinced it is a truer view of the subject, than to cast the whole burden of blame on a particular church, and to exult in our own supposed perfection.

You will recognize in the following pages a series of discourses delivered before the University, and the whole or the greater part of which you heard. I have inserted passages in several parts; but have made, on the whole, little other alterations. It would not have been difficult to give the work more of a systematic form, and to adopt a style more removed from that which is suited to delivery: but I was inclined to think, that such alterations would have had no tendency to make the subject better understood, and might rather have lessened the interest of it. I accordingly determined to print the whole very nearly as it was delivered.

The views I have taken are not anticipated in any work I am acquainted with. Several writers indeed have glanced slightly, incidentally and partially, at the principle here attempted to be established, or have advanced some steps towards it. Bp. Lavington has compared a part of the Romish errors with those of some modern enthusiasts; and Middleton, another part, with those of the ancient Pagans; but they have stopped short of the general conclusion to which my own observations and reflections, combined with yours, have led me.

I have, however, availed myself, in several instances, of the suggestions of various writers; to whom, as far as my memory would serve, I have made reference. It so happens that some of these, including yourself, are living authors whom I have the pleasure of knowing personally: and I am not sure that I may not, on that ground, incur censure for citing them with approbation; as if I must unavoidably be biassed by partial feelings. I would rather, however, incur the suspicion of such partiality, than of not daring to do that justice to a friend which would be due to a stranger. And it should in fairness be remembered, that though it is very possible to overrate a friend, yet, as it is also possible that a writer of real merit may possess personal friends, so, it would be hard that this should necessarily operate to his disadvantage, by precluding them from bearing just testimony in his favour.

Once more I intreat you to accept my apology for the liberty I have taken, and to believe me,

With deep-felt esteem and veneration,

Your faithful and affectionate friend,

RICHARD WHATELY.

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THE ERRORS OF ROMANISM

TRACED TO
THEIR ORIGIN IN HUMAN NATURE.

CHAP. I. SUPERSTITION.

§. 1. THERE are few things probably that appear at the first glance more strange to a reader of the Old Testament, than the frequent lapses of the Israelites into idolatrous and other superstitious practices;—the encouragement or connivance often granted to these by such of the rulers as were by no means altogether destitute of piety;—and the warm commendations which are accordingly bestowed on such of their kings as avoided and repressed these offences. Their law had been delivered and its authority maintained with such strikingly awful solemnity, and its directions were so precise and minute, that a strict conformity to it appears, to us, hardly to amount to a virtue, and the violation of it, to an almost incredible infatuation. It is not without a considerable mental effort that we can so far transport ourselves into the situation of persons living in so very different a condition of society from our own, as to estimate duly the nature and the force of the temptations to which they were exposed, to make fair allowance for their backslidings, and to bestow adequate applause on those of them who adhered steadfastly to the divine commands.

The conduct of Hezekiah, for instance, who “removed the high-places, and brake the images, and cut down the groves, and broke in pieces the brazen serpent that Moses had made; (for unto those days the children of Israel did burn incense to it;) is likely perhaps to strike some readers as so far from being any heroic effort of virtue, that the chief wonder is, how his predecessors and their subjects could have been so strangely remiss and disobedient, as to leave him so much to do. Things however being in such a state, the duty of remedying at once the

abuses which had grown up, is apt to strike us, at first sight, as so very obvious and imperative, that we are hardly disposed to give him due praise for fulfilling it. But the more attentively we consider the times in which he lived, and the peculiar circumstances in which he began his reign—the successor of an idolatrous prince, and reigning over an idolatrous people—the higher admiration we shall feel for his exemplary obedience to the divine law.

It should be remembered, that not only the avowed violators of the first commandment, but those also, who, though they transgressed the second, yet professed themselves the worshippers of Jehovah exclusively, would be likely to tax with *impiety* that unsparing reform of abuses, which even those former kings, who are described as “doing that which was right in the sight of the Lord,” had yet not ventured to undertake. Indeed his enemy, Sennacherib, reproaches him on this very ground: “If ye say, We trust in the Lord our God, is not that he whose high-places and whose altars Hezekiah hath taken away?”

But many, even of those who perhaps endured his putting a stop to the irregular and unauthorized worship of Jehovah in those high-places, might yet be scandalized at his venturing to destroy the brazen serpent; an emblem framed originally by divine command, and which had been the appointed and supernatural means of a miraculous deliverance. If such a relic were even *now* in existence, and its identity indisputable, it would not be contemplated, by any believer in the Mosaic history, without some degree of veneration. How much stronger would that veneration be in the mind of an Israelite, and

of one in that ignorant and semi-barbarous age. Yet one of these was found sufficiently enlightened to estimate the evil, and bold enough to use the effectual remedy. The king is not content to forbid this idolatrous use of the image, or even to seclude it carefully from the public gaze; it had been an occasion of superstition, and he "brake it in pieces;" applying to it at the same time the contemptuous appellation of "piece of brass,"* in order to destroy more completely that reverence which had degenerated into a sin.

Men are apt, not only in what regards religion, but in respect of *all* human concerns, to contemplate the faults and follies of a distant age or country, with barren wonder, or with self-congratulating contempt; while they overlook, because they do not search for, perhaps equal, and even corresponding vices and absurdities in their own conduct. And in this way it is that the religious, and moral, and political lessons, which history may be made to furnish, are utterly lost to the generality of mankind. Human nature is always and every where, in the most important points, substantially the same; circumstantially and externally, men's manners and conduct are infinitely various, in various times and regions. If the former were not true—if it were not for this fundamental agreement—history could furnish no instruction; if the latter were not true—if there were not these apparent and circumstantial differences—hardly any one could fail to profit by that instruction. For few are so dull as not to learn something from the records of past experience, in cases precisely similar to their own. But, as it is, much candour and diligence are called for in tracing the analogy between cases which, at the first glance, seem very different—in observing the workings of the same human nature under all its various disguises—in recognizing, as it were, the same plant in different stages of its growth, and in all the varieties resulting from climate and culture, soil and season.

But to any one who *will* employ this diligence and candour, this very dissimilarity of circumstances renders the history of past times and distant countries even the more instructive; because it is easier to form an impartial judgment concerning them. The difficulty is to apply that judgment to the cases before us. In

contemplating human transactions, the law of optics is reversed; we see the most indistinctly the objects which are close around us; we view them through the discoloured medium of our own prejudices and passions; the more familiar we are with them, the less truly do we estimate their real colours and dimensions. Transactions and characters the most unconnected with ourselves—the most remote from all that presents itself in our own times, and at home, appear before us with all their deformities unveiled, and display their intrinsic and essential qualities. We are even liable to attend so exclusively to this intrinsic and abstract character of remote events, as to make too *little* allowance (while in recent cases we make too much) for the circumstances in which the agents were placed; and thence to regard as instances of almost incredible folly or depravity, things not fundamentally very different from what is passing around us.

And as the law of optics is in this case reversed, our procedure must be reversed accordingly. We judge of the nature of distant objects, by an examination of those near at hand, whose similarity to the others we have ascertained. So also must we on the contrary learn to judge impartially of our own conduct and character, and of the events of our own times, by finding parallels to these in cases the most remote and apparently dissimilar; of which, for that reason, our views are the most distinct, and our judgments the most unbiassed; and then, conjecturing what a wise and good man, ten centuries hence, would be likely to pronounce of us.

The errors and the vices, among the rest, the superstitions of the Israelites, and again of our ancestors under the Romish Church, did not, we may be sure, appear to them in the same light that they now do to us. No one believes his own opinions to be erroneous, or his own practices superstitious; few are even accustomed to ask themselves, "Is there not a lie in my right hand?" Since therefore our predecessors did not view their doctrines and practices in the same light that we do, this should lead us, not to regard them with contemptuous astonishment and boastful exultation, but rather to reflect that, like them, we also are likely to form a wrong estimate of what is around us and familiar to our minds: it should teach us to make use of the examples of others, not for the nourishment of pride, but for the detection of our own faults.

* "He called it Nehushtan." 2 Kings xviii. 4.

We are taught that Satan “transformeth himself into an angel of light; but he does not use always and every where the same disguise; as soon as one is seen through, he is ready to assume another; and it is in vain that we detect the artifice which has done its work on other men, unless we are on our guard against the same tempter under some new transformation; assuming afresh among ourselves the appearance of some angel of light.

§. 2. These reflections are perhaps the more particularly profitable at the present time, on account of the especial attention which has of late been directed to the superstitions, and other errors and enormities, of the Romish church. Unless such principles as I have adverted to are continually present to the mind, the more our thoughts are, by frequent discussion, turned to the errors of that church, and to the probability, under this or that conjuncture of circumstances, of proselytes joining that church or being gained over from it, the less shall we be on our guard against the *spirit* of popery in the human heart—against similar faults in some different shapes; and the more shall we be apt to deem every danger of the kind effectually escaped, by simply keeping out of the pale of that corrupt church.

It is indeed in *all* cases profitable to contemplate the errors of other men, if we do this “not high-minded but fearful;”—not for the sake of uncharitable triumph, but with a view to self-examination; even as the Corinthians were exhorted by their apostle to draw instruction from the backslidings of the Israelites, which were recorded, he says, “for their admonition,” to the intent that they might not fall into corresponding sins, and that “he who thought he stood might take heed lest he fell.” In all cases, I say, *some* benefit may be derived from *such* a contemplation of the faults of others; but the errors of the Romanists, if examined with a view to our own improvement, will the more effectually furnish this instruction, inasmuch as those errors, more especially, will be found to be the natural and spontaneous growth of the human heart; they are (as I have elsewhere remarked) not so much the effect, as the cause, of the Romish system of religion. The peculiar character of Romanism, in this respect, will be best perceived by contrasting it with Mahometism; this latter system was framed, and introduced, and established, within a very short space of time, by a deliberately designing im-

postor; who did indeed most artfully accommodate that system to man’s nature, but did not wait for the gradual and spontaneous operations of human nature to produce it. He reared at once the standard of proselytism, and imposed on his followers a code of doctrines and laws ready framed for their reception. The tree which he planted did indeed find a congenial soil; but he planted it at once, with its trunk full-formed and its branches displayed: the Romish system, on the contrary, rose insensibly, like a young plant from the seed, making a progress scarcely perceptible from year to year, till at length it had fixed its root deeply in the soil, and spread its baneful shade far around.

*Infecunda quidem, sed læta et fortia surgunt;
Quippe solo natura subest;*

It was the natural offspring of man’s frail and corrupt character, and it needed no sedulous culture. No one accordingly can point out any precise period at which this “mystery of iniquity”—the system of Romish corruptions—first began, or specify any person who introduced it: no one in fact ever did introduce any such system: the corruptions crept in one by one; originating for the most part with an ignorant and depraved *people*, but con- nived at, cherished, consecrated and successfully established, by a debased and worldly-minded ministry; and modified by them just so far as might best favour the views of their profligate ambition. But the system thus gradually compacted, was not the deliberate contrivance of any one man or set of men, adepts in priestcraft, and foreseeing and designing the entire result. The corruptions of the Romish church were the natural offspring of human passions, not checked and regulated by those who ought to have been ministers of the Gospel, but who, on the contrary, were ever ready to indulge and encourage men’s weakness and wickedness, provided they could turn it to their own advantage. The good seed “fell among thorns;” which, being fostered by those who should have been occupied in rooting them out, not only “sprang up with it,” but finally choked and overpowered it.

§. 3. The character accordingly of the Romish corruptions is precisely such as the history of that church would lead us to anticipate.

I. One of the greatest blemishes, for instance, in the church of Rome, is that

to which I have already alluded, superstitious worship; a fault which every one must acknowledge to be the spontaneous and every-where-abundant produce of the corrupt soil of man's heart. The greater part indeed of the errors of Romanism, which I shall hereafter notice under separate heads, may be considered as so many branches of superstition, or at least inseparably connected with it; but there are besides many superstitions more strictly so called, with which that system is justly chargeable; such as invocation of saints, and adoration of images and relics; corresponding to that idolatrous practice which King Hezekiah so piously and boldly suppressed.

II. The desire again of prying into mysteries relative to the invisible world, but which have no connexion with practice, is another characteristic of human nature, (on which I have elsewhere offered some remarks,*) and one to which may be traced the immense mass of presumptuous speculations about things unrevealed, respecting God and his designs, and of idle legends of various kinds respecting wonder-working saints, which have disgraced the Romish church. The sanction afforded to these, by persons who did not themselves believe them, is a fault referable to another head, (to be mentioned subsequently,) as springing from a dishonest pursuit of the expedient rather than the true: but it is probable that the far greater part of such idle tales had not their *origin* in any deep and politic contrivance, but in men's natural passion for what is marvellous, and readiness to cater for that passion in each other;—in the universal fondness of the human mind for speculative knowledge respecting things curious and things hidden, rather than (what alone the Scriptures supply) practical knowledge respecting things which have a reference to our wants.

Equally natural to man, and closely connected, as will hereafter be shown, with the error just mentioned, is the disposition to trust in *vicarious* worship and obedience—the desire and hope of transferring from one man to another the merit of good works, and the benefit of devotional exercises; so as to enable the mass of the people to serve God, as it were, by proxy. On this point I have elsewhere† offered some remarks, (which are expanded and followed up in the present work,)

with a view to show that it is the main cause, rather than the consequence, of the whole Romish system of priestcraft; one of the great features of which is, the change of the very office of the Christian priest, Πρεσβύτερος, into that of the Jewish or Pagan priest, in the other sense of the word, answering to ἱερεύς. I observed that the people were very easily deceived in this point, because they were eagerly craving for deception;—that the same disposition had manifested itself no less strongly among the Pagan nations;—and that the same tendency is, and ever will be, breaking out in one shape or another, among Protestants, and in every form of religion.

III. No less characteristic of the natural man, is a vicious preference of supposed expediency, to truth; and a consequent readiness to employ false reasons for satisfying the minds of the people;—to connive at, or foster, supposed salutary or innocent delusions; whence arose the sanction given to all the monstrous train of pious frauds, legendary tales, and lying miracles, for which the Romish church has been so justly stigmatized. And as it is notorious that the ancient lawgivers and philosophers encouraged (for political purposes) a belief in the mythological fables which they themselves *disbelieved*, there can be no doubt that this disposition also is not to be attributed to the church of Rome as its *cause*, but that *that* church merely furnishes one set of instances of its *effects*; and that, consequently, an earnest watchfulness against those effects is to be inculcated, not merely on such as may be in danger of being misled into Romanism, but on every descendant of Adam.

IV. Again, no *one* perhaps of the errors of the Romish church has exposed her to greater censure, or has been productive of more mischievous results, than the claim to infallibility;—the investing, without any sufficient grounds, weak and fallible men with an attribute of Deity. Now the ready acquiescence in such an extravagant claim (which never could have been maintained had not men been found thus ready to acquiesce in it) may easily be traced to the principles of our corrupt nature;—to that indolence in investigation, indifference about truth,* and ready acquiescence in what is put before us, of

* Essay IV. First series.

† In the last of the Five Discourses delivered before the University, and subsequently published.

* Ἀταλαίπωρος τοῖς πολλοῖς ἡ ζήτησις τῆς ἀλήθειας, καὶ ἐπὶ τὰ ἔτοιμα μᾶλλον τρέπονται.

which the Greek historian complained long before the Christian era; and to that dislike of suspense—and consequent willingness to make a short and final appeal to some authority which should be regarded as decisive, with a view to quash disputes, and save the labour of inquiry. That such a disposition is not at least peculiar to the votaries of the religion of Rome, or confined even to religious subjects, is evident from the appeals of pretended students in philosophy to the decisions of Pythagoras, and subsequently of Aristotle, as precluding all further dispute or doubt. It is for Protestants therefore to remember, that they are not secured by the mere circumstance of their being such, from all danger of indulging this disposition. There is indeed no danger of their appealing to the *church of Rome* as an infallible authority to put a stop to all discussion; but the removal of that particular danger should only put us the more on our guard against the same fault (as it is a fault of our common nature) breaking out in some new shape.

V. One of the heaviest charges against the Romish church may be added to those already alluded to—the spirit of persecution; which is as far as any of her other enormities from being peculiar to that church, or even to the case of religion: witness, among many other instances, the furious and bitter spirit shown by the Nominalists and Realists in their contests concerning abstruse points of metaphysics. The Romish system did not properly introduce intolerance, but rather, it was intolerance that introduced and established the system of Romanism; and that (in another part of the world) no less successfully called in the sword for the establishment of Mahometism. So congenial indeed to “the natural man” is the resort to force for the establishment of one system of doctrines and the suppression of another, that we find many of the reformers, after they had clearly perceived nearly all the *other* errors in which they had been brought up, yet entertaining no doubt whatever as to the right, and the duty, of maintaining religious truth by coercive means.

VI. Another tendency, as conspicuous as those above mentioned in the Romish church, and, like its other errors, by no means *confined* to that church, is the confident security with which the *Catholics*, as they call themselves, trust in that *name*, as denoting their being members of that sacred body, the only true church, whose

holy character and title to divine favour they seem to consider as a kind of common property, and a safeguard to all her members: even as the Jews of old “said within themselves, We are Abraham’s children;” flattering themselves that on that ground, however little they might resemble Abraham in faith and in works, God would surely never cast them off. This error is manifestly common to the Romanists with those who put the same kind of trust in the *name* of Protestant or of Christian, and who regard their connexion with a holy and richly-endowed community, rather as a substitute for personal holiness, than as a motive for aiming at a still higher degree of it, and a privilege involving a higher responsibility.

§ 4. In treating of all these points, I shall adhere to the plan hitherto pursued, viz., of contemplating the errors of the Romanists, not with a view to our own justification in withdrawing from their communion; nor, again, for the sake of guarding against the danger of being seduced by their arguments, (important as these objects may be;) but with a view to what I cannot but regard as the much greater danger, of falling into corresponding errors to theirs—of being taken captive by the same temptations under different forms—of overlooking, in practice, the important truth, that the spirit of Romanism is substantially the spirit of human nature.

We are all of us in these days likely to hear and to read most copious discussions of the tenets and practices of the church of Rome. Whatever may be the views of each of my readers respecting the political question which has chiefly given rise to these discussions, (a question which, like all others of a political character, I have always thought had better be waived in theological works,) I would suggest these reflections as profitable to be kept in view by all, while occupied with such discussions: how far we are pure from Romish errors in another shape;—from what quarters, and under what disguises, we are liable to be assailed by temptations, substantially, though not externally, the same with those which seduced into all her corruptions the church of Rome; and which gradually changed her bridal purity for the accumulated defilements of “the mother of harlots;”—and how we may best guard against the spirit of superstition, (of which, be it remembered, none, even the most superstitious, ever suspect themselves)—the spirit of persecution—

the spirit of insincerity, of fraud, and of indifference to truth—in short, all those evil propensities which are fitly characterized in one word as, the spirit of Romanism. All these dangers, as they did not *begin* with the Romish system, cannot be expected to end with it; they emanate not from that corrupt church alone, but from the corruption of our common nature; and none consequently are more open to them, than those who are disposed to think themselves secured by merely keeping out of the pale of that church, and inveighing against her enormities.

Such a false security indeed is itself one of the worst of the Romish errors; that of mistaking *names* for things, and trusting in a specious *title*, without inquiring how far we possess the character which that title implies. “He is not a Jew,” says Paul, “who is one outwardly, neither is that circumcision which is outward in the flesh; but he is a Jew who is one inwardly; and circumcision is that of the heart, in the spirit and not in the letter; whose praise is not of men, but of God.” It is for us therefore ever to remember, for thus only can we turn to account the apostle’s admonition, that as that man was not, in the sight of God, a Jew, to any profitable purpose for himself, but rather to his aggravated condemnation, who was only outwardly a Jew; so neither, by parity of reasoning, is he in God’s sight a Christian—a “Catholic Christian”—a “Protestant”—a “Reformed Christian—who is one outwardly; but he who is reformed inwardly,—whose heart is Christian—and who protests not with his lips only, but in his life—“in the spirit and not in the letter”—against such depravation of gospel truth, and departure from gospel holiness, as he censures in his erring brethren.

§. 5. In treating of superstitious worship, the point at present more immediately before us, it is worth remarking, that (as indeed has been already hinted) many of the Romanist practices bear a strong resemblance to those of the idolatrous Israelites. In particular, their veneration for the wood of the supposed true cross, has a correspondence approaching to identity with the veneration of the Israelites for the brazen serpent which Hezekiah destroyed; only that the more ancient superstition was one degree less irrational; inasmuch as the image was that which had itself been a more immediate instrument of a miraculous deliverance;

whereas what typically corresponds to it in the Christian dispensation is (as our Lord himself points out) not the cross on which he suffered, but the very person of the suffering Redeemer.

The Romanists, in paying a *slavish* worship (it is *their own* expression, δουλεία) not only to images and relics, but also to saints, are guilty of *both* those kinds of superstition, the unsparing suppression of *both* of which constitutes the distinguished and peculiar merit of that upright and zealous prince, Hezekiah. He was not satisfied, like many other kings, with putting down that branch of superstition which involves the breach of the first commandment—the setting up of false gods; but was equally decisive in his reprobation of the other branch also—the worship of the true God by the medium of prohibited emblems, and with unauthorized and superstitious rites. Of these two kinds of superstition, the latter is continually liable, in practice, to slide into the former, by such insensible degrees, that it is often hard to decide, in particular cases, *where* the breach of the second commandment ends, and that of the first begins. The distinction is not however for that reason useless; perhaps it is even the more useful on that very account, and was for that reason preserved in those two commandments; of which the second serves as a kind of outwork to the first, to guard against all gradual *approaches* to a violation of it—to keep men at a *distance* from the danger of infringing the majesty of the jealous God.

Accordingly, besides the numerous warnings which Moses gives the Israelites against being seduced into worshipping the false gods of the nations of Canaan, he also cautions them not to imitate, in their worship of the Lord, the superstitious rites used by the heathen in the service of *their* deities. They are forbidden to inquire, “How did these nations serve their gods?” and to say, “Even so will I do likewise. Thou shalt not do so unto the Lord thy God.”

Both injunctions the Israelites frequently violated; many of them, while they observed the first commandment in abstaining from the worship of Baal and the other gods of the heathen, infringing nevertheless the second, by their use of images: of which we have an instance in the case of Jeroboam “who made Israel to sin;” the golden calves which he set up being clearly designed as emblematical representations of the true God: for he

said, "These be thy gods, O Israel, which brought thee out of the land of Egypt." This was emphatically called "the sin of Jeroboam;" and the distinction above alluded to is noticed in the case (to omit numberless others) of Jehu; thus Jehu destroyed Baal out of Israel: howbeit from the sins of Jeroboam the son of Nebat, who made Israel to sin, Jehu departed not from after them, to wit, the golden calves that were in Bethel, and that were in Dan."

And we find also numerous instances (besides this direct violation of the second commandment) of the introduction of unauthorized and superstitious rites in the worship of the true God.

This two-fold division of superstition I have the more strongly dwelt on, both because it is frequently overlooked, and because inattention to it is likely to lead to dangerous consequences.

I would not however be understood as contending for any arbitrary and unusual signification of the word; but I conceive, that by superstition is commonly understood, not, as a popular though superficial writer has defined it, "an excess of religion," (at least in the ordinary sense of the word excess,) as if any one *could* have too much of true religion, but, any *misdirection* of religious feeling; manifested either in showing religious veneration or regard to objects which deserve none; i. e., properly speaking, the worship of false gods; or, in the assignment of such a degree, or such a kind of religious veneration to any object, as that object, though worthy of some reverence, does not deserve; or in the worship of the true God through the medium of improper ceremonies or symbols.

This latter branch of superstition is extremely liable, as I have already remarked, to degenerate insensibly into the former. The Israelite, e. g., who was accustomed to worship Jehovah through the medium of a sensible image, would be very likely, in time, to transfer a larger and larger portion of his adoration to the image itself; and in proportion as he annexed to it any idea of especial sanctity, he would be, insensibly, more and more falling into the error of adoring an image, in the only sense in which it is conceivable than an image *can* be adored.

In avowing my conviction that this is the case with a large proportion of the members of the Romish church, and that they are consequently most decidedly chargeable with the sin of idolatry, I am

aware that I run counter to the opinions (I might rather perhaps say to the expressions) of some enlightened Protestants. But these, I conceive, are not so much mistaken in their judgment, as inaccurate in their language. It is said, e. g., that when the Romanists offer up their prayers before a crucifix, or before a piece of bread, they do not design to worship a piece of wood or a piece of bread, as such, but our Lord Jesus Christ as represented by the one, and as actually present in the other. And certainly, if they intend to direct their worship to the one true God, they are not guilty of a breach of the *first* commandment; but this does not clear them of the charge of infringing the second; they may be guilty of superstition, though not of every kind and degree of superstition: and if the practices, I have alluded to, do not constitute that kind of superstition which is properly called idolatry, let us be allowed to inquire, what does? Will it be said that idolatry consists in worshipping a piece of wood as *such*—as a mere piece of wood? I would ask in reply, Who then ever was, or can be, guilty of it? The thing is not only practically impossible, but is inconceivable, and a contradiction in terms. The most gross-minded Israelite that ever offered up his prayers before a golden calf, implied, by that very act, his belief that it was something more than a mere piece of gold, and that there resided in it a certain divine intelligence. The argument therefore is not so much a vindication of any party from the charge of idolatry, as a vindication of idolatry itself.

It has been said, I believe, by some Protestants, respecting the alleged idolatry of adoring the sacred elements at the Eucharist, "it *would* be idolatrous, if I were to join in it:" if this means, "supposing you to have the same belief in transubstantiation that the Romanists have," this is only a circuitous mode of saying that they are idolaters; but if it means, "were you to join in it, supposing you to have the Protestant belief that the consecrated bread is merely bread," the supposition involves an absurdity and self-contradiction. A man may indeed *feign*, and outwardly indicate, in order to deceive his fellow-man, an adoration of what he believes to be merely a piece of bread or of wood; but that he should really and inwardly adore, what he believes at the moment to be no more than mere bread or mere wood, is not only

impossible, but absolutely unmeaning, being at variance with the very notion of adoration.

If therefore a Romanist adores the true God under the form of bread,* which he holds to be the real literal body of Christ, or if, in worshipping before a crucifix, he attributes a certain sanctity to the image, as if some divine virtue were actually present in it, (and that this is done is plain from the preference shown of one image to another,) he is clearly as much guilty of idolatry as the Israelites in worshipping the golden calf and the brazen serpent: it being thus only, that any one can practise idolatry.

In making this declaration, however, it is not my object either to lead Protestants to exult uncharitably over their erring brethren, or to vindicate our own renunciation of their errors; but rather to point out the danger which must ever beset all of us, of falling into similar errors in another shape, and under other names; for ten thousand of the greatest faults in our neighbour are of less consequence to us, than one, of the smallest, in ourselves.

The Israelites of old were warned not only to worship none of the gods of the heathen, but to copy none of their superstitions: "Ye shall not do so to the Lord your God." Now *they* probably were disposed to think themselves secure from the danger of corrupting their own religion, in their deep abhorrence of the religions of those nations whom the Lord had cast out before them. The church of Rome, again, thought itself safe from superstition, by its rejection of those particular superstitions of which the Israelites and the Pagans were guilty. And Protestants, again, are no less disposed to feel the same security, on account of their abhorrence of the particular superstitions of the Romanists. The images used by the Papists are not the same with those for worshipping which the Israelites were condemned: and they again doubtless pleaded that the golden calves and the brazen serpent were not the idols of the Canaanites; and thus does each successive generation censure the faults and follies of the preceding, without taking sufficient heed to itself, or recognizing, as they arise,

errors substantially the same, though under new shapes.

The superstitious and the other errors of the Romanists were, as I have already observed, not the result of systematic contrivance, but sprung up spontaneously as the indigenous growth of the human heart: they arose successively, gradually, and imperceptibly; and were, in most instances, probably first overlooked, then tolerated, and then sanctioned, and finally embodied in that detestable system, of which they are rather to be regarded as the cause than the effect. Since then, as I have said, corruptions of religion neither first sprang from Romanism, nor can be expected to end with it, the tendency to them being inherent in our common nature, it is evident that constant watchfulness alone can preserve us from, not the very same, corruptions with those of our predecessors, but, similar ones under some fresh disguise; and that this danger is enhanced by the very circumstance which seems to secure us from it—our abhorrence of those errors in them. From practices the very same in name and form with theirs, such abhorrence is indeed a safeguard; while at the same time it makes us the less ready to suspect ourselves of the faults disguised: the vain security thus generated, draws off our thoughts from self-examination; a task for which the mind is in general least fitted, when it is most occupied in detecting and exposing the faults of others. In treating then of such corruptions of religion as those into which the church of Rome has fallen, my primary object is to excite a spirit not of self-congratulation and self-confidence, but of self-distrust and self-examination.

§. 6. With respect to that particular class of corruptions now before us, which comes under the general title of superstition, it is requisite (though it is somewhat strange that it should be so) to premise a remark on the *enormity* of the evil in question. The mischiefs of superstition are, I conceive, much underrated. It is by many regarded, not as any sin, but as a mere harmless folly, at the worst;—as, in some instances, an amiable weakness, or even a salutary delusion. Its votaries are pitied, as in some cases subjected to needless and painful restraints, and undergoing groundless terrors;—sometimes they are ridiculed as enslaved to absurd and puerile observances: but whether pitied or laughed at, superstitious Christians are often re-

* For the Romish doctrine is, as Mr. Blanco White has plainly shown, not, as they themselves declare, that bread *is* transformed into the body of Christ, but that *Christ is transformed into bread*, in the sense which the words according to invariable usage convey.

garded as likely, at least as not the *less* likely on account of their superstition, to have secured the essentials of religion;—as believing and practising what is needful towards salvation, and as only carrying their faith and their practice unnecessarily and unreasonably to the point of weak credulity and foolish scrupulosity. This view of the subject has a strong tendency to confirm the superstitious, and even to add to their number. They feel that if there is any doubt, they are surely on the *safe* side. “Supposing I am in error on this or that point,” (a man may say,) “I am merely doing something superfluous; at the worst I suffer some temporary inconvenience, and perhaps have to encounter some ridicule; but if the error be on the other side, I risk my salvation by embracing it; my present course therefore is evidently the safest.”

What force this argument has in the hands of the Romanist, I need hardly remind my readers. Of converts to Romanism, probably three out of four, especially of the ignorant and the weak-minded, have been drawn over, in the first instance at least, by the consideration, that that is the *safe* side.*

* “The Romanists in general, but more especially those who, in the midst of doubt, are anxious to save themselves from the painful step of changing their communion, comfort themselves with the idea, that after all *Roman Catholics* are on the *safe side*. If Protestants should be saved, they themselves have made “assurance doubly sure;” if Protestantism be Christianity, Romanists have it all, and a great deal besides.

“I know of few absurdities that can be compared to this. Let me make it clear to you by a familiar example. Suppose a poor, helpless person is dying of a dreadful complaint. An eminent physician hears of his distress; calls on him, and prepares a medicine, which he desires the patient to take, under a strong injunction to trust in it alone for life. In the absence of the physician, our patient begins to think on the prescription, and because it appears to him too simple, mixes it with every quack medicine that the neighbours recommend. Having swallowed the whole, he now comforts himself with the assurance that he is on the *safe side*. Why? because he has mistrusted the physician, and divided his confidence between the only man whose skill can save him, and the old women of the village.

“O foolish Galatians!” (I am irresistibly impelled to exclaim with St. Paul,) “who hath bewitched you, that ye should not obey the truth?” O blind and deluded people! how can you imagine that the eternal life promised to faith in Christ will be doubly secured by showing and proving your mistrust, through the use of the fanciful ways of pleasing God, invented and set forth by Rome?” *Blanco White’s Letter to Converts from Romanism*. This excellent little tract is less known than it deserves.

With the danger however of being seduced into the pale of the Romish church, I am not at present concerned, but with the danger of superstition generally. In speaking of that point, as well as (hereafter) of others connected with the *spirit* of Romanism, I wish to be understood as not calling for harsh censure on individuals, but only on offences as they are in themselves. How far the superstition of any individual may be excusable or blamable in the sight of God, can be pronounced by him alone, who alone is able to estimate each man’s strength or weakness, his opportunities of gaining knowledge, and his employment or neglect of those opportunities. But the same may be said of every other offence, as well as of the one in question. Of superstition itself, in all its various forms and degrees, I cannot think otherwise than that it is not merely a folly to be ridiculed, but a mischief to be dreaded; and that its tendency is, in most cases, as far as it extends, destructive of true piety.

The disposition to reverence some superhuman power, and in some way or other to endeavour to recommend ourselves to the favour of that power, is (more or less in different individuals) a natural and original sentiment of the human mind. The great enemy of man finds it easier in most cases to misdirect, than to eradicate this. If an exercise for this religious sentiment can be provided—if this natural craving after divine worship (if I may so speak) can be satisfied—by the practice of superstitious ceremonies, true piety will be much more easily extinguished;—the conscience will on this point have been set at rest;—God’s place in the heart will, as it were, have been pre-occupied by an idol; and that genuine religion which consists in a devotedness of the affections to God, operating in the improvement of the moral character, will be more effectually shut out, from the religious feelings of our nature having found another vent, and exhausted themselves on vanities of man’s devising.

To illustrate as fully as might be done this debasing and corrupting tendency of superstition, by an examination of the numberless instances of it which might but too readily be found, would far exceed my limits, and would be, to most of my readers, in a great degree unnecessary. But I cannot omit, in confirmation of what has been said, one general remark, which is applicable to most of these instances: that one of the most prevailing

characteristics of superstition, at least which is found more or less in most species of it, is the attributing of some sacred efficacy to the performance of an *outward act*, or the presence of some *material object*, without any inward devotion of the heart being required to accompany it;—without, in short, any thing else being needed, except, in some cases, an undoubting faith in that intrinsic efficacy. The tendency thus to disjoin religious observances (i. e. what are *intended* to be such) from heartfelt and practical religion, is one of the most besetting evils of our corrupt nature; and it is the very root of most superstitions. Now no one can fail to perceive how opposite this is to true piety. Empty forms not only supersede piety by standing in its place, but gradually alter the habits of the mind, and render it unfit for the exercise of genuine pious sentiment. Even the natural food of religion (if I may so speak) is thus converted into its poison. Our very prayers, for example, and our perusal of the holy Scriptures, become superstitious, in proportion as any one expects them to operate as a charm—attributing efficacy to the mere words, while his feelings and thoughts are not occupied in what he is doing.

Every religious ceremony or exercise, however well calculated, in itself, to improve the heart, is liable, as I have said, thus to degenerate into a mere form, and consequently to become superstitious; but in proportion as the outward observances are the more complex and operose, and the more unmeaning or unintelligible, the more danger is there of superstitiously attaching a sort of magical efficacy to the bare outward act, independent of mental devotion. If, for example, even our prayers are liable, without constant watchfulness, to become a superstitious form, by our “honouring God with our lips, while our heart is far from him,” this result is almost unavoidable when the prayers are recited in an unknown tongue, and with a prescribed number of vain repetitions, crossings, and telling of beads. And men of a timorous mind, having once taken up a wrong notion of what religion consists in, seek a refuge from doubt and anxiety, a substitute for inward piety, and, too often, a compensation for an evil life, in an endless multiplication of superstitious observances;—of pilgrimages, sprinklings with holy water, veneration of relics, and the like. And hence the enormous accumulation of superstitions,

which in the course of many centuries, gradually arose in the Romish and Greek churches.

§ 7. And it is a circumstance not a little remarkable, that, in many instances at least, superstition not only does not promote true religion, but even tends to generate *profaneness*; and that, not merely in other points, but even in respect to the very objects of the superstitious reverence. In proof of this I can cite the testimony of an eminently competent witness, as far at least as one Roman Catholic country (Spain) is concerned; the author, after having mentioned the extravagant and absurd superstitions of the ceremonies which take place on Good Friday, adds, “I have carefully glided over such parts of this absurd performance as would shock many an English reader, even in narrative. Yet such is the strange mixture of superstition and profaneness in the people for whose gratification these scenes are exhibited, that though any attempt to expose the indecency of these shows would rouse their zeal ‘to the knife,’ I cannot venture to translate the jokes and sallies of wit that are frequently heard among the Spanish peasantry upon these sacred topics.”* The like strange mixture is found in other Roman Catholic and also in Pagan countries; particularly among the Hindoos, who are described as habitually reviling their gods in the grossest terms, on the occasion of any untoward event.

In this country a large proportion of the superstition that exists is connected more or less with the agency of evil spirits; accordingly (in conformity with the strange principle of our nature just mentioned) nothing is so common a theme of profane jests among the vulgar of all ranks, as the devil, and every thing relating to that being, including the “everlasting fire prepared for him and his angels;” and this, by no means exclusively or chiefly, among such as disbelieve what Scripture says on the subject; but, on the contrary, even the most, among those who give credit to a multitude of legendary tales also, quite unwarranted by Scripture.

This curious anomaly may perhaps be, in a great measure at least, accounted for, from the consideration, that as superstition imposes a yoke rather of fear than of love, her votaries are glad to *take revenge*, as it were, when galled by this yoke, and to indemnify themselves in

* Doblado's Letters from Spain, p. 264.

some degree both for the irksomeness of their restraints and tasks, and also for the *degradation*, (some sense of which is always excited by a consciousness of a slavish dread,) by taking liberties *wherever they dare*, either in the way of insult or playfulness, with the objects of their dread. [And jests on sacred subjects, it is well known, are, when men are so disposed, the most easily produced of any; because the *contrast* between a dignified and a low image, exhibited in combination, (in which the whole force of the ludicrous consists,) is in this case the most striking.*

But how comes it that they ever do *dare*, as we see is the fact, to take these liberties? Another characteristic of superstition will perhaps explain this also. It is, as I have just said, characteristic of superstition to enjoin, and to attribute efficacy to, the mere performance of some specific outward acts—the use of some material object, without any loyal affectionate devotion of heart being required to accompany such acts, and to pervade the whole life as a ruling motive. Hence, the rigid observance of the precise directions given, leaves the votary secure, at ease in conscience, and at liberty, as well as in disposition, to indulge in profaneness. In like manner a patient, who dares not refuse to swallow a nauseous dose and to confine himself to strict regimen, yet is both vexed and somewhat ashamed of submitting to the annoyance, will sometimes take his revenge, as it were, by abusive ridicule of his medical attendant and his drugs; knowing that this will not, so long as he does but take the medicines, diminish their efficacy. Superstitious observances are a kind of distasteful or disgusting remedy, which however is to operate if it be but swallowed; and on which accordingly the votary sometimes ventures gladly to revenge himself.

The more rarely therefore in any instance the superstitions of the Romish church approached to, and blended themselves with, true religion, the more did

they deteriorate the spirit of it;—the more did the poisonous parasite, twining round the fairest boughs of the good tree, blight by its noxious neighbourhood the fruits which that should have borne.

We cannot indeed be too thankful to God, that by his blessing our ancestors perceived and undertook to reform these abuses: but my especial object in now adverting to the errors of the Romanists is, to call your attention to this important consideration; that such a multitude and variety of superstitions, as troublesome as they are absurd, never could have been introduced by any devices of priestcraft, had there not been in the human mind that strong natural *tendency* to superstition which has just been described. And this being the case—this tendency being, as it is, a part of our common nature, it is for us to guard against the danger in ourselves, instead of exulting in a vain confidence that we are exempt and safe from it. The things we ought to learn, and to learn with a view to our own profit, from the example of the Romish church, are, the mischievous effects of superstition, and man's proneness to it.

That superstition does exist, to no inconsiderable extent, in Protestant countries, which is what the foregoing reasonings, even independently of experience, would prepare us to expect, few, I imagine, would venture to deny; though perhaps fewer still are fully aware of its amount, or sufficiently on their guard against the danger.

§. 8. With respect to the particular points on which superstition is most to be dreaded, and towards which, consequently, our vigilance should be especially directed, I am precluded by several considerations from entering on any detailed examination.

The enumeration of all, or nearly all, the superstitions which either actually exist, or are likely to arise, would far exceed my purposed limits. And I am sensible that to advert even to a few of these is likely to be less profitable than I could wish; inasmuch as the same remarks will usually be a superfluous truism to one person, and a revolting paradox to another. For any one who practises, or tolerates and approves, any superstition, is of course not accustomed (at least should in charity not be presumed to be accustomed) to consider it as superstition, nor would be prepared to admit the censure without detailed argument and calm consideration; while one who *does* regard

* It is commonly said, that there is no wit in profane jests; but it would be hard to frame any definition of wit that should exclude them. It would be more correct to say, (and I believe that is what is really meant,) that the practice displays *no great powers* of wit, because the subject-matter renders it so particularly easy; and that (for the very same reason) it affords the least gratification (apart from all higher considerations) to judges of good taste; for a great part of the pleasure afforded by wit results from a *perception* of *skill* displayed, and *difficultly* surmounted.

it as superstitious, has himself already pronounced that censure.

To this must be added, that in most instances the very same thing will be superstitious to some persons, and not to others. The adoration of saints indeed, or of any other being besides the one true God, must always, and in itself, be superstitious : but in the great majority of instances, the very same outward rites, and sensible objects, may be either a help to devotion, or a substitute for it ; such as sacred music—the repetition of prayers—the assembling in edifices set apart for divine worship—the assuming of certain bodily postures, &c. In all such cases, the religion or the superstition exists in the mind of the person, and is only incidentally connected with the external objects and observances. Of these last, the *best* that can be said of any of them is, that they are well *calculated* to cherish feelings of rational devotion : the *worst* that can be said of any of them is, that they are peculiarly *liable* to become superstitious. But even pictures and images are not in themselves superstitious ; and accordingly we do not now exclude them from our houses of worship ; though if we found them now liable to any of that abuse which has grown to such an enormous height among the Romanists, it would be our duty to treat them as Hezekiah did the brazen serpent, which “he brake in pieces, because the Israelites burnt incense to it.” And, on the other hand, there is no act or object connected with divine worship which may not *become* superstitious, through the worshipper’s trusting in the efficacy of outward forms, while his heart is far from God. Our reformers therefore showed their discretion in their assertion respecting the Liturgy and Forms of Ordination which they drew up, that these “contained nothing *in itself* superstitious :” they knew by sad experience that nothing but the worshipper’s vigilant self-examination can secure either human or divine ordinances from *becoming* (to him) superstitious.

What has been said may be sufficient to show that this vigilant examination and caution against superstition, on each particular point, must be practised by each person for himself, both with a view to his own conduct, and that of all those who may be more especially under his care ; and that the necessity of this cannot be superseded by any general description.

Enough also has been said, I trust, to show both the vast importance of this vigilant examination, and also the principles on which it should be conducted. I will notice, however, a few, and only a few, of those practices and notions, to which, as it seems to me, especial attention should be directed, as either savouring of superstition, or peculiarly liable to lead to it. Several of my observations, I have no doubt, will appear utterly superfluous, to many of those among my readers who have not (not to those who have) been occupied diligently in the care of a parish, and in that essential part of it, frequent and confidential intercourse with all, and especially with the more unenlightened classes, of the parishioners. I pledge myself however to state nothing on the ground of mere conjecture—nothing which I have not been enabled fully to verify.

§. 9. I. That there exists among Protestants much of that branch of Romish superstition—the pretension to miraculous powers, or belief in miraculous occurrences, on slight grounds, no sober-minded person, who is not quite ignorant of the existing state of things, can doubt.* We have among us pretenders to inspiration ; some using that very term, and others virtually implying as much : and we have many who see special “judgments,” or other “interpositions” of Providence, in almost every remarkable, and in many of the most ordinary occurrences. Sometimes they apply to these the very term “miraculous ;” sometimes they call them, which amounts to the very same, “providential ;” for though it is literally true that nothing takes place which is not, in some sense, providential, it is plain, for that very reason, that whatever is rightly *characterized* as providential, i. e. as *more*

* It would not be suitable to my present purpose, to enter on a minute inquiry into the use of several words connected with the present subject ; but it may be worth while to remark, that, according to the most prevailing usage, “fanaticism” implies superstition, (i. e. “misdirected religious feeling,”) but is not necessarily implied by it. If on very insufficient grounds I believe *another* person to be inspired, or any other miracle to have taken place, I am merely *superstitious* ; if I thus believe *myself* to be inspired, or gifted with miraculous powers, I am also *fanatical*.

Enthusiasm seems to be employed as a more comprehensive term than fanaticism, both as being sometimes used in a good, at least, a milder sense, and also as extending to other things besides religion.

providential than other events, is properly miraculous.*

If either Romanists, or any others, will give *sufficient proof* of the occurrence of a miracle, they ought to be listened to: but to pretend to, or to believe in, any miracle *without* sufficient proof, is clearly superstitious, whatever may be the system such a miracle is adduced to support.

Most deeply is it to be regretted, that some writers who have argued justly and forcibly against the error of looking for inspiration or other miraculous interferences, should have more than nullified the benefit done, by going on to explain away all that Scripture teaches respecting spiritual influence. Besides the danger, that they may propagate this error by means of the truth they have mixed up with it, there is also an opposite evil even much more to be apprehended; that the fanatics thus opposed may join with their opponents in representing the whole doctrine of grace as inseparably connected with their scheme of miraculous interferences and sensible inspiration; so that the whole must stand or fall together; and that they may then triumphantly urge, "See what violence one is driven to do to Scripture, and how much at variance he becomes with the church of England, whenever he attempts to oppose our doctrine!" Too much care cannot be taken to testify *simultaneously* against both of these opposite errors.

II. Again, more superstition exists than some persons are aware of, in relation to the Eucharist, and to the sacred "elements" (as they are still called†) which are administered in that rite. Several among the uneducated (and some even among the higher) classes, and those of them not least who never partake,‡ or design to partake, of the holy communion,

till they believe themselves on the bed of death, have a strong faith in the efficacy, as a medicine, of what they call "sacrament wine;" i. e. wine which either has been, or is designed to be, (for they know too little of the rite to distinguish between the two,) *consecrated* for this use. They have been known to apply for it to the minister, as an infallible cure for some particular diseases of children:—confidently asserting (indeed the very existence and continuance of the superstition forbids us to hope that such applications have always been made *in vain*) that they have formerly obtained it for that use. Others have been known, when attending at the Lord's table, to secrete, for the purpose of carrying home, a portion of the consecrated bread handed to them; doubtless with a view to some similar superstitious use.* Others again, above the very poorest class, have been known to petition for a portion of the "sacrament money," i. e. the alms then collected, (offering to purchase it for the same sum in other pieces of money,) to be forged into a ring, as an infallible cure for fits. This again is a superstition which could hardly have maintained its ground, if it had never been on any occasion indulged by those whose office is to repress it.

Too common again, and well known, is the case of persons who have, during the hours of health, systematically abstained from communicating, and have pleaded, among other excuses, with great truth, their *ignorance*, while they have refused to listen to the offered instruction—of these same persons when on their death bed, though conscious of the *same ignorance* respecting the whole nature and design of the ceremony, and in no condition then to learn,† yet earnestly craving the

* I ought in justice to say, that I believe many ephemeral writers, and careless talkers, occasionally use the words "providential," and "miraculous," (as well as many others,) without attaching any precise notion to them. They have been used to hear the words applied to *remarkable* occurrences; and from mere force of imitation do the same, as if the words were merely synonymous with "remarkable."

† Agreeably to the language of the schoolmen; who framed the doctrine of transubstantiation, as it now stands, so completely from Aristotle's writings, that it never could have existed in any thing like its present form, had that philosopher not been studied.

‡ This is one instance out of a multitude, in which superstition, instead of promoting, as some persons vainly imagine, true religion, stands in the place of it.

* I have detected and stopped this practice among those who are called to consume the remainder of the bread and wine after the close of the service. Let me be permitted to call the attention of officiating ministers to the Rubric, and to recommend a strict adherence to it, in what relates to this matter: "if any remain of that which was consecrated, it shall not be carried out of the church, but the priest and such other of the communicants as he shall then *call unto him*, shall, immediately after the blessing, reverently eat and drink the same:" i. e. the communicants (as it must be understood) *remaining* in the minister's presence, into which he had "called" them.

† Sometimes without any *wish*, even then, for previous instruction; or, consequently, any notion that the benefit of the sacrament is at all dependent on a knowledge of our religion. "Do pray, dear sir, give me the sacrament first, and then talk as much as you please," is an answer by which I

administration of this sacrament, and trusting (while their surrounding friends cherish their confidence) that the words repeated, and the bodily act of receiving the bread and wine, will operate as a charm to ensure salvation, like the "extreme unction" of the Romanists. Now if this is not a superstitious abuse of the ordinance, what is?

III. Nor has the other sacrament escaped the defilement of superstition. Not a few there are who eagerly seek it with as superstitious a reverence as that with which they shrink from the Lord's Supper, and with, if possible, a still more complete ignorance of its nature. They seem to regard the giving of a *name*† to an infant as the most essential, or one of the most essential parts of the rite: understanding by the terms "Baptism" or "Christening," the public reception in church, (about which they are frequently very indifferent,) and knowing private baptism by no other appellation than "naming." And many are anxious that the ceremony should take place (I speak advisedly) if the child is very ill, in hopes that it may save his life; at all events, with strong expectation of some benefit, while yet they have no thought or intention of bringing him up with any kind of religious instruction and training; nor indeed have themselves either any religious knowledge, or any wish to gain it. To disjoin thus the means of grace from the fruits of grace—the expected benefit of the ordinance which admits a member into

have known a sick man perseveringly repel the attempts of the minister to examine into the state of his mind, and impart to him the requisite instruction.

As for the point of *sincerity* or *insincerity*, no one of course, except the Searcher of hearts, can be sure in every instance, whether an individual is, or is not, in this respect, a fit communicant: we have only to receive his solemn professions; and our admitting him on the strength of these, does not, supposing them to be in fact hypocritical, give any countenance to the superstitious belief, that an insincere communicant derives benefit from the rite: since we admit him on the supposition of his being *not* insincere; but it is otherwise in respect of the point of *knowledge* or ignorance; *that* the minister *can* ascertain; and if he neglect to do so, and to proceed accordingly, he is manifestly fostering superstition.

† In a parish which had been grossly neglected under a former incumbent, the rite of baptism was administered to several who had grown up without it: among the applicants was a young woman, who, it came out, had been already baptized, and who gave as a reason for applying, that she was dissatisfied with the *name* that had been given her, and wished for another.

the Christian church, from his care to lead a Christian life—is to convert a sacrament into a charm, and to "make the things that should have been for their health, be unto them an occasion of falling." There is no need to expatiate on the mischievous absurdity of such notions and such conduct, or (to those at least of my readers who have been engaged in the care of large parishes) on their prevalence. The point to which it is my present object to call attention is the *superstition* involved in them; which bears but too close a resemblance to those of the church of Rome relative to the same sacrament.*

Among the many evils to be traced to this particular superstition is to be reckoned, I think, in a great degree, the prevalence (among many of our own clergy) of a system of doctrine which goes to disjoin completely from "the outward visible sign of baptism" all "inward spiritual grace:" and likewise the continuance and increase of the Anabaptist system; which indeed the doctrine just alluded to tends greatly to foster. An attentive hearer of one of these divines, taught to regard his own baptism as hardly more than an empty form, is thoroughly prepared to become a convert to the first Anabaptist he meets with.†

IV. It is not perhaps generally known, how much superstition prevails in respect of the repetition of prayers. Protestants are accustomed to censure, as one of the most flagrant of Romish corruptions, the use of prayers in an unknown tongue: and it is plain that it makes no practical difference to the individual whether the

* The present instance illustrates but too well what has been above said respecting the connexion between superstition and profaneness. Both exist in a remarkable degree in relation to the sacrament of baptism. Few of my readers, I fear, will need more than to be merely reminded of the light and irreverent application of the term "Christening," on any occasion of giving "a name" to any thing. Now if there be any thing intrinsically reasonable in the third commandment, it surely is applicable, in its spirit, not merely to the name of God, but also to all the terms appropriated to his ordinances; in short, to all the language denoting any thing sacred. But in the present case, there exists a more palpable, more deliberate, and more revolting kind of profaneness, in the solemn mockery of what is called "Christening a ship;" in which the sacrament itself, not the mere name of it, is regularly, formally, and with obtrusive pomp, "taken in vain," to the secret scorn and triumph of infidels, and to the disgrace of a nation calling itself Christian and Protestant.

† See Essay IX. Second series, p. 323-6.

words he utters are Latin or English, so long as they convey no sense to his mind. Now the practice of reciting unmeaning prayers (unmeaning, that is, to the person using them) prevails to a greater extent than perhaps many persons are aware. Many probably do not even know that there are invocations to angels and to the four Evangelists, (which it is to be *hoped* are not at all understood,) in use at the present day in the devotions of some among the more ignorant classes of professed Protestants. I know that the caution given in Dr. Hawkins' excellent "Manual for Christians after Confirmation," (ch. v. §. 1.) that "to repeat the *creed* is not to *pray*," startled some persons as being manifestly needless. But the fact bears him out. The practice is by no means uncommon of reciting the Apostle's creed as a portion of prayer. Now it is manifest that whoever makes such a mistake, might just as well recite it in Latin as in English; since it is plain he cannot understand even the general sense and drift of it. And it is equally manifest that the case would not be at all altered, if the formula he recited really *were* a prayer; since it would be an evident superstition to attach any spiritual virtue to the mere utterance by rote, in whatever language, of words, however in themselves appropriate.

And this leads me to remark, that the practice of teaching or allowing very young children to learn by heart* prayers,

* It need hardly be observed how important it is, with a view to these objects, to abstain carefully from the practice, still too prevalent, though much less so, we believe, than formerly, of compelling, or encouraging, or even allowing, children to learn by rote forms of prayer, catechisms, hymns, or in short any thing connected with morality and religion, when they attach no meaning to the words they utter. It is done on the plea that they will hereafter learn the meaning of what they have been thus taught, and will be able to make a practical use of it. But no attempt at economy of time can be more injudicious. Let any child, whose capacity is so far matured as to enable him to comprehend an explanation, e. g. of the Lord's prayer, have it *then* put before him for the first time, and when he is made acquainted with the meaning of it, set to learn it by heart; and can any one doubt that in less than half a day's application he would be able to repeat it fluently? And the same would be the case with other forms. All that is thus learned by rote by a child before he is competent to attach a meaning to the words he utters, would not, if all put together, amount to so much as would cost him, when able to understand it, a week's labour to learn perfectly. Whereas it may cost the toil, often the vain toil, of many years, to

psalms, portions of Scripture, &c., which they are incapable, at the time, of understanding, is one which is very often superstitious, and almost always leads to superstition. I say "often" superstitious, because it is not necessarily so. Some teachers make their children commit these things to memory, merely as an exercise of memory, or in order that they may know the words against the time when they shall become competent to understand them, without giving the children any notion, that in repeating these words they are performing a devotional act.* There is nothing superstitious in this; though I cannot but think it a most inju-

nelearn the habit of *formalism*—of repeating words by rote without attending to their meaning; a habit which every one conversant with education knows to be in all subjects most readily acquired by children, and with difficulty avoided even with the utmost care of the teacher; but which such a plan must inevitably tend to generate. It is often said, and very truly, that it is important to form early habits of piety; but to train a child in one kind of habit, is not the most likely way of forming the opposite one; and nothing can be more contrary to true piety, than the Popish superstition (for such in fact it is) of attaching efficacy to the repetition of a certain form of words, as of a charm, independent of the understanding and of the heart.

"It is also said with equal truth, that we ought to take advantage of the facility which children possess of learning words: but to infer from thence, that Providence designs us to make such a use (or rather abuse) of this gift as we have been censuring, is as if we were to take advantage of the readiness with which a new born babe swallows whatever is put into its mouth, to dose it with ardent spirits, instead of wholesome food and necessary medicine. The readiness with which children learn and remember words, is in truth a most important advantage if rightly employed; viz., if applied to the acquiring that mass of what may be called *arbitrary* knowledge of insulated facts, which *can only* be learned by rote, and which is necessary in after life; when the acquisition of it would both be more troublesome, and would encroach on time that might otherwise be better employed. Chronology, names of countries, weights and measures, and indeed all the *words* of any language, are of this description. If a child had even ten times the ordinary degree of the faculty in question, a judicious teacher would find abundance of useful employment for it, without resorting to any that could possibly be detrimental to his future habits, moral, religious, or intellectual." *London Review*, No. II. p. 412, 413.

* Query. Do they always teach their children *other* prayers also, suitable to their present age? or do they account them altogether unfit for any communion with God, *as children*? This surely is supplying them with a provision of "strong meat," which they may hereafter "be able to bear," while they withhold the necessary immediate nourishment of milk.

dicious practice, inasmuch as it involves a great risk of most serious evils, for the sake of a benefit immeasurably minute. To learn the same prayers, &c., in Latin or in Greek, would be, as an exercise of the memory, equally good, and in other respects much better. For when the learner was afterwards, at a riper age, presented with a translation of these words, the sense would strike him, and would perhaps arouse his attention, and excite his devotional feelings. Every one who knows what it is to (not merely say his prayers, but) really pray, must be conscious that a continual effort is requisite to prevent a form of words, with which he is very familiar, from sliding over the ear or the tongue, without being properly attended to, and accompanied by the heart and the understanding. Now the liability to this formal repetition of words, and the difficulty of avoiding it, must be greatly increased, if the words have been familiarly learned by rote at a time when the understanding could not possibly accompany the recitation, from their being beyond a child's comprehension. Add to which, that a painful association is thus formed in the child's mind, between all the collects and texts, &c., he has been thus learning, and the idea of a dull, irksome, uninteresting, and unmeaning task.

Some however find that their children *do not* regard such repetitions as a painful, or even an uninteresting task, but consider themselves, though they do not understand what they utter, as performing an act of devotion. Now this is precisely the case I have more particularly in view at present. The other just mentioned, of learning the words merely as an exercise of memory, is likely to *lead* to superstition; but *this* is itself superstitious. For what do the Romanists more, that make devotion consist in repeating a hallowed form of words, with a general intention indeed of praying, but without accompanying with the understanding the words uttered?

But, it may be replied, a child does understand *something* of what he is saying, if he does but understand that it is a prayer for some divine blessing; (an argument which may be, and is, urged by the Romanists in behalf of their Latin prayers;) while, on the other hand, the wisest man cannot be said *completely* to understand his prayers, since the nature of the Being he addresses must be mysterious to him. In many cases it happens that it is difficult to draw a precise line in theory, while,

in practice, common sense leads every one to distinguish sufficiently. It is difficult, for instance, [vid. Hor. Epist. i. b. ii. line 35,] to lay down exactly how many years ago an author must have lived to be called "ancient;"—how many grains of corn will make a heap, &c. But as in other cases, so in this, men are seldom at a loss to perceive, with a sufficient approximation to truth for practical purposes, the distinction between what is, and what is not, "understood." Whenever a child is capable (which is generally at a very early age) of comprehending what prayer is, there must be *some* mode of expressing a prayer which will be intelligible to him; let *this* expression be then adopted; let him employ the form which he can *best* understand, and which may be subsequently modified and enlarged, as his understanding advances.

No doubt, a prayer thus adapted to the capacity of a child must be *childish*; how can any *natural*, fervent, hearty devotions of a *child*, be otherwise than childish? Is it any disparagement to the devotions of grown men, that they are *human*, and not angelic? Let those who, for the sake of a form of words intrinsically better, teach children prayers not adapted to the puerile understanding—let them, I say, reflect on what grounds they can convict the Romanists of superstition on account of their Pater-nosters. If there be any intrinsic holiness in words which renders them in themselves acceptable, whether we worship "in spirit and in truth," or not, then, surely, Latin words may have this efficacy. But the intrinsic sanctity of the words of the Lord's prayer, for instance, is the same only as that of the wood of the true cross. This was an instrument of the salvation of mankind when the Redeemer was offered upon it; the other is a means of grace when devoutly offered up, "with the heart and with the understanding also," in the name of that Redeemer: but the child who repeats the words by rote is no more benefited by them, than by carrying about him a piece of the wood of the cross. And in both cases, positive harm is done instead of benefit, by the misdirection of religious feeling.

I have heard it urged, that a child would be accounted a fool, if when sent to school he should be found unable to repeat the Lord's prayer. And certainly a child of average intelligence would usually be able, before the age supposed, to comprehend an *explanation* of that prayer;

which of course should not be withheld one moment after it can be understood. But at all events, it is surely better, when that is the alternative, that a child should be reckoned a fool, without being so, than that he should *be* so, without its being detected; nor can it be doubted that there is real folly, whether apparent or not, in superstitiously attributing efficacy to an unmeaning form of words.

It is hardly necessary to observe, that the whole of the above reasoning applies equally to the practice of taking little children to church.*

V. There is also a strong tendency to superstition in all that relates to the place and mode of interment of a corpse. Many of my readers must have observed, that in a great number of church-yards, the north side is almost entirely untenanted by graves, through a certain vague notion of its being "unlucky" to be buried there. The origin I believe of this feeling is to be found in the Romish practice of praying for the dead. The principal entrance to almost all churches being on the south, one who was interred on the north, would be the less likely to obtain the passing prayers of his surviving neighbours, as they were proceeding to public worship. But however this may be, and however little the origin of any superstition may be known or remembered, every thing, it is plain, *is* superstitious, and of the most mischievous class, which goes to connect the repose of the soul with any thing that takes place after a man's death. And continual watchfulness is requisite to prevent superstitions of this kind from being engrafted on the practice of interring the dead in church-yards, and performing the funeral-service

over them. Nothing can be more proper than to choose such an occasion for the performance of devotional duties;—and to set aside a spot of ground for the decent interment of the dead;—nothing more natural and blameless, than the wish that our mortal remains should repose by the side of our friends and relatives: but the best things are liable to abuse; and the more sedulously, in most places, the pastor studies the habitual sentiments of his flock, the less will he be disposed to regard as superfluous an especial watchfulness on this particular point;—a constant care to check the superstitious idea, that either the consecrated ground, (whether within or without the church,) or the funeral-service, have any thing to do with the individual's future destiny. And the more care and diligence is requisite for the *detection* of these and similar superstitions, inasmuch as those enslaved to them are often *ashamed* of them, and consequently disposed to conceal their real sentiments; especially from any one whom they perceive to be not disposed to sympathise with them. The exercise of this vigilance, accordingly, by any one who had not heretofore deemed it needful, would be very likely to bring to his knowledge much that would surprise him. I have known, for instance, a person, in speaking of a deceased neighbour, whose character had been irreligious and profligate, remark, how great a comfort it was to hear the words of the funeral-service read over her, "because, poor woman, she had been such a bad liver." I have heard of an instance again, of a superstition, probably before unsuspected, being accidentally brought to light, by the minister's having forbidden a particular corpse to be brought into the church, because the person had never frequented it when alive: the consequence of which was, that many old people began immediately to frequent the church, who had before been in the habit of absenting themselves.

§. 10. All these and numberless other such superstitions, it was the business of the Romish priesthood, not to introduce indeed, but to encourage and maintain, inasmuch as they almost all tend to increase the influence and wealth of the hierarchy: let it be the Protestant pastor's business, not only to abstain from conniving at or favouring any thing of the kind, but (remembering that the original source of superstition is not in the church of Rome, but in the heart of man) to be ever on the watch against its inroads

* Our Liturgy, however, is evidently neither adapted nor designed for children; even those of such an age as to be fully capable of joining in congregational worship, were there a service suitably composed on purpose for them. To frame and introduce such a service would not, I think, be regarded as a trifling improvement, if we could but thoroughly get rid of the *principle* of the Romish lip-service. We cannot too much "take thought for the morrow," in matters relating to "the kingdom of God and his righteousness;" now children are emphatically the morrow of society; and in all that relates to religious and moral training, they are far the more important part of it; for we know that if we "train up a child in the way that he should go, when he is old he will not depart from it:" while, on the other hand, it is too often a vain attempt to remedy, by instruction to adults, the want of this early training. If we would but duly take care of children, grown people would generally take care of themselves.

from various quarters, and in various shapes.

It is evidently not enough to avoid and discountenance every thing that is *in itself* superstitious;—such as (in addition to several of the things just mentioned) the consulting of pretended witches and soothsayers—faith in dreams and omens, and in lucky and unlucky days; with many superstitions, of the same character; from which many even of the higher orders, in point of birth and station, are by no means wholly exempt, but which prevail to a much greater extent than I believe most persons who have not been much and confidentially conversant with the lower, and those somewhat above the lower, ranks, are at all inclined to suspect. Nor again, is it enough to reject and to discourage all such practices as, without being necessarily and in themselves superstitious, are, either generally, or at any particular time and place, peculiarly liable to be abused to a superstitious purpose, while they may, without any great loss, be dispensed with; such as were many of those practices of the Romish church which our Reformers “brake in pieces,” as Hezekiah did the brazen serpent; not as originally evil, but as the occasion of superstition. All this, I say, is insufficient; because there are so many things which we *cannot* dispense with, which yet are continually liable to become no better than superstitious, through the superstitious character of “the natural man.” We cannot dispense with the sacraments which Christ appointed;—with prayer, both public and private;—with the reading of the Scriptures;—with instructions from the ministers of the Gospel;—with buildings and days set apart, either wholly or partly, for these purposes. Yet these, and every thing else of this kind, are perpetually liable to be abused, and indeed I fear perpetually *are* abused, into occasions of superstition. Our prayers and our study of Scripture are, as I have above remarked, superstitious, when we trust in the efficacy of the words, without earnestly praying with the heart, and labouring to gain instruction in religion: the hearing of sermons is very commonly made an occasion of superstition, when a merit is attached to the act of hearing instruction, without labouring to understand, and profitably apply, that instruction. The sanctity belonging to the “church” of Christ, i. e. to the body of believers who are “the temple of the Holy Ghost which dwell-

eth in them,”* is commonly transferred to the building in which a congregation assembles; while the veneration for that building is shown not so much in an earnest endeavour that the prayers offered up, and the instructions given there, may be profitable to the soul, as in a superstitious feeling of satisfaction on the supposed merit of having, in bodily presence, frequented it during life, with perhaps a hope of future security, from the lifeless body’s reposing within its walls. The sacraments again, as I have said, become superstitious to those who deeply venerate, and trust in, the “outward visible sign,” without thinking of any inward spiritual efforts after the inward spiritual grace. And yet all these, and many other such occasions of superstition, (for such they doubtless are often made,) are what we cannot dispense with. The more vigilance therefore must we use in our own case, and inculcate upon others, in guarding against the inroads of superstition.

In no point we may be assured is our spiritual enemy more vigilant: he is ever ready, not merely to tempt us with the unmixed poison of known sin, but to corrupt even our food, and to taint even our medicine, with the venom of his falsehood. For religion is the medicine of the soul; it is the designed and appropriate preventive and remedy for the evils of our nature; the subtle tempter well knows that no other allurements to sin would be of so much avail, if this medicine were assiduously applied, and applied in undiluted purity: and he knows that superstition is the specific poison which may be the most easily blended with true religion, and which will the most completely destroy its efficacy.

It is for us then to take heed that the “light which is in us be not darkness”—that our religion be kept pure from the noxious admixture of superstition: and it is for us to observe the errors of others,

* It is strange, and it is unfortunate, that so many should have not only overlooked the application of the term “temple,” by the Apostles, invariably to Christians *collectively*, never to the *individual* Christian, but should have even asserted the contrary, on the strength of one text, (1 Cor. vi. 19,) which according to all fair rules of interpretation exhibits (especially in the original Greek) the same sense as the rest of the passages where the word occurs. The apostle must have had *some* meaning in his constant adherence to a firm of speech by no means obvious: and that meaning, whatever it is, we are not likely to take in, if we do not attend to his language. See *Hinds’ “Three Temples of the One God.”*

with a view to our own correction and to our own preservation; instead of contemplating "the mote that is in our brother's eye, while we behold not the beam that is in our own eye." Our conscience, if we carefully regulate, and diligently consult it, will be ready, after we

have seen and condemned (which is no hard task) the faults of our neighbour, to furnish us (where there is need) with that salutary admonition, which the self-blinded king of Israel received from the mouth of the prophet; "Thou art the man."

CHAP. II.

VICARIOUS RELIGION.

§. 1. THE Apostle Paul, in many passages in his Epistles, characterizes the Christian religion* as containing "mysteries," that is, truths not discoverable by human reason, but made known by Divine revelation: as, for instance, in his First Epistle to Timothy,† "without controversy great is the mystery of godliness."

And it is very important to observe, that in all the passages (and they are very numerous) in which he applies the word Mystery (μυστήριον) to the Christian faith, or to any part of it, the circumstance to which he is directing the reader's attention is, not the *concealment*, but the *disclosure*, of the mystery. He implies indeed that the truths so described were *formerly* unknown, and could not be known by man's unaided powers; but he speaks of them as now at length laid open, by the gracious dispensation of Providence; as no longer concealed, except from those who wilfully shut their eyes against the light of divine revelation: "if our Gospel is hid, it is hid to them that are lost, whom the god of this world hath blinded;" and his own office in "proclaiming the good tidings"* of this revelation, he describes as "making known the mystery of the Gospel," "which was kept secret since the world began, but now is made manifest."

Not that the apostle meant to imply but that, after all, the nature and designs of the Most High must be by us very imperfectly understood; but the circumstance to which he is especially calling

attention is, not the unrevealed, but the revealed—not the unintelligible, but the explained—portion of the divine dispensations.

And this he does, in manifest allusion to the mysteries of the ancient Pagan religions; with which, in this respect, he contrasts Christianity; inasmuch as in this last there was not, as among the Pagans, a distinction between the initiated and the uninitiated;—a revelation to some of the worshippers of certain holy secrets from which the rest were excluded; nor *great* mysteries and *lesser* mysteries, (as the Eleusinian,) in which different persons were initiated; but, on the contrary, the "*great*" mysteries of the Christian faith (μέγα μυστήριον) were made known, as far as it is expedient and possible for man to know them, to all alike, whether Jew or Gentile, who were but willing to embrace the truth: and "to know the fellowship" (i. e. the common participation) "of the mystery," κοινωνία τοῦ μυστηρίου, was offered to all. There was not one system of religion for a certain favoured few, and another for the mass of believers; but the great "mystery of godliness" was made accessible, gradually indeed, in proportion as they were able to bear it, but universally. To all Christ's disciples it was "given to know the mysteries of the kingdom of heaven;"* there was "one Lord, one faith, one baptism," and (though with diversity of gifts) one

* For that is evidently the meaning of the expression, ἡ εὐσεβεία, which our translators have rendered "godliness."

† Chap. iii. 16.

‡ This we should always remember is the strict sense of the phrase κηρύσσειν τὸ Εὐαγγέλιον, which we usually render, in words which by familiarity have almost lost their original force, "preaching the Gospel."

* Matt. xiii. 11. "To you it is given to know the mysteries of the kingdom," &c. An objection has been raised from this passage, because it is said that the others, viz., those who were not disciples, were not admitted to the same advantage. But why did they not *become* disciples? If Jesus had rested his claims on the apparent reasonableness of what he taught, it would have been most unfair to require men to join him before they fully understood it: but his claim rested on the "mighty works," which afforded sufficient proof of his coming from God.

and the same spirit sanctifying the church, and dwelling in all its members.

The opposite system to this—that of recognizing different degrees of access to the Deity, and of keeping certain sacred rites and holy secrets confined to a few, and set apart from the multitude—is one of the most remarkable characteristics of natural religion; by which expression I mean, not what is commonly, though improperly, so called; but, such a religious system as men *naturally* fall into, when left to themselves.

The case of the Eleusinian mysteries, above alluded to, is only one instance out of many. Indeed I believe there is hardly any system of Paganism with which we are acquainted, that has not some articles of faith—some religious rites—some kind of pretended theological knowledge—confined, either to the priests or to some privileged order of men, and from which the great body of worshippers is either excluded, or at least exempted.

It might be expected therefore that this character should be found (as in fact it is) in the Romish system; which I have already described as the gradual and (if I may be allowed the expression) spontaneous corruption of Christianity, by the natural unrestrained workings of the human mind.

Men readily perceived, what indeed is very true, that those who have leisure and abilities beyond what falls to the lot of the generality, are enabled, and may be expected, to acquire a larger share of learning, generally, and, among the rest, of theological learning: while the proper *object* of this theological learning (under such a system as that of Christianity) is often lost sight of, viz., to establish the authority, and ascertain and *explain* the meaning, of the sacred writings. And again, men readily perceived, that there are many points connected with religion which are in a great degree beyond their comprehension; without accurately distinguishing *which* are so from their own deficiency in learning, and which from being beyond the reach of the human faculties.

The learned, on the other hand, or such as aspired to that character, felt, of course, the natural love of *distinction* the more gratified, in proportion as their studies were supposed to be directed to points the most abstruse and recondite—to some knowledge respecting things divine, beyond the understanding, and too sacred for the inquiries of ordinary men.

At the same time, the natural inquisitiveness of the human mind after speculative knowledge, especially on the most exalted subjects, having led theologians to overlook the *practical* character of the Christian revelation, and to indulge in presumptuous disquisitions as to the *intrinsic* nature of the Deity, this circumstance could not but contribute still more to set apart a certain portion of (supposed) divine knowledge as unnecessary, and unfit, for vulgar contemplation. Mysterious doctrines unconnected with Christian practice, at least with such practice as was required from the great mass of Christians, it was sufficient that they should assent to with implicit faith, without attempting to examine the proofs of such matters—to understand the doctrines themselves—or even to know what they were: “I do not presume, nor am able, to comprehend the mysteries of the faith, but leave them to my spiritual guides; I believe all that the holy catholic church receives;—such was the language—such the easy and compendious confession of faith—which resulted from the indolence—the spiritual carelessness—the weakness, and the dishonest ambition, of human nature.

The unprofitable, absurd, presumptuous, and profane speculations of scholastic theologians (not all of them members of the Romish church) which are extant, afford a melancholy specimen of the fruits of this mistake as to the Christian mysteries—this “corruption from the *simplicity* that is in Christ.”

Specimens of this “philosophy and vain deceit,”—such as are to be found in various dissertations on what are called the mysterious doctrines of the Christian faith—such as I cannot bring myself to transcribe, and cannot even think of without shuddering—it may be sometimes a profitable though a painful task to peruse, in order to estimate duly, as a warning and admonition to ourselves, the effects of misapplied learning and misdirected ingenuity. To select one instance out of many, no point in these systems of speculative theology has so much exercised the perverted powers of divines of this stamp, as the mystery of the Trinity;* or

* The selection of this particular doctrine by way of illustration was suggested by the circumstance, that the discourse, of which the following pages contain the substance, was delivered before the University on Trinity-Sunday. I have retained the passage, because I can think of no other instance that better illustrates what has been said.

as *they* might with more propriety have called it, the mystery of the divine *Unity*: for though in itself the doctrine so sedulously inculcated throughout the Scriptures, that there is but One God, seems to present no revolting difficulty, yet, on rising from the disquisitions of many scholastic divines on the inherent distinctions of the three Divine Persons, a candid reader cannot but feel that *they* have made the Unity of God the great and difficult mystery;* and have in fact

* It is, however, important to remark, that though the Unity of the Deity is not *in itself* a doctrine of very mysterious difficulty, it is one which is the more earnestly dwelt on in Scripture, besides other reasons, for one resulting from the tone of the Scriptures themselves. For they would, *but for* these express declarations, naturally lead the reader either to believe in three Gods, or at least to be in doubt on the question. The doctrine of the Trinity is not so much *declared* as a distinct article of faith, as it is *implied* by the whole history recorded, and views every where taken, in Scripture, of God's threefold manifestation of himself; which are such as would present to our minds nothing inconsistent with the agency of three Divine Beings acting in concert, were it not that such sedulous care is taken to assure us of the numerical Unity of the God thus manifested to us;—that in the Son “dwelleth all the fulness of the Godhead,” &c. &c. See Essay vii. (Second Series,) p. 234, 235, and Essay ix. p. 277—281. See also Hinds' “Three Temples of the One God,” p. 129, 132, for a most luminous view of this important subject.

The reader is also referred to the Articles “One,” and “Person,” in the Appendix to the “Elements of Logic.” It has been doubted whether there is any foundation for the suspicion I have there expressed, that the language of some divines has a leaning towards Tritheism. The following extract will at once explain my meaning, and prove, I conceive, satisfactorily, that my apprehensions are not altogether groundless. It is taken from a work of considerable merit, and which has obtained not only much popularity, but also a peculiarly high description of patronage. Several of my readers will perhaps recognize the passage; but I purposely avoid naming the book, because it is not my object to discuss the merits of this or that individual work, but to call attention to the notions which are afloat in the world, generally; and I am so far from designing to particularize the work in question, as containing any thing novel, peculiar, likely to be generally offensive, and at variance with prevailing opinions, that my meaning is the very reverse.

“When the great Creator had finished the rest of his works, wanting another creature to rule them all, and as their Priest, to adore him in their name, he said, ‘Let us make man in our own image, after our likeness.’ In the creation of other things all is done with the tone of command, or with a mere volition. ‘Let there be light; let there be a firmament; let the earth bring forth so and so.’ But when man is to be made—a creature who is to be endued with reason and intelli-

so nearly explained it away, and so bewildered the minds of their disciples, as to drive them to withdraw their thoughts habitually and deliberately from every thing connected with the subject;* as the only mode left for the unlearned to keep clear of error. Yet it might have occurred, one would have thought, to both parties, that learning cannot advance one man beyond another in the comprehension of things which are confessedly beyond the reach of the human faculties altogether;—that in total darkness, or in respect of objects beyond our horizon, the clearest and the dimmest sight are on a level;—and that of matters relating to the Deity and revealed by him, not as a special secret, to a favoured few, but to all who would hear his voice, and which cannot be discovered any otherwise than through this revelation—of these, none *need* know less, and none *can* know more, than the Almighty has thus revealed.

The nature of God as he *is in himself*, can never be comprehended by the wisest of his creatures; but the doctrine of the Trinity, and the rest of the mysteries of the Gospel, as far as they *relate to us*, since he *has* thought fit to reveal these to us in the Gospel, every Christian is allowed, and is bound, to learn from that revelation “of the mystery which was secret from the beginning of the world, but now is *made manifest*,”† And the doctrine of the Trinity, (which is perhaps the oftenest of any treated as a speculative truth about which none but learned divines need trouble themselves,) as it is a summary of that faith into‡ which we

gence—the very image of the Maker—he uses an expression which indicates deliberation and counsel; he consults with some other august Beings, (the two remaining Persons of the Trinity, no doubt,) of whom, as well as of himself, man was to be both the workmanship and the resemblance.”

If this passage had stood alone in the Jewish Scriptures, or if the Jews had interpreted it, as this writer has done, without any reference to the other passages of Scripture which serve to qualify and guard it, they would doubtless (as the above extract seems to show) have adopted nearly the same hypothesis as was long afterward broached by Arius;—that the supreme God acts in concert “with some other august Beings!”

* I am enabled to state this as no mere conjecture or suspicion, but as a matter of *fact* coming within my own experience; I mean, in respect of sundry individual cases; and it is individual cases only that come within the province of experience.

† Rom. xvi. 25.

‡ Teach all nations, baptizing them *into* the name (*eis τὸ ὄνομα*) of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost:” this is evidently the right rendering of the original words, and conveys the

are baptized, and the key-stone of the Christian system, ought to be set forth continually and universally, as the support of every part of the building of the Christian faith, and the Christian life: reference should be made to it, not merely on some stated solemn occasions, as to an abstruse tenet to be assented to, and then laid aside, but perpetually, as to a practical doctrine, connected with every other point of religious belief and conduct.

§. 2. In no point perhaps has the real origin of the Romish corruptions been more imperfectly perceived, than in the one now before us—the setting apart of certain religious dogmas—duties—privileges—in short certain portions of Christianity, as confined to a distinct class of men, and in which the laity were either not allowed or not required to have a share. We are not accustomed to hear much of priestcraft—of the subtle arts of designing men, who imposed on the simplicity of an ignorant people, and persuaded them to believe that they, the priests, alone understood the nature of the Deity—the proper mode in which to propitiate him—and the mysterious doctrines to which the others were to give their implicit assent; and the poor deluded people are represented as prevailed on against their better judgment, by the sophistry, and promises, and threats, of these crafty impostors, to make *them* the keepers of their consciences—their mediators, and substitutes in the service of God, and their despotic spiritual rulers.

There is undoubtedly much truth in such a representation; but it leaves on the mind an erroneous impression, because it is (at the utmost) only *half* the truth.

If indeed, in any country, priests had been beings of a different species—or a distinct caste, as in some of the Pagan nations where the priesthood is hereditary;—if this race had been distinguished from the people by intellectual superiority and moral depravity, and if the people had been sincerely desirous of knowing, and serving, and obeying God for themselves, but had been persuaded by these demons in human form that this

was impossible, and that the laity must trust *them* to perform what was requisite, in their stead, and submit implicitly to their guidance—then indeed there would be ground for regarding priestcraft as altogether the work of the priests, and in no degree of the people. But we should remember, that in every age and country, (even where they were, as the Romish priests were not, a distinct caste,) priests must have been mere men, of like passions with their brethren; and though sometimes they might have, on the whole, a considerable intellectual superiority, yet, it must always have been impossible to delude men into the reception of such gross absurdities, if they had not found in them a readiness—nay, a craving—for delusion. The reply which is recorded of a Romish priest is, (not in the sight of God indeed, but) as far as regards any complaint on the part of the laity, a satisfactory defence; when taxed with some of the monstrous impostures of his church, his answer was, “*Populus vult decipi, et decipitur.*” Such indeed was the case of Aaron, and similar the defence he offered, for making the Israelites an image, at their desire. Let it not be forgotten, that the *first recorded* instance of departure from purity of worship, as established by the revelation to the Israelites, was forced on the *priest* by the *people*.

The truth is, mankind have an innate propensity, as to other errors, so to that of endeavouring to serve God by proxy;—to commit to some distinct order of men the care of their religious concerns, in the same manner as they confide the care of their bodily health to the physician, and of their legal transactions to the lawyer; deeming it sufficient to follow implicitly their directions, without attempting themselves to become acquainted with the *mysteries* of medicine or of law.* Even thus are they willing and desirous that others should study, and should un-

* Nothing is more mischievous than an incorrect analogy that is constantly before us, and familiar to our minds. Like a distorted mirror in the apartment we inhabit, it produces, not an insulated or occasional error, but a deep-seated and habitual false impression. Now nothing can be more familiar than the seeming analogy between the several professions. Men may rather be said habitually to feel, than distinctly to maintain, (indeed the falsehood would be easily detected in a formal assertion,) that as the soldier is in respect of military, and the sailor, in respect of naval affairs, and the physician, in respect of remedies for bodily disease, and the lawyer, in legal matters, so is the clergyman in respect of religion.

sense which must have been meant, viz., that the baptized convert was enrolled and enlisted, as it were, into the service of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost. The Vulgate Latin has “*in nomine,*” and our translation, (perhaps from too great reverence for that authority,) “*in the name;*” which does violence to the original, and introduces a different idea, quite inappropriate.

derstand, the mysterious doctrines of religion in their stead—should practise, in their stead, some more exalted kind of piety and of virtue—and should offer prayers and sacrifices on their behalf, both in their lifetime and after their death. For man, except when unusually depraved, retains enough of the image of his Maker, to have a natural reverence for religion, and a desire that God should be worshipped; but, through the corruption of his nature, his heart is (except when divinely purified) too much alienated from God to take delight in serving him. Hence the disposition men have ever shown, to substitute the devotion of the priest for their own;—to leave the duties of piety in his hands—and to let him serve God *in their stead*. This disposition is not so much the *consequence*, as itself the origin, of priestcraft. The Romish hierarchy did but take advantage from time to time of this natural propensity, by engrafting successively on its system such practices and points of doctrine as favoured it, and which were naturally converted into a source of profit and influence to the priesthood. Hence the gradual transformation of the Christian minister—the presbyter—into the sacrificing priest, the *hiereus*, (in Latin, “*sacerdos*,” as the Romanists call theirs,) of the Jewish and Pagan religions. This last is an error of which no inconsiderable remains are to be traced in the minds of Protestants, and on which, as it appears to me to be very important, I shall beg to be indulged in making some more particular observations.

§. 3. * That the English word PRIEST is frequently employed for the rendering of two different words in Greek, *viz.*, ‘*ἱερεὺς*, and *πρεσβύτερος*, (from the latter of which our “presbyter” or “priest” is derived,) is a circumstance of which no scholar can be ignorant indeed, but which is not in general sufficiently attended to: for it is not the same thing to be merely *acquainted* with the ambiguity of a word, and to be practically aware of it, and watchful of the consequences connected with it. And it is, I conceive, of no small importance that this ambiguity should be carefully and frequently explained to those who are ignorant of the original language of the Old Testament.

Our own name for the ministers of our own religion, we naturally apply to the *ministers* (in whatever sense) of any other religion; but the two words which have thus come to be translated “priest,” seem by no means to be used synonymously. The priests, both of the Jews and of Pagan nations,* constantly bear, in the sacred writers, the title of *hiereus*; which title they never apply to any of the Christian ministers ordained by the apostles. These are called by the title of *episcopos*, (literally superintendent; whence our English word “bishop;”) *presbyteros*, literally elder, and so rendered by our translators, probably to avoid the ambiguity just alluded to; though the very word “presbyter” or “priest,” is but a corruption of that name: and—*diaconos*, literally “minister;” from which our word deacon is but slightly altered.

These titles, from their original vague and general signification, became gradually not only restricted in great measure to Christian ministers, but also more precisely distinguished from each other than at first they had been; so as to be appropriated respectively to the different orders of those ministers, instead of being applied indiscriminately. But no mention is made, by the sacred writers, of any such office being established by the apostles, as that of “priest” in the other sense, *viz.*, *hiereus*;—priest, in short, such as we find mentioned, under that name, in Scripture.

Now this alone would surely be a strong presumption that they regarded the two offices as essentially distinct; for they must have been perfectly familiar with the *name*; and had they intended to institute the same *office*, or one very similar to it, we cannot but suppose they would have employed that name†. The mere circumstance that the Christian religion is very *different* from all others, would, of itself, have been no reason against this; for the difference is infinite between the divinely-instituted religion of the Jews, and the idolatrous superstitions of the heathen; and yet, from similarity of office, the word *hiereus* is applied by the sacred writers to the ministers of both religions.

* Acts xiv. 13.

† For it should never be forgotten, that Christianity is the offspring of Judaism, and that all the institutions and regulations of the Christian church emanated from men who had been brought up as Jews, and who would not have deviated from what they had been used to, on slight grounds.

* The passage which follows I have taken the liberty of extracting, in substance, and nearly in words, from a Discourse delivered before the University of Oxford, on the 5th of Nov. 1821, and published with the second edition of the Bampton Lectures.

The difference of names, then, is in such a case as this a matter of no trifling importance, but would, even of itself, lead us to infer a difference of *things*, and to conclude that the apostles regarded their religion as having no priest at all, (in the sense of ἱερεὺς,) except Christ Jesus, of whom indeed all the Levitical priests were but types.

§. 4. It should next be considered what was the nature of that office which was exercised by the Jewish and by the Pagan priests; and which, according to the apostle, belonged, after the establishment of Christ's kingdom, to him alone.

The priests of the Israelites were appointed by the Almighty himself, for the express purpose of offering *sacrifices*, in the name and on the behalf of the people; they alone were allowed to make oblations and burn incense before the Lord: it was through them that the people were to approach him, that their service might be acceptable: a very great portion of the Jewish religion consisted in the performance of certain ceremonial rights, most of which could only be duly performed by the priests, or through their mediation and assistance; they were to make *intercession* and *atonement* for offenders; they, in short, were the *mediators* between God and man.

It is true the Israelites were a sacred *nation*, and are called in Scripture a "kingdom of priests;" but it is plain that this is not to be understood as admitting them all indiscriminately to the exercise of the sacred offices just mentioned; since the most tremendous punishments were denounced (of whose infliction examples are recorded) against any who, not being of the seed of Aaron, presumed to take upon them to burn incense and make oblations.

But it was requisite to impress on the minds of the Israelites that they were not to entertain the notion (which appears to have been not uncommon among the heathen) that religion was the exclusive concern of the priests: they, on the contrary, were required to worship God themselves—to conform to his ordinances—to keep themselves pure from all defilement, moral or ceremonial—and to practise all their duties out of reverence to God, their Lawgiver and King; they were, in short, to be priests in piety of heart and holiness of life. And in the same sense Peter calls Christians "a royal priesthood;" and John, in the Apocalypse, speaks of them as "kings and

priests;" evidently meaning that they were dedicated to Christ, and were bound to offer up themselves as a living sacrifice devoted to him. For it is most important to observe, that when the title of priest is applied to *Christians*, it is applied to *all* of them.

There may have been another intention also in calling the Israelites a kingdom of priests; *viz.*, to point out that the mysteries of their religion (which among the Pagans were in general kept secret among the priests, or some select number whom these admitted to the knowledge of them) were revealed, as far as they were revealed at all, to the whole of this favoured nation. Many parts indeed of the Mosaic institutions were but imperfectly understood by any, as to their object and signification; but nothing seems to have been imparted to the priests which was withheld from the people. This very striking distinction is remarked by Josephus, who observes, that such religious mysteries as, among the heathen, were concealed by the priests, were imparted to the whole Jewish nation.

That there was, however, a distinct order of priests, properly so called, set apart for a peculiar purpose, is undeniable and undisputed.

Among the Pagans, whose institutions appear to have been, in great measure, corrupt imitations of those of the patriarchal religion, we find, as before, priests, who were principally, if not exclusively, the offerers of sacrifices, in behalf of the state and of individuals—intercessors—supplicating and making atonement for others—mediators between man and the object of his worship.

This peculiarity of office was even carried to the length of an abuse: (I speak now of the abuses introduced into the *institutions* of the Pagans, in contradistinction to the absurdities of their *faith*;) there seems to have been as (has been already hinted) a strong tendency to regard all religion as exclusively the concern of the priests;—that they were to be the sole depositaries of the mysteries of things sacred;—that a high degree of holiness of life and devotion were required of them alone;—that they were to be religious, as it were, instead of the people;—and that men had only to show true respect to the priests, and leave to them the service of the Deity; just as they commit the defence of the state to soldiers, and the cure of their diseases to physicians. Against such notions (as

was before remarked) the Israelites were studiously, and not without reason, cautioned.

The office of priest, then, in that sense of the word which I am now considering, viz., as equivalent to *hiereus*, being such as has been described, it follows that, in our religion, the *only* priest, in that sense, is Jesus Christ himself; to whom consequently, and to whom alone, under the Gospel, the title is applied by the inspired writers. He alone has offered up an atoning *sacrifice* for us, even the sacrifice of his own blood; he “ever liveth to make *intercession* for us;” he is the “one *Mediator* between God and man;” “through him we have access to the Father;” and “no man cometh unto the Father but by him.”

§. 5. As for the ministers whom he, and his apostles, and their successors, appointed, they are completely distinct from priests in the former sense, in office, as well as in name. Of this office, one principal part is that it belongs to them (not exclusively indeed, but principally and especially) to preach the Gospel—to maintain order and decency in their religious assemblies, and Christian discipline, generally—to instruct, exhort, admonish, and spiritually govern, Christ’s flock. His command was, to “go and teach all nations;”—to “preach the Gospel to every creature:” and these Christian ministers are called in the Epistle to the Hebrews, “those that bear rule over them, and watch for their souls, as they that must give an account.” Now it is worthy of remark, that the office I am at present speaking of made no part of the especial duties of a priest, in the other sense, such as those of the Jews, and of the Pagans. Among the former, it was not so much the family of Aaron, as the whole tribe of Levi, that seem to have been set aside for the purpose of *teaching* the Law: and even to these it was so far from being in any degree confined, that persons of any tribe might teach publicly in the synagogues on the Sabbath day; as was done by our Lord himself, who was of the tribe of Judah; and by Paul, of the tribe of Benjamin, without any objection being raised: whereas an intrusion into the priest’s office would have been vehemently resented.

And as for the Pagan priests, *their* business was rather to conceal, than to explain, the mysteries of their religion;—to keep the people in darkness, than to enlighten them. Accordingly, the moral

improvement of the people, among the ancients, seems to have been considered as the proper care of the legislator, whose laws and systems of public education generally had this object in view. To these, and to the public disputations of philosophers, but by no means to the priests of their religion, they appear to have looked for instruction in their duty.

That the Christian ministry, on the contrary, were appointed, in great measure, if not principally, for the express purpose of giving religious instruction and admonition, is clearly proved both by the practice of the apostles themselves, and by Paul’s directions to Timothy and to Titus.

Another, and that a peculiar and exclusive office of the Christian ministers, at least according to the practice of most churches, is the administration of the sacraments of baptism and the Lord’s supper. But this administration does not at all assimilate the Christian priesthood to the Pagan or the Jewish. The former of these rites is, in the first place, an admission into the visible church; and therefore very suitably received at the hands of those whose especial business is to *instruct* and examine those who are candidates for baptism, as adults, or who have been baptized in their infancy; and in the second place, it is an admission to a participation in the gifts of the Spirit; without which the church itself, and the formal admission into it, would be an empty mockery. The treasury, as it were, of divine grace is then thrown open, to which we may resort when a sufficient maturity of years enables us to understand our wants, and we are inclined to apply for their relief. It is not, let it be observed, through the mediation of an earthly priest that we are admitted to offer our supplications before God’s mercy-seat; we are authorized, by virtue of this sacred rite, to appear, as it were, in his presence, ourselves, needing no intercessor with the Father, but his son Jesus Christ, both God and man. “Having therefore,” says Paul, “*boldness* to enter into the holiest by the blood of Jesus, by a new and living way, which he hath consecrated for us, and having a High Priest over the house of God, let us draw near with a true heart, in full *assurance* of faith, having our hearts sprinkled from an evil conscience, and our bodies washed with pure water.”

The sacrament of the Lord’s supper,

again, is not, as the Romanists impiously pretend, a fresh sacrifice, but manifestly a celebration of the one already made; and the rite seems plainly to have been ordained for the express purpose (among others) of fixing our minds on the great and single oblation of himself, made by the only High Priest, once for all;—that great High Priest who has no earthly successor. And *all* the communicants are alike partakers, spiritually, of the body and blood of Christ, (i. e. of the Spirit of Christ, represented by his flesh and blood, as these again are, by the bread and wine,*) provided *they themselves* are in a sanctified and right frame of mind. It is on the personal holiness of the communicant, not of the minister, that the efficacy of this sacrament depends; *he*, so far from offering any sacrifice himself, refers them to the sacrifice already made by another.

Such being then the respective offices of these two orders of men, (both now commonly called in English “priests.”) but originally distinguished by the names of ἱερεὺς and πρεσβύτερος,) we may assert that the word in question is *ambiguous*; denoting, when thus applied to both, two things, essentially distinct. It is not merely a comprehensive term, embracing two species under one class, but rather an equivocal term, applied, in different senses, to two things of different classes. Thus the word publican, for instance, is ambiguous when applied to a “tax-gatherer” and an “inn-keeper;” though “man,” which is a still more comprehensive term, may be applied to both without ambiguity; because, however widely they differ, it denotes them only so far forth as they agree; in short, it is applied to them *in the same sense*; which “publican” is not. No more is “priest,” when applied to the “hierēus” and the “presbyteros.” At least it must be admitted, that what is most essential to each respectively, is wanting in the other. The essential characteristic of the Jewish priests was, (not their being *ministers* of religion; for that, in a certain sense, all the Levites were; but) their offering *sacrifices*, and making atonement and intercession for the people: whereas of the Christian minister the especial office is religious instruction, regulation of the religious assemblies, and of the religious and moral conduct, of the people generally; (an office corresponding to that of

the Jewish elders or presbyters, and of the “rulers of synagogues,”) and the administration of rites totally different in their nature from the offering of sacrifices;—totally precluding the idea of his making himself the mediator between God and man.

§. 6. The confounding together, then, through the ambiguity of language, two things thus essentially distinct, may well be expected to mislead, not only such as are ignorant of the distinction, but all who do not carefully attend to it, and keep it steadily in view. If we are but careful not to lose sight of the two meanings of the word “priest”—the broad distinction between ἱερεὺς and πρεσβύτερος—we shall run no risk of being either seduced or silenced by all the idle clamours that are afloat about priestcraft. Our readiest and shortest answer will be, that Christianity (I mean Christianity as found in Scripture, not as perverted by the Romish church, which claims an authority independent of Scripture,) has no priestcraft, for this simple reason, that it has (in that sense of the word in which our opponents employ it) *no priest on earth*.

And it is worthy of remark how striking a *peculiarity* this is in our religion; there being probably no religion in the world, certainly none that has ever prevailed among the more celebrated nations, which has not priests in the same sense in which the Levitical priests and those of the ancient Greeks and Romans are so called. Now every peculiarity of our religion is worth noticing, with a view to the confirmation of our faith, even though it may not at first sight strike us as a distinguishing *excellence*: for that our religion should differ from all others, in points in which they all agree, is a presumption at least that it is not drawn from the same origin. And the presumption is the stronger, inasmuch as the difference I have been speaking of is not slight or verbal, but real and essential. The priesthood of Pagan nations, and that of our own, are not merely *unlike*, but, in the most essential points, even *opposite*. *They* offer sacrifices for the people; *we* refer them to a sacrifice made by another; *they* profess to be the mediators through whom the Deity is to be addressed; *we* teach them to look to a heavenly Mediator, and in his name boldly to approach God’s mercy-seat themselves: *they* study to conceal the mysteries of religion; *we* labour to make them known: *they* have, for the most part, hidden sacred books, which

* See note on the Eucharist appended to Essay viii. Second Series.

none but a chosen few may look into; *we* teach and exhort men to study the word of God themselves: *they* strive to keep the people in darkness, and to stifle inquiry; *we* make it our business to enlighten them; urging them to "search the Scriptures"—to "prove all things—and to hold fast that which is right:" *they* practise the duties of their religion *instead* of the people; *we* instruct and admonish all to practise them for themselves. And it may be added, that *they* in general teach, that a devoted confidence in them and obedience to their commands, will serve as a substitute for a moral life; while *we* declare to them from Scripture, that it is in vain to call Jesus Lord, if they "do not the things which he says."

Now if the Jews be justly condemned, who crucified our Lord between two thieves,—thus studiously "numbering with the transgressors" of the vilest kind, the only Man who never transgressed—it is awful to think what account those will have to render at the last day, who labour to vilify this religion, by confounding it with the grossest systems of human imposture and superstition, in those very points in which the two are not only different, but absolutely *contrasted*.

§. 7. Great occasion however (as I have said) has been afforded for the enemies of our faith to blaspheme, by the corruptions which the Romish church has sanctioned, especially in what regards the Christian priesthood. She has, in fact, in a great degree, transformed the presbyter—the priest of the Gospel dispensation—into the hierous, or Levitical priest: thus derogating from the honour of the one great High Priest, and altering some of the most characteristic features of his religion, into something more like Judaism or Paganism than Christianity.

The Romish priest professes, like the Jewish, to offer sacrifice (the sacrifice of the mass) to propitiate God towards himself and his congregation: the efficacy of that sacrifice is made to depend on sincerity and rectitude of intention, not in the *communicants* themselves, but in the *priest*; he, assuming the character of a mediator and intercessor, prays, not *with*, but *for*, the people, in a tongue unknown to them, and in an inaudible voice: the whole style and character of the service being evidently far different from what the apostle must have intended, in commanding us to "pray for one another." The Romish priest undertakes to recon-

cile transgressors with the Almighty, by prescribing penances, to be performed by them, in order to obtain *his* absolution; and, profanely copying our only High Priest, pretends to transfer to them his own merits, or those of the saints. He, like a Pagan, rather than a Jewish priest, keeps hidden from the people the volume of their faith, that they may with ignorant reverence submit to the dominion of error, instead of being "made free by the truth," which he was expressly commissioned to make known; thus hiding the "candle under a bushel," which was designed to "be a light to lighten the nations."

In short, whoever will minutely examine, with this view, the errors of the Romish church, will find that a very large and important portion of them may be comprehended under this one general censure, that they have destroyed the true character of the Christian priesthood; substituting for it, in great measure, what cannot be called a priesthood, except in a different sense of the word. They have, in short, gone far towards changing the office of presbyter into that of hierous. Against that church, therefore, the charge of priestcraft may but too justly be brought.

A natural consequence of this error, indeed properly speaking, a part of it, is that further approach to Judaism, the error of regarding a Christian place of worship as answering to the *temple*,—"the house of God" in Jerusalem; whereas it really corresponds to a Jewish *synagogue*. And thus the reverence due to the real temple of the Lord now subsisting among us and within us ("ye are the temple of the Holy Ghost which dwelleth in you") is transferred from the people—the "lively stones" of God's house, to the building in which they assemble.* On the same principle, the table used for the celebration of the Eucharist is often called (consistently, by Romanists, but inconsistently, by Protestants) the "altar."

Part of the same system again was the performance of divine service in an unknown tongue—the concealment of the sacred mysteries of the Christian faith behind the veil of a dead language—and the opposition made to the translation of the Scriptures into the vernacular languages.

§. 8. If any one doubts the existence, among Protestants of the present day, of

* See Hind's Three Temples of the One God.

a like principle, he may find but too convincing a proof of it in the opposition still made by some, to the education of the poor. Surely many of those who profess the greatest abhorrence of Romish errors, have never considered that this denial of the Scriptures to the people is one of the worst of them; and that whether the Bible is in Latin or in English, makes little difference to one who cannot read. Nor do such persons consider, that it was (if I may so speak) the great boast of the founder of our faith, that "to the poor the Gospel was preached:" so that if his religion be not really calculated for these, his pretensions must have been unfounded. The very truth of his divine mission is at issue on this question.

And yet if it were asked of any one, Romanist or Protestant, who professes to acknowledge the divine origin of the Christian religion, whether that religion was designed for the great mass of the people, or merely for a few of the higher classes, he would be sure to answer, that it was intended for all mankind. And in proof of this, he might cite numerous passages of the Scriptures which imply it; such as the command of our Lord to preach the Gospel to every creature," and his application, just above noticed, of the prophecy, "to the poor the Gospel is preached." And he would represent it (and justly) as a point of the highest importance, as I have said, towards our belief in the Christian religion, that we should regard it as suited to all mankind as one which all, above the condition of mere savages, are capable of embracing; because otherwise it cannot be a true revelation. For the first founders of it plainly had this design; Jesus Christ himself did certainly intend his religion for high and low, rich and poor; and therefore, if it be not one which the lower ranks of society are *capable* of embracing, he, the founder of it, must have been mistaken in his calculation—must have been ignorant either of the character of his own religion, or of the nature of man; which would of course imply that he could not have been divinely inspired. The systems of Aristotle or Plato, of Newton or Locke, may conceivably be very true, although the mass of mankind cannot comprehend them, because they were never intended for the mass of mankind: but the Christian religion was; and therefore it cannot really be a divine revelation, unless it be

such as men in general understand and embrace.

And yet, though such would be the answer which almost all believers would give, in words, if such a question were put, there are, as I have said, not a few who, in *practice*, give a contrary answer.

I mean, that they act as if the Christian religion were *not* designed for the lower orders, but only for a small portion of mankind. For this those do, who, under the pretence that the labouring classes "need not be profound theologians," consider it unnecessary, or even mischievous, to give them such an education as may enable them to study for themselves the Scriptures, and the explanations needful for the understanding of them. And yet they profess to hold, that the Christian religion *was* meant to be embraced by people of all ranks.

Whence comes this contradiction? this inconsistency of their practical views with their professed belief? It arises, I conceive, from their not considering what the Christian religion is, and what is meant by embracing it. When they say that they believe it to be designed for the mass of the people, and yet that these need not, or should not, be educated, what they mean is this: that it is possible for a man without any education, to be sober, honest, industrious, contented, &c., and that sobriety, honesty, and the rest, are Christian virtues; and that, consequently, a man may be a good practical Christian without any education. What they mean, in short, by a man's being a good Christian, is his doing those things which are enjoined to Christians, and abstaining from those things which are forbidden. To know on what grounds the Christian religion is to be believed, to understand any thing of its doctrines, to adopt or to comprehend any Christian motives and principles of conduct, all this they conceive to be unnecessary, except for the clergy and the higher classes, as long as a man's conduct is but right. Now this is in fact, as I have said, the Romish system; which is so natural to man that, under one shape or another, it is continually springing up under new names. The Romish church, we know, used to forbid, and, as long as it was possible, prevented, the Scripture being translated into the popular languages; and enjoined the people not to attempt to pry into religious questions for themselves, but to believe implicitly and in the lump, all that the holy church believed, and do what-

ever their priests enjoined them, without making any inquiries; and this, they declared, was the way to be good Christians.

Now to waive the question how far any one is *likely* to lead a moral life who knows little or nothing about his religion—let it be supposed that a man is leading such a life; still I contend that it cannot be said to be a Christian life, if it does not spring from Christian principles. The brute-animals conform to the design of their Maker, an act in a manner suitable to the nature with which He has endued them: but it would sound strange to say that they are *religious*. Why not? because they have no knowledge or notion of a God, but fulfil his designs without intending and without knowing it. And no more can a man be said to embrace the Christian religion, and to lead a Christian life, who does indeed fulfil all the Christian commandments, but not from any Christian principle—from any motives peculiar to the Christian religion—but for the sake of credit, or health, or prosperity, in the world, or from fear of human punishment—or from deference to the authority of the priest, or of some other person whom he looks up to, or from any other such motive. Worldly goods will undoubtedly be produced by honest industry, temperance, friendliness, and good conduct in general. And it is conceivable therefore, (I do not say likely,) but it is certainly conceivable, that a man might conduct himself practically as a Christian should do, merely for the sake of these worldly advantages, and not from any Christian principle. But in that case his could no more be called a Christian life, than that of a brute animal, or than the movements of a machine. The patient who has been cured of his disease, by strictly conforming to the directions of a skilful physician, is not, by swallowing the medicines prescribed, a step the nearer to becoming himself a physician.*

Every part of the New Testament bears witness to the truth of what I have been saying. The apostles do not even allow it to be sufficient, that a man should believe in Christianity, without knowing *why* he believes it. "Be always ready," says the apostle Paul, "to give a reason for the hope that is in you." Indeed it is plain, that if any one believes any thing without any reason, but merely because some one has told him to do so, even if

that which he believes be the truth, yet it is only by chance that he believes the truth;—he does not believe it *because* it is true; and this is not faith, but blind credulity. Now "without faith it is impossible to please God." And, according to the apostles, the Christian is required not only to believe in his religion and to know what that religion is, but to implant in his mind Christian feelings and motives—"to grow in *grace*," as well as "in the *knowledge* of our Lord Jesus Christ"—to be actuated by gratitude and love for Christ, who died for his sins—by an earnest desire to prove that love by copying his example—by obeying his commands—by being led by his Spirit; and, at every step he takes, "looking unto Jesus, the Author and Finisher of our faith," as his pattern and his support in this life, and his eternal rewarder in the next.

Such being then the view which Christ himself and his apostles took of the Christian religion, which religion he evidently meant to be "preached to every creature," and considered as one which might be, and should be, embraced by men of all classes, it is plain that, if they were not mistaken in their views—in short, if they really were sent from God—it is possible and needful that all classes should have a sufficiency of education to enable them to understand what their religion is, and why it should be received, and how it is to be acted upon.

It is but a slight modification of the same Romanist principle to propose that the poor should indeed be taught to read, and should have the *four Evangelists* put into their hands, but that all, except learned divines, should be discouraged as much as possible from the perusal of the *Apostolic Epistles*, lest they should "wrest these to their own destruction;" a pretext which was urged with equal reason, and perhaps with more consistency, by the Romanists, for precluding the people from reading "the other Scriptures" also.*

The Christian religion, as represented in Scripture, is one that is to be believed on rational conviction, and studied, and felt, and brought into the practice of life, by each man for himself, in all classes of society. The Christian religion, as perverted by the church of Rome, and as human nature is always tending to pervert it, is in fact *two* religions; one for

* See Arist. Eth. Nic. b. ii. ch. 4. b. vi. ch. 12.

* I have treated fully of this question in Essay II. Second Series.

the initiated few, and one for the mass of the people, who are to follow implicitly the guidance of the others, trusting to their vicarious wisdom, and piety, and learning, believing and practising just as much as these permit and require.

Perhaps the use of the terms "pastor" and "flock," to express the relation between the minister and his congregation, may have led the incautious to form insensibly a notion of some more close analogy than really subsists. He cannot too often or too earnestly warn the people, that they are not properly *his* flock, but Christ's; he is only an assistant and servant of the "chief Shepherd;" and must not only refer at every step to Scripture, but also warn his hearers not to take upon trust his interpretation, but themselves to "search the Scriptures daily, whether those things be so" which he teaches. The language of Scripture is, (I believe invariably,) "*feed the flock of Christ;*" "*feed my sheep,*" &c.

But the Romish system makes the people altogether the priest's flock, by exalting him into the mediator between them and God. Hence sprung the doctrine of the necessity of confession to a priest, and of the efficacy of the penance he may enjoin, and the absolution he bestows—hence the celibacy of the clergy, as of an order of men of peculiar sanctity. Hence the doctrine of works of supererogation, and of the supposed transferableness from one man to another of the merit of such extraordinary holiness as is not required of Christians in general.

§. 9. I repeat, that these, and a whole train of similar absurdities, are too gross to have been forced upon the belief of men not predisposed to receive them:—predisposed, I mean, not by mere intellectual weakness, but by a moral perversity combined with it;—by a heart alienated from God, yet fearful of his displeasure, and coveting the satisfaction of a quiet conscience at the least possible expense of personal piety and personal exertion.

In all ages and countries, man, through the disposition he inherits from our first parents, is more desirous of a *quiet* and approving, than of a vigilant and *tender* conscience;—studious to escape the *thought* of spiritual danger, more than the danger itself; and to induce, at any price, some one to assure him confidently that he is safe—to "prophesy unto him smooth things," and to "speak peace," even "when there is no peace."

Inexcusable indeed, in the sight of God, are those who encourage and take advantage of such a delusion; but the people have little right to complain of them. To many of them one might say, "you have had what you sought; you were not seeking in sincerity to know and to please God; if you had been, you would have perceived the vanity of attempting to substitute the piety and good works of a sinful fellow-mortal for your own; you would have perceived the extravagance of imagining that you could purchase happiness or relief in a future state, by hiring a priest to say masses for your soul: what you sought for in reality was the repose of your soul in this life; a security from the disturbances of conscience, and from a sense of personal responsibility: these false comforts are what in reality your heart was set on; and these alone are what you have purchased."

If such then be the natural propensity of the human mind, we must expect that it will always, and every where, be struggling to show itself, not only when encouraged, but when not carefully watched and repressed, by the ministry.

I might appeal to any one who has had, and has made use of, the requisite experience, whether he has not continually met with more or less of this tendency to substitute the religious knowledge, the faith—the piety—the prayers—the holiness and purity, of the minister, for that of the layman.

How many are there that regard the study of the Scriptures, and the endeavour to understand them, as a professional pursuit, very becoming to a clergyman, but of which little or nothing is required of the laity;—that speak of all the peculiar doctrines of Christianity under the title of "theological mysteries," with which the clergy may suitably be occupied, but with which it is needless, if not even presumptuous and profane, for the unlearned to concern themselves;—that regard the practice of family devotions as very proper in the house of a clergyman, but in any other, as uncalled for, or even savouring of pharisaical ostentation. Nay, even licentious or profane discourse, intemperance and debauchery, or devotedness to frivolous amusements, we often hear characterized as "unbecoming a clergyman," in a sort of tone which implies the speaker's feeling to be, that they are unbecoming merely to a *clergyman*, not to a Christian.

§. 10. Many things again there are, which, being considered as in themselves indifferent, are not necessarily unsuitable to a Christian as such, but of which some are regarded by a greater, and some by a smaller number, as professionally unsuited to a minister of religion. Now it might perhaps have been expected, that the views, as to this point, of different persons among the laity, should correspond respectively with the different views they take of their own obligations; I mean, that those who are the less, or the more, scrupulous as to their own conduct, should allow a greater or a less latitude to the clergy in respect of the professional strictness of life and seriousness of demeanour required of *them*. But experience shows that this is very often the reverse of the fact. None are more rigid in exacting of clergymen not only purity of life, but the most unbending seriousness of deportment, and abstinence from almost every kind of amusement, than many of those who, in their own lives, are the most unrestrained in the pursuit of amusement, and who exhibit the greatest degree of frivolity or of worldliness in their pursuits—of levity in their conversation, and of inattention to religious subjects. Does not this imply a lurking tendency to that very error which has been openly sanctioned and established in the Romish church? the error of thinking to serve God by a deputy and representative:—of substituting *respect* for religion and its ministers, for personal religion;—and regarding the learning and faith, the prayer and piety, and the scrupulous sanctity, of the priest, as being in some way or other efficaciously transferred from him to the people. It seems some consolation to such persons as I am alluding to that they have *heard* sound doctrine at least, if they have not laid it to heart; that they have *witnessed* and *respected* a strict and unblemished life, and a serious deportment, though they have not copied it; and that on their death-bed they will be enabled to send for a minister of undoubted learning and piety, and enjoy the benefit of his prayers and his blessing, though the holy water and the extreme unction of the Romanists have been laid aside. They take little care indeed to keep their own lights burning; but when summoned to meet their Lord, they will have one to whom they may apply in their extremity, saying, "Give us of your oil, for our lamps are going out."

All indeed, who are in any degree un-

der such a delusion as I am describing, are not subject to it in the *same* degree; but attentive observation will convince every candid inquirer, that in this, as well as in other points, mankind are naturally and generally Romanists in heart;—pre-disposed, by the tendencies of their original disposition, to errors substantially the same with those which are embodied in the Romish system.

But are not, it may be urged, ignorance of religion and unchristian conduct much more censurable in the ministers of religion than in others? The answer is, that this is the point for *them* to consider. Of every one the more is required in proportion as the more is given—in proportion as his opportunities may have been greater, and his temptations less, than his neighbour's; but this is a matter for him, not for his neighbour, to be occupied upon. Let each class of men, and each individual man, think chiefly of improving the talent committed to himself; remembering, that even the mote in his own eye is more his concern than the beam that is in his brother's. It is for the clergy to meditate on their own peculiar and deep responsibility: it is for the laity to consider, not how much more is expected of others, but how much of themselves.

But again, should there, it may be said, be no professional difference in habits of life between the clergy and laity?

There should: for, in the first place, as religious *teachers*, they may be expected to be more especially occupied in fitting themselves for that office; in qualifying themselves to *explain*, and to *enforce* on others, the evidences, the doctrines, and the obligations of religion; but they are not to be expected to understand more of things surpassing human reason, than God has made known by revelation, or to be the *depositaries* of certain mysterious speculative doctrines; but "*stewards* of the mysteries of God," rightly dividing or dispensing (ὁρθοτομοῦντες) the word of truth."

And in respect of their general habits of life and deportment, undoubtedly they should consider, that not only of every profession, but of each age, sex, and condition in life, something characteristic is fairly expected in regard to matters in themselves indifferent. The same things are not decorous or indecorous, in a magistrate, and a private person—in a young, and an old man, in those of the higher, and of the lower orders of society, in a man, and in a woman, or in persons of

different professions. And each man's own discretion must determine how he is to conduct himself in respect of things intrinsically indifferent, so as to preserve the decorum of his own peculiar situation, as distinct from another's, without giving needless offence, or in any other way producing ill effects, on either side.

§ 11. For there *are* dangers on *both* sides; and with one brief remark on a danger not unfrequently overlooked, I will dismiss the present subject.

It is I believe sometimes supposed, by some of the best-intentioned among the ministry, that there is little or no danger except on the side of laxity;—that excessive scrupulosity in respect of matters in themselves indifferent can, at the worst, only be unnecessary. Of course it will not be expected that I should enter into particulars, or attempt to draw the line in each case that may occur: but the remark to which I would invite attention is, that as it is confessedly one great part of a clergyman's duty to set a good *example*, so, it is self-evident that his example can have no influence—(except on his brother ministers)—no chance of being imitated by the people, in respect of any thing which he is supposed to do or to abstain from, merely as a clergyman. Whatever things they are which are supposed to be *professionally* decorous or indecorous—whatever is supposed to be suitable or unsuitable to a clergyman as such, and not to Christians as Christians—it is plain that no strictness, on the part of the clergy, in these points, can have the least tendency to induce a corresponding strictness in the laity. I am not saying that there *are* no points of this nature;—that there should be *nothing* peculiar belonging to the clergy; but merely that in these points they are setting no *example* to the people;—that *that* in short is not an example, which is supposed peculiar to one profession, and therefore not meant to be imitated in others. I admit that a life of great strictness in such points may give great satisfaction—may be admired—may procure respect for the individual, and so far, may even give weight to what he says on other points; nay, it may be even called by the unthinking *exemplary*; but

it is plain that so far as it is regarded as *professional*, it never can be exemplary, except to the clergy themselves.

And the more there is of this professional distinction, the greater will be the danger, and the more sedulously must it be guarded against, of the people's falling into the error of regarding other things also as pertaining to the Christian minister alone, which in fact pertain to the Christian: the longer the list is of things forbidden or enjoined to the clergy and not to the laity, the greater the risk of their adding to the list that Christian knowledge, that Christian spirit and temper, and that Christian self-control and sobriety of conduct, which are required of all that partake of the Christian covenant and Christian hopes.*

Not only therefore must the clergy be blameless in the performance of *their* duties, but they must carefully distinguish *which* of them are their duties as *Christians*, and *which* merely as *ministers*; and with that view they must avoid unnecessarily multiplying professional distinctions; lest the most unimpeachable conduct should fail to convey an example, from its being supposed not designed for imitation.

We cannot indeed be too learned in “the mysteries of the kingdom of heaven,” and in the knowledge of “all the counsel of God,” or too scrupulous in our conformity to his will: but then only can we be “pure from the blood of all men,” if we “set before *them* all the counsel of God,”—make *known* to *them* “the mystery of the Gospel,” and their *fellowship* in that mystery”—and lead them to apply practically their religious knowledge, and to be followers of us, even as we are of Christ Jesus.”

* “Absurd as the thought is when expressed in words, man would be virtuous, be humane, be charitable, *by proxy*, &c.” *Letter to Mr. Peel, on Pauperism*, p. 19.

How far I am indebted to this work for the first suggestion of many of the principles I have endeavoured to develope in the present chapter, is more than I can distinctly pronounce: especially as the author is one who has more or less contributed, directly or indirectly, to the formation of nearly all my opinions on the most important points.

CHAP. III.

PIOUS FRAUDS.

§. 1. It may be said of almost all the Romish errors, that they not only have their common source in man's frail nature, but also are so intimately connected together, that they will generally be found, if not directly to generate, yet mutually to foster and promote, one another. For example, the disposition already noticed, to speculate concerning superhuman mysteries unconnected with practice, though it does not alone produce, yet favours and encourages the error of reserving one portion of faith and piety for a superior initiated class, and making *their* religion a vicarious substitute for that of the people, who are to trust in and implicitly follow the direction of their guide. And this corruption again, though it does not directly engender, yet fosters and increases another; that of maintaining this spiritual tyranny by *deceit*. Those who have once adopted the system of keeping the vulgar in partial darkness, will easily reconcile themselves to the practice of misleading them, where it seems needful, by false lights. From a conviction of the necessity of keeping them in implicit subjection to their authority, the transition is easy to the maintenance of that authority, by what are regarded as salutary delusions.

It is not however to any deliberate scheme of an ambitious hierarchy that this branch of priestcraft owes its origin; nor is it indeed properly *priestcraft*. The tendency to resort to deceit for the compassing of *any* end whatever that seems hardly attainable by honest means, and not least, if it be supposed a good end, is inherent, if any fault be inherent, in our corrupt nature. And in each age and country instances occur of this offence, such as perhaps in a different age and country appear so monstrous as to be hardly credible, from the difficulty of estimating aright the peculiar circumstances which in each instance constituted the temptation.

And this is more peculiarly the case, when those who are passing judgment on any instance of fraud, chance to regard that as a *bad* end which the authors of the fraud pursued as a good one;—when they are convinced of the falsity of the conclusion, which was perhaps sincerely held, by those who sought to support it by deceitful means. For example, the

fraud related to have been practised by the Jewish rulers, in reference to our Lord's resurrection, seems at first sight almost to surpass the limits of human impudence and wickedness in imposture. "And when they were assembled with the elders, they gave large money unto the soldiers, saying, Say ye, His disciples came by night and stole him away while we slept.*" But let it be remembered, that the deceit here recorded, must certainly be referred to the class of what are called "pious frauds:" those, namely, which any one employs and justifies to himself, as conducing, according to his view, to the defence or promotion of true religion. There is in such conduct a union of sincerity and insincerity—of conscientiousness in respect of the end, and unscrupulous dishonesty as to the means: for without the one of these ingredients there could be no *fraud*; and without the other, it could in no sense be termed a *pious* fraud.

And such, I say, undoubtedly was the fraud we are considering. For the Jewish elders certainly did not believe in Jesus as the Messiah, though they could not deny his superhuman powers. There is hardly any evidence which a man may not bring himself to resist, if it come, not before, but after, he has fully made up his mind. But in the present instance the established belief in magic, and the agency of demons in subjection to those skilled in the art, furnished a better evasion than could be devised among *us*, of the force of the evidence offered. And being predetermined by their own view of the ancient prophecies, to reject the claim of Jesus, they pronounced him (as the unbelieving Jews do at this day†) to be a powerful magician, and one who "deceived the people." As maintainers, therefore, of the Mosaic law, in whose

* Matt. xxviii. 12, 13.

† A book is now extant and well known among the Jews, which gives this account of him: and it furnishes a striking confirmation of the statement of the Evangelists; viz., that the unbelieving Jews of his days did admit his miraculous powers. For the book must have been compiled from traditions afloat in the nation; and it is utterly inconceivable that, if those who were cotemporary with our Lord, and on the spot, had denied the fact of the miracles, any tradition should afterwards have sprung up, *admitting* the miracles, and accounting for them by the hypothesis of magic.

divine authority they were believers, they held themselves not only authorized, but bound, to suppress his religion: according to our Lord's own prophecy, "Who-soever killeth you, will think that he doeth God service." For the prevention therefore of the mischief they apprehended, "lest all men should believe in him, and the Romans should come, and take away their place and nation," (an event which, it is remarkable, did actually take place in consequence of their rejecting him, and trusting to false Christs,) they scrupled not to resort to falsehood, to weaken the effect of his miracles.

The benefit derivable from such an example as this is apt to be lost to us, from our dwelling exclusively on the badness of the object these men pursued; and not enough considering, abstractedly from that, the profligacy of the means employed. Persuaded as we are that Jesus was the true Messiah, we are apt, in contemplating the perversity of those who closed their eyes against the evidence of this, to blend in our minds *that* sin with the other, which is quite distinct—the *fraud* with which Christianity was opposed;—to mix up and connect in our thoughts, as they were connected in fact, the rejection of the Son of God, and the falsification of the evidence of his resurrection;—and, in short, almost to forget that if Jesus had been indeed a deceiver, that would not have justified the employment of deceit to maintain God's cause against him.

In proportion as feelings of this kind prevail, the benefit of such an example to ourselves is destroyed. Our abhorrence of their sin has no tendency to fortify us against temptation;—against that temptation, I mean, in the very nature of which it is implied that the end proposed is sincerely believed to be good. Whether this belief chance to be correct or not, a just estimate of the heinousness of what is properly denominated pious fraud, would lead us to regard it with equal detestation, whether employed in a good or in a bad cause.

§. 2. The tendency to take this indistinct view of things—to contemplate in confused conjunction a bad end, and wrong means employed to support it, has doubtless contributed to prevent Protestants from deriving the benefit they might, in the way of example and warning, from the errors of the Romanists. In our abhorrence of the frauds they have so often employed in support of their corrupt sys-

tem, we are prone perhaps to forget, or at least not sufficiently to consider, that it is not the corruptness of the system that makes the frauds detestable; and that the same sin may no less easily beset ourselves, and will be no less offensive to God, however sound may be our own system of faith. With a view to keep this more steadily before the mind, I have limited my remarks to the subject of what are called *pious* frauds, because it is against these alone that we have need to be put on our guard. It would be vain to admonish an unbelieving hypocrite; but a sincere Protestant Christian may need to be reminded, that as he believes his own religion to be true, so do many of the Romanists believe theirs: and that though they are in fact erroneous in this belief, it is not *that* erroneousness that either leads them to resort to pious frauds, or exposes them to just censure for so doing; nor, consequently, can the correctness of his own faith secure him from the danger, or extenuate the guilt, of practising a like deceit.

I have dwelt thus earnestly on a truth which, though perpetually overlooked in practice, is self-evident the moment it is stated, because the mistake opposed to it is closely connected with, or rather is a part of, that which it has been my principal object throughout the present work to counteract;—the mistake, I mean, of referring various errors of Romanism to the Romish church, as their source—of representing that system as the cause of those corruptions which in fact produced it, and which have their origin in our common nature: and hence of regarding what are emphatically called the errors of Romanism, as peculiar to that church, and into which, consequently, Protestants are in no danger of falling. But all of them, as I have already endeavoured in some instances to point out, may be traced up to the evil propensities of human nature: and the one now under consideration, no less than the rest. The tendency to aim at a supposed good end by fraudulent means, is not peculiar to the members of the Romish church;—it is not peculiar to those who are *mistaken* in their belief as to what *is* a good end;—it is not peculiar to any sect, age, or country;—it is not peculiar to any *subject matter*, religious or secular, but is the spontaneous growth of the corrupt soil of man's heart.

Protestants, however, are apt to forget this: and it is often needful to remind

them, and only to remind them, (for detailed proof is unnecessary,) that frauds of this kind are every where, and always have been, prevalent;—that the heathen legislators and philosophers, for instance, encouraged, or connived at, a system of popular mythology which they disbelieved, with a view to the public good—for the sake of maintaining among the vulgar, through fear of the gods, and expectations of Elysium and Tartarus, a conformity to those principles of rectitude whose authority they sincerely acknowledged, though on grounds totally unconnected with religion. Their statesmen deluded and overawed the populace with prodigies and oracles, not much less than the Romish priesthood. Nor has the Greek church, or the other eastern churches, always independent as they have been of the church of Rome, and generally hostile to her, fallen much short of her in this and indeed in most of her other abominations.

The temptation indeed to deceive, either positively or negatively, i. e., either by introducing, or by tolerating error, is one of the strongest that assail our frail nature, in cases where the conscience is soothed by our having in view what we believe to be a good end, and where that end seems hardly attainable but by fraudulent means. For the path of falsehood, though in reality slippery and dangerous, will often be the most obvious, and seemingly the shortest. Accordingly nothing is more common among the indolent and thoughtless, when entrusted with the management of children, than to resort to this compendious way of controlling them; for the employment of deceit with those who are so easily deceived, will often serve a present turn much better than scrupulous veracity; though at the expense of tenfold ultimate inconvenience.*

§. 3. The tendency then to this partial dishonesty—towards the justification of fraudulent means by the supposed goodness of the object—being so deeply rooted in man's nature, found its way of course, along with the other corruptions incident to humanity, into the Romish church. And it was fostered by those other corruptions; especially, as has been already remarked, by that one which was treated of in the preceding chapter; the drawing, namely, of an unduly strong line of separation between the priesthood and the laity; so as to constitute almost two dis-

tinct kinds of Christianity for the two classes, whereof the one were by some superior sanctity and knowledge to compensate for the deficiencies of the other, and to be not only their spiritual directors, but in some sort their substitutes in the service of the Deity.

When it was understood that the monastic orders, and the clergy in general, were to be regarded as persons initiated into certain sacred mysteries, withheld from the vulgar—as professing a certain distinct and superior description of Christianity—and as guides whom the great mass of Christians were to trust implicitly, it naturally followed, that the knowledge of Scripture was considered, first, as unnecessary, and next, as unfit, for the generality: and it was equally natural to proceed from the suppression of knowledge to the toleration first, and then to the encouragement and propagation of superstitious errors among the multitude. There is (as I formerly observed) a craving in ignorant minds after the delusions of superstition: and this it was thought reasonable to indulge, in the case of those whom it was supposed impossible or improper to enlighten. Incapable as they were reckoned, and as they *consequently became*, of believing in their religion on rational and solid evidence, or of being kept in the paths of Christian duty by the highest and purest Christian principles, it seemed necessary to let their faith and their practice strike root, as it were, in the artificial soil of idle legends about miracles wrought by holy relics, and at the intercession of saints—in the virtues of holy water, extreme unction, and the like.

How far, in each particular instance, any one, whether of the Romish or of any other persuasion, who propagates and connives at any error, may be himself deceived, or may be guilty of pious *fraud*,—and how far his fraud, if it be such, may be properly a *pious fraud*, i. e., designed to promote what he sincerely believes to be a good end, or, on the other hand, may be carried on from interested or ambitious views—all this can of course be thoroughly known to none but the Searcher of hearts. It is highly probable, however, that most of these persons have *begun* in wilful deceit, and advanced more and more towards superstitious *belief*. Indeed it is matter of common remark, that those who have long repeated a falsehood, often bring themselves at length to credit it. The very curse sent on those who do not love the truth is that of “a

* Mrs. Hoare's Hints on Early Education.

strong delusion that they should believe a lie." And thus, in the present instance, when any one is eagerly bent on the pursuit of a certain end, he will commonly succeed in persuading himself in time, first, that it is a pious and good end—then, that it is justifiable to promote it by tolerating or inculcating what is false—and lastly, that that very falsehood is truth. Many a one, it is to be feared, gives himself credit for being conscientious, who is so indeed in one sense of the word, but in this sense only, not that he is, properly speaking, led by his conscience, but that he himself leads his conscience;—that he has persevered in what is wrong, till he has at length convinced himself that it is right.

§. 4. That intermediate state, however, between complete hypocrisy and complete self-delusion—that state which gives rise to what are properly called pious frauds—is probably much more common than either of the extremes. Those, for instance, who opposed the reformation, were probably most of them neither worldly-minded hypocrites, altogether indifferent about true religion, nor, on the other hand, sincere believers in the justice of all the claims of the Romish see which they supported, and in the truth of all the Romish doctrines which they maintained; but men who were content to submit to *some* injustice, and to connive at some error, rather than risk, in the attempt to reform abuses, the overthrow of all religion. They preferred an edifice, which, though not faultless, they considered highly serviceable, to the apprehended alternative of a heap of ruins. And accordingly they made up their minds to profess and maintain the whole of what they only partially believed and approved, and to defend by falsehood those portions of the fortification which they perceived were left open by truth.

We of this day are perhaps not disposed to do justice to many of the actors in those times. We know by experience, that the reformation did not lead to the universal destruction of religion; and we know that most of the confusion and other evils which did result, and of which the effects are not yet done away, are attributable to the obstinacy with which the others persisted in maintaining every abuse, and the discredit they brought on religion in general, by the employment of falsehood and subterfuge in her defence. We are apt to suppose, therefore, that the apprehensions which

the event did not realize, must have been either utterly extravagant and childish, or else altogether feigned, by men who in reality had an interest in the maintenance of abuses, and introduced their fears for religion as a mere pretext. For in studying history, those portions of it especially which are to us the most interesting, which are precisely those in which the *results* are before our eyes and familiar to us from childhood, this very circumstance is apt to make us unfair judges of the actors, and thus to prevent us from profiting as we might by their examples. We are apt, I mean, to forget, how probable many things might appear, which we know did not take place; and to regard as perfectly chimerical, expectations which we know were not realized, but which, had we lived in those times, we should doubtless ourselves have entertained; and to imagine that there was no *danger* of those evils which were in fact escaped. We are apt also to make too little allowance for prejudices and associations of ideas, which no longer exist precisely in the same form, among ourselves, but which are perhaps not more at variance with right reason than others with which ourselves are infected.

From the earliest down to the latest periods of history, these causes impede the full and clear, and consequently profitable, view of the transactions related. In respect of the very earliest of all human transactions, it is matter of common remark how prone many are to regard with mingled wonder, contempt, and indignation, the transgression of our first parents; as if they were not a fair sample of the human race;—as if any of us would not, if he had been placed in precisely the same circumstances, have acted as they did. The Corinthians, probably, had perused with the same barren wonder the history of the backslidings of the Israelites; and needed that Paul should remind them, that these things were written for their example and admonition. And all, in almost every portion of history they read, have need of a corresponding warning, to endeavour to fancy themselves the persons they read of, that they may recognize in the accounts of past times the portraiture of their own. It is by a strong effort of a vivid *imagination* (a faculty whose importance in the study of history, is seldom thought of) that we can so far transport ourselves in idea to the period, for instance, of the reformation, or to any period anterior to it, as to forget for the

moment all our actual knowledge of the results—to put ourselves completely in the place of the persons living in those times, and to enter fully into all their feelings.

In proportion as we succeed in this effort, we shall feel more and more strongly how awfully alarming must have been the first struggles of opposition to the existing system—how total a subversion to all religion, and dissolution of all the ties of social order, the first innovations must have appeared to threaten; and how little most men must have been able to foresee or conjecture at what point the tendency to change, if permitted to proceed, could be expected to stop. And we shall then, I think, cease to wonder, that the frailty of our common nature should have led conscientious men (conscientious, I mean, as far as regards the goodness, in their opinion, of the *end* proposed) to use without scruple almost any means, whether of force or fraud, to maintain the existing system, and to avert what appeared to them such frightful dangers.

§. 5. What we should learn for our own use from such a view is, not that the dishonest artifices of Romanism should stand excused in our eyes, but that we should estimate aright their temptations, in order the better to understand our own—that we should consider human nature as not having been then, in so excessive a degree as we are apt to fancy, worse than it is now;—and that we should condemn their frauds, not as employed to support a bad system, and to avert imaginary evils, since to them, perhaps, the system appeared as good as our own does to us, and the evils as real as any that we apprehend appear in our eyes—but from the general expediency of fraud—from its intrinsic turpitude, and from its especial unfitness to be employed in a sacred cause. Considerations, such as these, will set us upon a more painful, but more profitable task, than that of judging our ancestors and our erring brethren—the task of examining our own conduct, with a watchful suspicion of the corruption of our own nature, and a lively consciousness of our liability to like temptations with those to which others have yielded. The erroneousness of their views, and the soundness of our own, as to the *end* proposed, does not lessen to us the danger, or the evil, of promoting that end by *means* inconsistent with perfect integrity.

To any one who should be disposed not only to *approve* of such a vigilant

and severe self-examination as has been recommended, but also earnestly and systematically to put it in practice, it may be worth while to suggest the remark, that what may be suitably called pious frauds, fall naturally into the two classes of *positive* and *negative*; the one, the introduction or propagation of what is false; the other, the mere toleration of it—the connivance at any kind of mistake or delusion already existing in men's minds. Again, in another point of view, frauds may be regarded, either as having relation, on the one hand, to fallacious arguments—to false *reasons* for right conclusions—or, on the other hand, to false *doctrines* and erroneous practices, when such are taught or connived at. I have suggested both of these two divisions, as having a reference to practice; because in practice it is found that the temptation is stronger (because less alarming to the conscience) to the use of false reasons and sophistical argument in the cause of truth, than to the inculcation or toleration of erroneous doctrine; and again, that there is, for the same reason, a stronger temptation to *negative* than to *positive* fraud; the conscience being easily soothed by the reflection, “this or that is a false notion indeed, but I did not introduce it; and it would unsettle men's minds too much, were I to attempt to undeceive them.”

To particularize the several points in which we of the present day are especially open to temptations of the description I have alluded to, would be a task of much difficulty and delicacy. For if a few cases were selected and dwelt on, (and more than a very few it would be impossible to discuss within any reasonable limits,) some might suppose that it was to these particular cases the whole argument had been directed; and might join issue, as it were, on the question, whether these were such as to bear out that argument: and if something brought forward as an instance of an error, should chance to be such, as by some was sincerely believed—by others had never been heard of—and by others again was regarded as perfectly insignificant—the result might be, that the argument and remarks intended to be *illustrated* by such instances, (if supposed to *rest* on those instances,) might be regarded by some as frivolous, or as unsound. Such at least is the mistake which is not unfrequently made in many subjects; an instance brought forward in illustration of any

general remarks or arguments, being not unfrequently regarded as the basis on which the whole depends. And yet, if a physician, for instance, were to be found mistaken in assigning some particular disorder to this or that patient, it would be thought strange to infer from this that no such disorder ever existed.

§. 6. Such, however, being the difficulties in the present subject, it will be better perhaps to abstain from any statement of matters of fact, and to touch briefly, for illustration's sake, on a few *conceivable* cases; which, whether they ever actually occurred or not, will be equally intelligible, and will equally answer the purpose of explanation.

I. For example, it is well known, that there are sects and other parties of Christians, of whose system it forms a part to believe in immediate, sensible inspiration—that the preachers are directly and perceptibly moved to speak by the Holy Spirit, and utter what he suggests. Now suppose any one, brought up in these principles, and originally perhaps a sincere believer in his own inspiration, becoming afterwards so far sobered, as to perceive, or strongly suspect, their delusiveness, and so to modify, at least, his views of the subject, as in fact to nullify all the *peculiarity* of the doctrine, which yet many of his hearers, he knows, hold in its full extent; must he not be strongly tempted to keep up what will probably seem to him so salutary a delusion? Such a case as this I cannot think to be even of rare occurrence. For a man of sound judgment, and of a reflective turn, must, one would think, have it forced on his attention, that he speaks better after long *practice*, than when a novice—better on a subject he has been *used* to preach on, than on a comparatively new one—and better with *premeditation*, than on a sudden; and all this, as is plain both from the nature of the case, and from Scripture, is inconsistent with inspiration. Practice and study cannot improve the immediate suggestions of the Holy Ghost; and the apostles were on that ground expressly forbidden to “take thought beforehand what they should say, or to premeditate; because it should be *given them* in the hour what they should say.” Again, he will perhaps see cause to alter his views of some passages of Scripture he may have referred to, or in other points to modify some of the opinions he may have expressed; and this again is inconsistent

with the idea of inspiration, at least on *both* occasions.

Yet with these views of his own preaching as not really and properly inspired and infallible, he is convinced that he is inculcating the great and important truths of Christianity—that he is consequently, in a certain sense, under the guidance of the Holy Spirit, from whom all good things must proceed—and that his preaching is of great benefit to his hearers; who yet would cease to attend to it, were he distinctly to declare to them his own real sentiments. In such a case, he must be very strongly tempted to commit the pious fraud of conniving at a belief which he does not himself sincerely hold; consoling perhaps his conscience with the reflection, that when he professes to be moved by the Spirit, he says what he is convinced is true, though *not true in the sense* in which most of his hearers understand it;—not true in the sense which constitutes that very peculiarity of doctrine wherein originated the separation of his sect from other Christians.

II. Again, let us imagine, for example, such an instance as this; that an uneducated person describes to us his satisfaction at having met with a stratum of marine shells on the top of a hill, which he concludes to have been deposited there by the Mosaic deluge, and which afford him a consolatory proof of the truth of the Old Testament history; suppose too he congratulates himself on having satisfied, by this argument, the minds of some sceptics among his own class: what would be our duty, and what would be our conduct, in such a case? to run the apparent risk of not only mortifying his feelings, but shaking his faith, by informing him, (supposing the case such,) that it is fully ascertained that this deposit could not have taken place by the action of such a deluge as Moses describes? or to leave him in full reliance on an argument, which, though unsound, leads him to a true conclusion? This, which is a case conceivably occurring in a Protestant country, seems to me an exact parallel to a multitude of those in which the Romanists practise the negative pious fraud of leaving men under what they suppose a useful delusion.

III. Again, suppose the case of one who should be warmly attached to the religious community of which we are members, in opposition to sectaries, and a regular frequenter of our public worship,

in consequence of the mention he finds in Scripture of the *church*, together with the circumstance, that the building in which we assemble for divine service is called a "church." No one, who has been much conversant with the uneducated part of society, will doubt the possible existence, at least, of such confusion of thought, though he may not have actually met with it. Now this again is an instance of a just conclusion and right practice founded on a futile reason. Is it not conceivable, that some who would be ashamed to employ such an argument themselves, might yet be tempted to leave it uncontradicted, from a doubt of being able to substitute a sound one, which should be, to that individual, equally satisfactory?

IV. Again, let us imagine a case of some one desirous to receive, and induce others to receive, the rite of confirmation, from supposing it alluded to, and enjoined, in the passage of Scripture which describes an apostle as going through a certain region "confirming the churches" (ἐπιστηρίζων); should we venture to attempt removing his conviction from this false basis, and replacing it on a sound one?

V. Suppose, again, that some one was conscientiously desirous of receiving this rite, whom the minister could not bring to comprehend the nature of it, or to understand any thing of the baptismal covenant which is renewed before the Christian congregation, and recalled by it, might there not, in such a case, be a seeming danger; that if under such circumstances he refused to sign a recommendation to the bishop, there might grow up a neglect of the ordinance of confirmation? while, on the other hand, he would know that his signature would be understood to testify the existence of such fitness on the part of the candidate as in fact was wanting; and that consequently he would be virtually setting his hand to a falsehood; and would, moreover, be encouraging that superstitious notion of some mystical virtue in a rite of which the recipient did not understand the meaning. Now such a case as this, I think, will hardly be considered as inconceivable, or even improbable.

VI. Suppose, again, an individual of the same class to have a deep reverence for the Lord's day, without even knowing that it is the *Lord's* day, but from supposing Sunday to be the seventh day of the week, and to be kept holy not with

any reference to our Lord's resurrection, but solely in memory of the close of the creation: there would be, on the one hand, the apparent danger of unsettling his mind; and diminishing his just reverence, by letting him know that it is the first day of the week, and is commemorative of the resurrection; and, on the other hand, there would be the negative pious fraud of leaving his mistake untouched. "Will ye," says Job, "speak wickedly for God, and talk deceitfully for him?"

VII. If, again, we should meet with a case of Christians having a deep reverence for all the rites and circumstances of Christian burial, founded on a persuasion that the souls of those whose bodies are interred in consecrated ground, after the performance of the funeral service, are in a more safe state than they would otherwise have been,* might not a danger be apprehended, of impairing their respect for the ministers of religion and the services of the church, by inculcating the groundlessness of that persuasion? And might not therefore a minister be tempted, in such a case, to leave undisturbed an error which he could not charge himself with having directly introduced?

VIII. Once more; imagine the case of a man long hardened in irreligious carelessness or gross vices, conscience-stricken on his death-bed, professing sincere repentance, and earnestly wishing for, and seeming to implore, a positive assurance from the minister of his acceptance with God, and his eternal happiness in the next world;—a wish in which the relatives and friends around him should strongly join: and suppose the minister to be one who could not satisfy his own mind that he had any authority in Scripture for speaking positively in such a case; would he not be exposed to a temptation of feigning a confidence he did not feel, for the sake of smoothing the death-bed of one for whom nothing else could be done, and administering comfort to the afflicted survivors?

And if a person so situated were anxious to receive the Eucharist, though he were (suppose) from ignorance respecting religion, and long continuance in careless or depraved habits, combined with the distractions of bodily pain, and the feebleness of mind resulting from disease, utterly incapable of being made to understand the nature of Christian repentance, or the doc-

* See Chap. I.

trine of Christian redemption, or the right use of that sacrament which he craved for as a kind of magical charm; (with the same kind of superstitious confidence which the Papists place in their extreme unction;) would not the minister be tempted to shut his eyes to the unfitness of such a candidate—to the consequent nullity of the ordinance, as far as that recipient is concerned—and to the profanation of so celebrating it? And if, moreover, we suppose some fanatical teacher to be at hand ready to make confident promises of salvation if *we* speak doubtfully, and to administer the sacred ordinance if *we* withhold it—and that he would in that case win many converts, while we should incur odium, as wanting in charity; we must admit that, in such a case as here supposed, the temptation would be very strong, to any but a devoted lover of truth, to connive at error, as the less of the evils before him. And the temptation would be much the stronger both in this and in the other supposed cases, if we imagine them presented to a person who (as might easily be the case) had no distinct perception of the ultimate dangers of deceit—of the crowd of errors likely to spring from one—the necessity of supporting hereafter one falsehood by another, to infinity—and the liability to bring truth into discredit by blending it with the untrue; dangers which are recognized in the popular wisdom of appropriate proverbs. These ill consequences may very easily be overlooked in each particular instance: for though it is a just maxim that falsehood is inexpedient in the long run, it is a maxim which it requires no small experience and reach of thought fully and practically to comprehend, and readily to apply: the only safe guide for the great mass of mankind is the abhorrence of falsehood for its own sake, without looking to its consequences.

Numberless other like instances might be imagined, of at least conceivable occurrence in a Protestant country; but those which have been mentioned will be sufficient, if they are admitted to be not, all of them, total impossibilities, to illustrate my meaning;—to show that our separation from the church of Rome does not place us (nor can we ever be placed in this life) in a situation which exempts us from all danger of falling into corruptions—among the rest, the justification of pious frauds—substantially similar to those with which that church is so justly reproached.

As for the cases introduced for the sake of illustration, I must once more protest that they do not profess to be actual facts, but merely conceivable suppositions; and it is not at all my wish that any one should, by testifying displeasure, as against a personal charge, fix on himself the censure brought against a hypothetical case. Indeed I would most gladly be convinced that these and all similar suppositions are not only not agreeable to fact, but are even impossible, and the dangers I apprehend wholly imaginary. If this be so,

Why then, my taxing, like a wild-goose, flies
Unclaimed of any man.

and my warnings will be at least harmless, though unnecessary: “*abundans cautela non nocet.*”

§. 7. I will conclude this chapter with an earnest recommendation of the study (with a view to our own warning and instruction) of the various abuses prevailing in the Romish church—such a study, I mean, as shall go, not only to ascertain their actual character, but also to trace their gradual progress from their first appearance, till they became at length embodied in the system, and established as parts of true religion. In many, if not in most instances, they began (as I have formerly observed) with the people; and were at first, many of them, only connived at by the clergy; who dreaded to oppose, or to reform, or to acknowledge, errors, lest they should shake the whole system of faith with which they were connected. And let it not be lost sight of, that the fraud by which they sought to support the system—the “wall daubed with untempered mortar,” with which they thought to buttress up the edifice—has always tended to its decay. Not only did it give rise to a hostile separation among Christian churches, but in countries which have continued under the papal sway, the abhorrence and contempt excited by the detection of a fraudulent system has led the far greater part of the educated classes into secret but total apostasy from Christ. With the indiscriminate rashness which is universally so common, they have confusedly blended together in their minds, Christianity and its corruptions; and having in so many instances detected fraud with absolute certainty, they think it not worth while to inquire further; but take for granted, that all the church teaches, is one tissue of imposture and superstition throughout.

Let not Protestants, then, lose the benefit of this lesson; “neither let us tempt

God, as some of them also tempted;" for but so read them) "for our admonition. "all these things happened unto them for Wherefore let him that thinketh he examples, and are writtē" (if we will standeth, take heed lest he fall."

CHAP. IV.

UNDUE RELIANCE ON HUMAN AUTHORITY.

§. 1. THE infallibility of the (so called) Catholic church, and the substitution of the decrees of popes or of pretended general councils, for the Scriptures, as the Christian's rule of faith and practice, is commonly regarded as the foundation of the whole Romish system. And it is so, in this sense, that if it be once admitted, all the rest must follow: if the power of "binding and loosing" belong to the church of Rome in the extent claimed by her, we have only to ascertain what are her decisions, and to comply with them implicitly.

But I am convinced that this is not the foundation, *historically* considered, of the Romish system;—that the Romish hierarchy did not, in point of fact, first establish their supremacy on a perverted interpretation of certain texts, and then employ the power thus acquired to introduce abuses; but resorted, as occasions led them, to such passages of Scripture as might be wrested to justify the prevailing or growing abuses, and to buttress up the edifice already in a great measure reared.

They appeal, as is well known, to our Lord's expression respecting Peter's being made the foundation of his church; an expression which could never by possibility have suggested so extravagant, and indeed unmeaning, an interpretation as that of a *succession* of men being each a *foundation*;^{*} and they also appeal to the declaration,† "Whatsoever thou shalt bind on earth shall be bound in heaven, and whatsoever thou shalt loose on earth shall be loosed in heaven," as conferring on the church of Rome the supreme power she claims. Of this and the other corresponding passages in our Lord's discourses, the most probable explanation is that which refers to the language common among the Jewish doctors; who employed the expressions "to bind," and "to loose," (as may be seen abundantly in their works respecting traditional regulations now extant‡) in the sense of enact-

ing and abrogating;—establishing any rule or ordinance, so as to make it obligatory or binding—or, on the other, abolishing, or forbearing to enact some rule, and leaving men exempt—released—loosed—from the observance of it. Our Lord's declaration, therefore, will amount to this;—that the governors in each branch of the church which he founded—of the kingdom appointed to his disciples—with whom, and consequently with their successors, he promised to be always even unto the end of the world—that these governors should have power to make regulations for the good government of that society—to admit or refuse admission into it—and to establish such rules as they might think suitable for the edification of its members, and their decorous worship of God: and that such regulations of Christ's servants on earth should be ratified and sanctioned by the authority of their unseen and spiritual Master—should be bound in heaven by him.

It seems no less plain, that to the governors of every society must be entrusted the duty of checking such disorderly and scandalous conduct in its members, as goes to interfere with the purposes of its institution, by reprimand or other penalties, and ultimately, in extreme cases, by expulsion: and they must be empowered to remit such penalties, or to readmit an expelled member, on his testifying contrition, and making satisfactory promises of good behaviour. And this is admitted by most Protestants to be the force of that declaration, "whose soever sins ye remit, they are remitted, and whose soever sins ye retain, they are retained:" not as if fallible men had power to judge of the *sincerity* of any one's contrition;—or even if they had, could presume to claim the divine privilege of forgiving sins as *against God!*—but that they have power to inflict or remit the penalties of church censure, and to exclude, retain, or readmit, as far as *outward privileges* are concerned, any member of their own branch of the visible church.

As for the regulations respecting the

^{*} Hinds' History of the Rise of Christianity, vol. i. p. 9.

† Matt. xvi. 19. ‡ See Wotton on the Misna.

conduct of members of that society, which they have power to enact or abrogate, it is obvious that, as far as these extend only to things in themselves indifferent, (such as festival days, outward ceremonies, and the like) which may and should vary in different ages and countries, but yet require to be in each instance regulated by *some* acknowledged authority—as far, I say, as this exercise of power is confined to matters not in themselves essential, it may be (and must be, supposing inspiration withdrawn) entrusted to uninspired men. But on the other hand, the promulgating of such articles of faith and rules of conduct as are intrinsically necessary, and make part of the terms of salvation—that this office—the binding and loosing in respect of things essential—can be left in the hands of none but inspired men, all must allow; and *we* should add, in the hands of men who (like the apostles) give *proof* of their inspiration, and produce the credentials of their divine commission by working sensible miracles.

§. 2. Whatever slight differences, however, there may be among Protestants as to the precise sense of these passages, and of all that our Lord has said on the subject, they all agree in this; that it will by no means bear the interpretation put on it by the Romanists; who are commonly supposed, as has been above remarked, to derive from their mistaken view of our Lord's expressions in this place, the monstrous doctrines of the universal supremacy of the church of Rome, and her infallibility as to matters of faith. I have said that these doctrines are *supposed* to be thus derived, because there is good reason to think that such is not really the case; and that in this point, as in most of those connected with the peculiarities of Romanism, the mistake is usually committed of confounding cause and effect. When there is any question about any of the doctrines or practices which characterize that church, it is natural, and it is common, to inquire on what rational arguments or on what scriptural authority these are made to rest; the reasons adduced are examined, and, if found insufficient, the point is considered as settled: and so it is, as far as regards those particular doctrines or practices, when judged of by an intelligent and unbiassed inquirer. That which is indefensible, *ought* certainly to be abandoned. But it is a mistake, and a very common, and practically not unimportant one, to conclude that the *origin* of each tenet or prac-

tice is to be found in those arguments or texts which are urged in support of it;—that they furnish the cause, on the removal of which the effects will cease of course—and that when once those reasonings are exploded, and those texts rightly explained, all danger is at end of falling into similar errors. The fact is, that in a great number of instances, and by no means exclusively in questions connected with religion, the erroneous belief or practice has arisen first, and the theory has been derived afterwards for its support. In whatever opinions or conduct men are led by any human propensities, they seek to defend and justify these by the best arguments they can devise; and then, assigning, as they often do, in perfect sincerity, these arguments as the cause of their adopting such notions, they misdirect the course of our inquiry. And thus the chance (however small it may be at any rate) of rectifying their errors, is diminished. For if these be in reality traceable to some deep-seated principle of our nature, as soon as ever one false foundation on which they have been placed is removed, another will be substituted: as soon as one theory is proved untenable, a new one will be devised in its place. And in the mean time, we ourselves are liable to be lulled into a false security against errors, whose real origin is to be sought in the universal propensities of human nature.

Not only Romanism, but almost every system of superstition, in order to be rightly understood, should be (if I may so speak) read backwards. To take an instance, in illustration of what has been said, from the mythological system of the ancients; if we inquire why the rites of sepulture were regarded by them as of such vast importance, we are told that, according to their system of religious belief, the souls of those whose bodies were unburied, were doomed to wander disconsolate on the banks of the river Styx. Such a tenet, supposing it previously established, was undoubtedly well calculated to produce or increase the feeling in question: but is it not much the more probable supposition, that the natural anxiety about our mortal remains, which has been felt in every age and country, and which those who partake of it are at a loss to explain and justify, drove them to imagine and adopt the theory which gave a rational appearance to feelings and practices already existing?

Again, if the Romanists are urged to defend and explain their practice of praying

for the souls departed, they refer us to the doctrines of their church respecting purgatory. But it is not really the doctrine of purgatory which led to prayers for the dead; on the contrary, it is doubtless the practice of praying for the dead that gave rise to that doctrine; a doctrine which manifestly savours of having been invented to serve a purpose. Accordingly it never, I believe, found its way into the Greek church, though prayers for the dead (difficult as it is to justify such a practice on other grounds) has long prevailed in that church, no less than in the Romish.

If, again, we call on the Romanists to justify their invocation of saints, which seems to confer on these the divine attribute of omnipresence, they tell us that the Almighty miraculously reveals to the glorified saints in heaven the prayers addressed to them, and then listens to their intercession in behalf of the supplicants. But the real state of the case doubtless is, that the practice which began gradually in popular superstition, and was fostered and sanctioned by the mingled weakness and corruption of the priesthood, was afterwards supported by a theory too unfounded and too extravagantly absurd to have ever obtained a general reception, had it not come in aid of a practice already established, and which could be defended on no better grounds.

And the same principle will apply to the greater part of the Romish errors; the cause assigned for each of them will in general be found to be in reality its effect;—the arguments by which it is supported—to have gained currency from men's partiality for the conclusion. It is thus that we must explain, what is at first sight so great a paradox, the vast difference of effect apparently produced in minds of no contemptible powers, by the same arguments;—the frequent inefficacy of the most cogent reasonings, and the hearty satisfaction with which the most futile are often listened to and adopted. Nothing is, in general, easier than to convince one who is prepared and desirous to be convinced; or to gain any one's full approbation of arguments tending to a conclusion he has already adopted; or to refute triumphantly in his eyes, any objections brought against what he is unwilling to doubt. An argument which shall have made one convert, or even settled one really doubting mind, though it is not of course necessarily a sound argument, will have accomplished more than one which receives the unhesitating assent

and loud applause of thousands who had already embraced, or were predisposed to embrace, the conclusion.

I am aware that there is in some minds an opposite tendency, to excessive doubt in cases where their wishes are strong; a morbid distrust of evidence which they are especially anxious to find conclusive. Different temperaments (sometimes varying with the state of health of each individual) lead towards these contrary miscalculations. Each of us probably has a natural leaning to one or other (often to both, alternately) of these infirmities—the over-estimate or under-estimate of the reasons in favour of a conclusion we wish to find true. The difficulty is, not to fly from one extreme to the other, but to avoid both, and to give an unbiassed verdict according to the evidence; preserving the indifference of the *judgment* even in cases where the *will* cannot, and indeed should not be indifferent.

Obvious, however, as these principles must appear, it is not at all uncommon to lose sight of them; it is not uncommon to hear wonder expressed at the supposed weakness of understanding of those who assent to arguments utterly invalid, but to which they have in fact never applied their minds. And it is much more common to hear some course of argument confidently proclaimed as triumphant and decisive in establishing or refuting some doctrine, merely on the ground of its being approved by those predisposed to assent to it. Whether, in fact, it be such or not, it is impossible *we* can fully estimate its weight till we have seen it tried in an even balance, or against a preponderating scale;—till we have seen how it is received by the indifferent, or the adverse. For, through the operation of the principle I have been speaking of, arguments have commanded the unhesitating assent of all men, for centuries together, without possessing, in reality, any weight at all.

§. 3. It is, on many accounts, of great practical importance to trace, as far as we are able, each error to its real source. If, for instance, we supposed the doctrine of transubstantiation to be really founded, as the Romanists pretend, and as, no doubt, many of them sincerely believe, on the words "this is my body," we might set this down as an instance in which the language of Scripture rashly interpreted has led to error. Doubtless there *are* such instances; but I can never believe that this is one of them; viz., that men really were *led* by the words in question

to believe in transubstantiation; for besides the intrinsic improbability of such an error having so arisen, we have the additional proof, that the passage was before the eyes of the whole Christian world for ten centuries before the doctrine was thought of. And again, if we suppose the doctrine to have, in fact, arisen from the misinterpretation of the text, we shall expect to remove the error by showing reasons whereby the passage should be understood differently: a very reasonable expectation, where the doctrine has *sprung from the misinterpretation*; but quite otherwise, where, as in this case, the *misinterpretation has sprung from the doctrine*. When there was a leaning in men's minds towards the reception of the tenet, they of course looked for the best confirmation of it that Scripture would afford.

There is no instance, however, that better exemplifies the operation of this principle, than the one immediately before us—the Romish doctrines of the universal supremacy and infallibility of their church. If we inquire how the Romanists came so strangely to mistake the passages of Scripture to which they appeal, we shall be utterly bewildered in conjecture, unless we read backwards the lesson imprinted on *their* minds, and seek for the true cause in the natural predisposition to look out for, and implicitly trust, an infallible guide, and to find a refuge from doubts and dissensions, in the unquestioned and unlimited authority of the church. This indeed *had* been gradually established, and vested in the Romish see, before it was distinctly claimed. Men did not submit to the authority, because they were convinced it was of divine origin and infallible; but, on the contrary, they were convinced of this, because they were disposed so to submit. The tendency to “teach for doctrines the commandments of men,” and to acquiesce in such teaching, is not the effect, but the cause, of their being taken for the commandments of God.

Unwilling as men may be to submit their *actions* to an uncontrolled despotism, that indolence of mind which the Greek historian remarks as making them “averse to take trouble in the investigation of truth, and willing rather to acquiesce in what is ready-decided for them,” has, in all ages, and on all subjects, disposed multitudes to save themselves this trouble, and escape at the same time the uneasiness of doubting, by an implicit submission to some revered authority. The disposition indeed to submit and assent

implicitly is (like all our other natural propensities) nothing intrinsically and essentially bad, when rightly directed, and duly controlled; but, like all the rest, is liable to misdirection and excess. Whatever is satisfactorily proved to come from God is *entitled* to our submissive assent; and whatever there is of what He has revealed to us, that surpasses human comprehension, has a *claim* to be received on his authority alone, without vain attempts to explain or to prove it “*a priori*.” That the implicit deference justly due to Divine authority, should have been often unduly extended to human, is what we might, from the infirmity of our nature, have even antecedently conjectured; and no one can suppose that this misdirected and excessive veneration originated in the church of Rome, or is even confined to the case of religion, who recollects that the decisive appeal of the Pythagoreans to the “*ipse dixit*” of their master was even proverbial among the ancients: and that at a later period, the authority of Aristotle on philosophical questions was for many ages regarded as no less decisive. To question his decisions on these matters was long considered as indicating no less presumptuous rashness, than to dispute those of the church of Rome as to matters of faith.

§. 4. As for the local extent of the Roman pontiff's jurisdiction, the claim of universal supremacy for *that particular see* is of course an error of the Romanists as Romanists; for though the same encroaching and ambitious disposition may exist in others as in the Romish hierarchy, it must of course, wherever it exists, lead each to extend the dominion and exalt the power, of *his own* church, state, empire, or school, over others. But the tendency to claim or to pay undue deference to the authority of uninspired men, is an error of the Romanists, not as Romanists, but as human beings. The degree of respect generally paid and justly due to the authority* of the wise—the virtuous—the learned—the majority—which amounts to a *presumption*, more or less strong, of what they have maintained—a presumption which demands a careful examination of the reasons on both sides, before we decide against them—this respect was gradually heightened into a blind acquiescence, which forbade men even to seek for reasons at all. The morbid dread of uncer-

* An important ambiguity in the word authority will be presently noticed.

tainty, perplexity, and dissension, led them to preclude all doubts as to the sense of Scripture, by a decisive authority; an authority which they pretend to rest on a text whose sense is in itself doubtful;* and thus to save, as it were, the ship from being tossed by winds and waves, by casting anchor on an object which was itself floating. But they succeeded in delivering themselves from actual doubt, though not from reasons for doubt; and were lulled into that apathetic tranquillity, which is the natural result of compulsory cessation of discussion. "Seeing then that these things *cannot be spoken against*, ye ought to be quiet," is an expression which may be used to characterize this indolent uninquiring acquiescence. They were to receive whatever the holy Catholic church decreed, or might decree, to be received; even though ignorant of what many of the doctrines were, to which they thus assented.

"Is it conceivable," they thought, "that the great body of the church, including all its governors, for whose preservation in the right way so many thousands of pious Christians have been always daily offering up their prayers, and with whom Christ promised to be, always, even unto the end—is it conceivable that all these should have been for ages together in gross and dangerous error on important points? No, surely," they said to themselves and to each other, "this is impossible; it could never have been permitted." Now if this is *not* possible, the church must be infallible.

If we consider, in this point of view, the growth of the doctrine, we shall no longer think it so strange as at first sight it appears, that such a claim should have arisen. Nor (which is more important for our purpose) shall we think it incredible, that a similar course of reasoning should be likely to take place in the minds of Protestants, and should lead to a like result:—that the supposition, of any error in religious matters besetting wise, good, pious, learned, humble, and diligent men, should appear so *strange*, that at length the *strangeness* should be regarded as amounting to *impossibility*; and when once this point is reached, the claim to infallibility is virtually set up.

It must be admitted, moreover, that the claim of infallibility in the church, when it is distinctly avowed, is at least more

consistent—perhaps I may say more honest—than the sort of appeal which is sometimes made Protestants to the authority of the "universal church," and which may be characterized by the homely though expressive proverbial metaphor, of "playing fast and loose." A person is loudly censured perhaps for taking a different view of some doctrine from that which, it is assumed, prevailed generally in the church (i. e. the great mass of Christians) for many ages; the writers, termed "the Fathers," are appealed to; and it is represented as inconceivable, that the great body of the Christian world should have long been in error on such and such a point. And, no doubt, there is a *presumption** in favour of what has been long admitted by the majority; stronger arguments are called for against it, than if it were something novel, or the opinion only of a few. But when this presumption is adduced as nearly decisive, and it is then urged, on the other side, as it consistently may be, that the great majority, both in the eastern and western churches, are, and have been for many centuries, and were, *at the very time referred to*, worshippers of relics, and of the Virgin, &c., the same Protestant advocate will reply, that these doctrines are *unscriptural*—that human divines are fallible, and that we ought to "obey God rather than man." Now if we regard the "Fathers" as men subject to human infirmity, and teaching truth mixed with error, we ought to appeal to them as such: if we appeal to them, or to any set of men, with an air of decisive triumph, we should be prepared to admit their infallibility throughout. It surely is not fair to make the church's authority of the highest or the lowest value, according as it happens to support, or to oppose, our own conclusions.

§. 5. Indeed, monstrous as the Romish doctrine of the infallibility of the church at first sight appears, and widely different as the claim is usually regarded from any that have ever been advocated by Protestants, there have not been wanting persons who (in consequence perhaps of the prevalence of the practice just noticed) have represented the Romish church as differing little in this point from our own, and indeed every other. "It is true," (they say,) "the church of England disclaims the right of requiring assent to any article of faith which may not be proved by

* See Blanco White's "Evidence against Catholicism."

* Elements of Rhetoric, part i. chap. iii. §. 2.

Scripture : but then if she claims the right of deciding without appeal what doctrines *are* scriptural, and requires of all her members the admission, not only of the authority of Scripture, but of her interpretation of it, and an admission of all the doctrines founded on that interpretation, the same end is gained : since even the church of Rome *might* have professed to appeal to Scripture in behalf all her doctrines, retaining the power of deciding definitely what books should be received as Scripture, and what is the true sense of each passage. "The difference then," they urge, (I am quoting the arguments of an author of no mean ability,) "between the two churches, amounts only to this ; that the one *cannot* err, and the other never *does* ; the one is infallible, and the other always in the right." For though it is declared that *other* churches *have* erred, and not denied that *our* own *may*, it is never admitted that ours (as constituted at the Reformation) *has* fallen into any error.

This charge of advancing a virtual claim to infallibility, though specious at the first glance, melts away before a close examination ; for, in fact, the claim of our church is no other than even every *individual*, without any arrogance, advances, and cannot but advance, in his own behalf. Whoever professes to hold any doctrine, implies by that very expression his conviction of its truth. For an individual (and a church no less) to acknowledge the erroneousness of his present tenets, would be a contradiction in terms. And the erroneousness of many of her *former* tenets, during our subjection to the papal sway, our church amply acknowledged by the very act of reforming.

But every church must have certain terms of communion, the rejection of which implies exclusion from that communion ; since the very idea of a religious society is incompatible with a fundamental discrepancy of religious persuasion. And since such discrepancies may, and do, exist among those who agree in admitting the supreme authority of Scripture, it is plain that this admission cannot be of itself a sufficient bond of union. Our church, therefore, (as every religious society *must* do, either avowedly or virtually,) fixed on certain doctrines as necessary to be admitted by those who should be members of it ; not denouncing as heretics* the members of

other churches who might hold different doctrines ; but of course not admitting her own to be erroneous ; which would be saying in the same breath that they are *not* her own. An individual indeed will often have *not made up his mind* as to this or that question ; and will often express doubts as to some opinion which he is rather inclined to adopt : but for a church to make a declaration of doubt would be absurd. In whatever points our reformers felt themselves undecided, and in whatever, though themselves convinced, they thought it unnecessary to require general assent—on such points they would of course say nothing. Whatever they set forth, they could not but set forth, as, in their judgment, both true, and essential.

It is possible, indeed, for a church to multiply unnecessarily her articles of faith, and thus narrow too much the terms of her communion : but if in any case this fault were committed, and even if we suppose many of the doctrines so laid down to be fundamentally erroneous, still this fault would be of a totally different kind from that of advancing a claim to infallibility.*

In short, to *profess* certain doctrines,

has denounced the Romanists as *erroneous* indeed, but not as *heretical*. If one brought up in the bosom of our church were to preach, for instance, the doctrine of the sacrifice of the mass, he would be properly pronounced as heretical ; but we claim no spiritual authority over the members of *other* churches. The Romanists do ; and accordingly denominate us, with perfect consistency, heretics ; as being properly members, though rebellious members, of their church. See Blanco White's Evidence against Catholicism, p. 118., and Hinds' History, vol. ii. p. 41—45.

* Much of the confusion of thought which has arisen on this subject is to be traced to the ambiguity of the word "authority ;" which is sometimes used, in the primary sense, (corresponding with *auctoritas*), to signify the weight assigned to the example or opinion of those who, in any point, are likely to be competent judges, and which raises a presumption in favour of what they have done or maintained ; as when we appeal to the "authority" of some historian or philosopher : but sometimes again, and that not unfrequently, it is used (in the sense of *potestas*) to signify *power*, to which we are absolutely bound to submit ; as when we speak of the authority of a magistrate. The language of our article keeps clear of this ambiguity, in the statement, that "the church has *power* to ordain rites and ceremonies," (not at variance with God's Word,) and has *authority* in controversies of faith." But still, the use of the word *authority* in the sense of *power* is so common, that it has, I have no doubt, aided in producing the impression, that a claim is advanced by the church of being an infallible interpreter of Scripture.

* It is well worth remarking, that our church

and (which is implied by so doing) to declare that those doctrines are *true*, is, for every church, allowable, because inevitable; to *err* in any of those doctrines, or in the mode of setting them forth, as long as there is a readiness to correct any thing that shall be proved at variance with Scripture or with reason, is nothing unpardonable, nor, in its results, incurable: while to deny the liability to error, and to claim, without warrant, the infallibility which implies inspiration, is in itself presumptuous impiety, and leads to interminable corruption.

For the difference is no mere theoretical nicety, but of most extensive practical importance. The claim to exemption from error *shuts the door against reform*. The smallest change in any article of *faith* would break the talisman of infallibility, and the magic edifice of papal dominion would crumble into ruins. In matters of *discipline*, indeed, the Romish church might introduce reforms, without compromising her claim; since *there* the question is one not of truth, but of expediency: which may vary in each different age and country. But her regulations respecting discipline have been so intertwined with doctrinal points, that she has generally dreaded to alter any thing, lest her infallibility should be called in question. For instance, it has never been contended that the adoration of images and relics is *essential* to Christianity; there would therefore be no inconsistency on the part of the Romish church in remedying that abuse: but it has been thought probable (and not without reason) that to do so might raise suspicions as to the wisdom of originally sanctioning the practice, as to the soundness of the arguments and decisions by which it was maintained against Protestants—and as to the truth of the miraculous legends connected with it; and the upholders of the Romish system have accordingly always dreaded (as was remarkably exemplified not long since in respect of some efforts towards such an amelioration, made in Germany) to touch a single stone of their infirm fabric, lest another, and another should be displaced. For those who are conscious, or who at all suspect, (whether with or without good reason,) that great part of the system they are maintaining is thoroughly unsound, are naturally led to regard the beginning of reformation (even as Solomon says of the beginning of strife) as “like the letting out of water;” when once commenced they know

not to what it may proceed, or how it can be stopped. And thus it is that the claim to infallibility burdens the church of Rome with a load of long-accumulated errors and abuses, to which many probably of her adherents are by no means blind, but of which they know not how to relieve her.

To this evil must be added, that the claim of an infallibility independent of Scripture, naturally tends towards the result which in fact took place, the prohibition of translations, and the discouragement of the study of the Scriptures, as needless, and unsafe, for the mass of the Christian laity. And even after the removal or relaxation of this restriction, the people, even with the Bible in their hands, are evidently far less likely to perceive the erroneousness of any doctrines of their church, if that church does not profess to rest those doctrines on Scripture alone, but on her own independent and paramount authority. Thousands must have perceived many Romish tenets to be unwarranted by *Scripture*, who have yet never thought of regarding that as ground for calling them in question. On the other hand, “even corrupt churches, provided they did not suppress the Scriptures, or disallow them as the only rule of faith, may still afford to many of their members the means of correcting their errors, and ascertaining the essential truths of Christianity.”*

§. 6. But are Protestants then, as long as they do but acknowledge these principles, exempt from all danger of any such error as that for which the Romish church has now been censured? By no means. Such might indeed have been the case had the claim to infallibility for the decisions of the church, and the comparative disregard of Scripture, been the *cause*, instead of being, as in truth it was, the *effect*, of the tendency to pay undue deference to human authority. The real cause of that tendency is to be sought in the principles of our common nature;—in the disposition to carry almost to idolatry the veneration due to the wise, and good, and great;—in the dislike of doubt and of troublesome investigation—the dread of perplexity and disagreement—and the desire of having difficult questions finally settled, and brought into the form of dogmas ready prepared for acceptance in a mass. While this disposition† continues to form

* Hawkins on Tradition, p. 42.

† Which cannot perhaps be so well described in our language, as by the words of the Greek historian, ἐν τῷ ἔτοιμα μάλῃσι τρέπονται.

a part of our nature, we can never, but by continual self-distrust, be safe from its effects. And the danger of virtually substituting human authority for divine is the greater, from the necessity which exists of making use of human expositions of Scripture; not only for the purpose, above alluded to, of providing a symbol, test, or creed, (such as our thirty-nine articles,) in order to ascertain a sufficient agreement in members of the same religious community, but also for the purposes of public worship, and of catechetical instruction. For the sacred writers have not only transmitted only one short form of prayer,* and no complete form for the administration of the Christian ordinances, but have not even left us any systematic course of instruction in the Christian doctrines. These they have left to be collected from histories and epistles, evidently addressed to *Christians*—to persons who had already been regularly instructed (catechized as the word is in the original) in the principles of the faith: thus† leaving, as it should seem, to the *church* the office of systematically *teaching*, and to the *Scriptures* that of *proving* the Christian doctrines.

And it is a circumstance not a little remarkable, that they should, all of them, have thus abstained from committing to writing (what they must have been in the habit of employing orally) a catechism or course of elementary instruction in Christianity, consisting of a regular series of unquestionable canons of doctrine—articles of faith duly explained and developed—in short, a compendium of the Christian religion; which we may be sure (had such ever existed) would have been carefully transmitted to posterity. This, I say, must appear to every one, on a little reflection, something remarkable; but it strikes me as literally *miraculous*. I mean, that the procedure appears to me dictated by a wisdom more than human; and that the apostles and their immediate followers must have been *supernaturally withheld* from taking a course which would *naturally* appear to them the most expedient. Considering how very great must have been the total number of all the elders and catechists appointed, in various places, by the apostles, and by those whom they commissioned, it seems hardly credible, that no one of these

should have thought of doing what must have seemed so obvious, as to write, under the superintendence and correction of the apostles, some such manual for the use of his hearers: as was in fact done repeatedly *in subsequent ages*, (i. e. after, as we hold, the age of *inspiration* was passed,) in all the churches where any activity existed. Thus much, at least, appears to me indubitable: that impostors would have taken sedulous care (as Mahomet did) to set forth a complete course of instructions in their faith; and that enthusiasts would never have failed, *some* of them at least, to fall into the same plan; so that an omission which is, on all human principles, unaccountable, amounts to a moral demonstration of the divine origin of our religion. And this argument, we should observe, is not drawn from the supposed *wisdom* of such an appointment: it holds good equally, however little we may perceive the expediency of the course actually pursued; for that which cannot have come from *man*, must have come from *God*. If the apostles were neither enthusiasts nor impostors, they must have been inspired; whether we can understand, or not, the reasons of the procedure which the Holy Spirit dictated.

In this case, however, attentive consideration may explain to us these reasons. God's wisdom doubtless designed to guard us against a danger, which I think no human wisdom would have foreseen—the danger of indolently assenting to, and committing to memory, a “form of sound words;” which would in a short time have become no more than a form of words;—received with passive reverence, and scrupulously retained in the mind—leaving no room for doubt—furnishing no call for vigilant investigation—affording no stimulus to the attention, and making no vivid impression on the heart. It is only when the understanding is kept on the stretch by the diligent search—the watchful observation—the careful deduction—which the Christian Scriptures call forth, by their oblique, incidental, and irregular mode of conveying the knowledge of Christian doctrines—it is then only, that the feelings, and the moral portion of our nature, are kept so awake as to receive the requisite impression: and it is thus accordingly that Divine wisdom has provided for our wants, “*Curis acuens mortalia corda.*”

It should be observed also, that a single systematic course of instruction, carrying with it divine authority, would have su-

* Hinds' History of the Rise of Christianity, vol. ii. p. 114, 115.

† See Hawkins' Dissertation on Tradition.

perseded the framing of any *others*—nay, would have made even the alteration of a single word of what would, on this supposition, have been *Scripture*,* appear an impious presumption; and yet could not possibly have been well-adapted for all the varieties of station, sex, age, intellectual power, education, taste, and habits of thought. So that there would have been an almost inevitable danger, that such an authoritative list of credenda would have been regarded by a large proportion of Christians with a blind and unthinking reverence, which would have excited no influence on the character; they would have had “a form of godliness; but denying the power thereof,” the form itself would have remained with them only as the corpse of departed religion.

§. 7. Such then being the care with which God’s providence has guarded against leading us into this temptation, it behoves us to be careful that we lead not ourselves into temptation, nor yield to those which the natural propensities of the human heart present. For, through the operation of those principles which I have so earnestly, and perhaps too copiously, dwelt on, we are always under more or less temptation to exalt some human exposition of the faith to a practical equality with the Scriptures, by devoting to that our chief attention, and making to it our habitual appeal.

And why, it may be said, should we scruple to do this? giving to Scripture the precedence indeed in point of dignity, as the foundation on which the other is built, but regarding the superstructure as no less firm than the foundation on which it is fairly built? “I am fully convinced,” a man may say, “that such and such an exposition conveys the genuine doctrines of the Scriptures: in which case it must be no less true than they; and may therefore, by those who receive it, be no less confidently appealed to. Supposing us fully to believe its truth, it answers to us the purpose of Scripture: since we can *but* fully believe *that*. For in mathematics, for instance, we are not more certain of the axioms and elementary propositions, than we are of those other propositions which are proved from them: nor is there any need to go back at every step to those first theorems which are the foundation of the whole.”

The principle which I have here stated, as favourably as I am able, is one which, I believe, is often not distinctly stated, even inwardly in thought, by multitudes who feel and act conformably to it.

One obvious answer which might be given to such reasoning is, that to assign to the deductions of uninspired men the same perfect certainty as belongs to mathematical demonstrations, and to repose the same entire confidence in their expositions of Scripture, as in Scripture itself, is manifestly to confer on those men the attribute of infallibility. Believe, indeed, we must, in the truth of our own opinions: nor need it be such a wavering and hesitating belief, as to leave us incessantly tormented by uneasy doubts: but if we censure the Romish church for declaring herself not liable to error, we must, for very shame, confess our own liability to it, not in mere words, but in practice; by being ever ready to listen to argument—ever open to conviction;—by continually appealing and referring at every step “to the law and to the testimony,”—by continually tracing up the stream of religious knowledge to the pure fountain-head—the living waters of the Scriptures.

There is no need, however, to dwell exclusively on the argument drawn from the possibility of our being mistaken; a danger which of course each one hopes, in each particular case, to have escaped. There is one decisive argument, perfectly simple, and accessible to every understanding, and especially acceptable to a pious mind, against employing any human statement of doctrines in place of Scripture as the standard to be habitually appealed to: *it is not the will of God* that this should be done. For if it *had* been his design, that there should be any such regular system of doctrine for habitual reference, and from which there should be, in ordinary practice, no appeal, he would surely have enjoined, or at least permitted, (and the permission would have been sufficient to insure the same result,) the framing of some such confession of faith or catechism, by his inspired servants themselves; since such a system would fully have answered the purpose in question, with the great additional advantage, that it must have commanded the assent of all who acknowledge the Christian Scriptures.

No church, therefore, is empowered to do that, which God for wise reasons evidently designed should not be done. He has left to the church the office of *pre-*

* Hinds’ History of the Rise of Christianity, vol. ii. p. 236.

*servings** the Scriptures, and introducing them to the knowledge of her members, as the sole standard of faith—as not merely the first step and foundation of proof, like the elementary propositions of mathematics, but as the *only* source of proof; and he has left her also the office of *teaching* the Christian doctrines *from* the Scriptures. A church is authorized to set forth for this purpose, 1, Catechisms—homilies—in short, whatever may be needful for systematic elementary *teaching*: it is authorized again, 2, to draw up creeds as a test or *symbol* to preserve uniformity of faith in her members: and it is also, 3, authorized to frame offices for public worship and administration of the sacraments. But all these human compositions must be kept to their own proper uses. However wisely framed they may be—however confident, and justly confident, we may feel, of their truth and scriptural character—we must never put them in the place of Scripture, by making them the standard of habitual appeal. Works of Christian instruction should be employed for *instruction*; works of devotion, for *devotion*;—symbolical works, such as creeds and articles, for their proper purpose of furnishing a *test* of any person's fitness to be acknowledged a member, or a minister, of our church. But never, if we would in deed and in spirit avoid the errors of Romanism—never should we appeal to creeds, liturgies, or catechisms, for the *proof* of any doctrine, or the refutation of any error. Never must we admit as decisive such a syllogism as this: “the doctrines of our church are Scriptural; this is a doctrine of our church; therefore, &c.” I mean, this must never be admitted, without immediately proceeding to the proof of the first premiss. And whenever we refer, in proof or disproof of any doctrine, to the Articles or Liturgy, for instance, we not only should not appeal to them *alone*, but we should also carefully point out that we refer to them not as the *authorized* formularies of a church, but simply as the *writings of able and pious men*, which would be deserving of attention, supposing them to be merely private sermons, &c. To refer to them as *backed by the church's sanction*, adds to them no legitimate force in respect of the abstract truth of any position. Such an appeal may indeed, in practice, be decisive, (and justly

so,) as far as regards members of our church: but it is, in truth, only an “argumentum ad hominem.” If any charge is to be brought *personally* against an individual, as unfit to be a member or minister of the church, the appeal is naturally, and rightly, made to her formularies composed for this very purpose: but when the question is not about a *person*, but a *doctrine*—when the abstract truth of any tenet is in question, “to the law and to the testimony!” It savours of the spirit of Romanism to refer for the proof or disproof of doctrines, solely, or chiefly, to any, the most justly venerated, human authority—to any thing but the inspired word of God. For if any one proves any thing from our Articles or Liturgy, for instance, either he could have proved it from Scripture, or he could not: if he could *not*, he is impeaching either the scriptural character of the church's doctrines, or his own knowledge of the scriptural basis on which they rest: if he *could* have proved it from Scripture, *that* is the course he should have taken: not only because he would thus have proved his point both to those who receive our Articles, and also to those who dissent from them; but also, because it is thus, and thus only, we can preserve to Scripture its due dignity and proper office, and avoid the dangerous and encroaching precedent of substituting human authority for divine.

For it is important to remember, that human formularies, when once the habit is established of making a definitive appeal to them for the proof of any disputed point, have a tendency not only to rival, but to supersede, Scripture. They are usually drawn up in a more compact and regular form, such as to facilitate reference; and they are purposely and carefully framed, so as to exclude certain particular interpretations, which those of a different persuasion have introduced.*

* It is on this ground, I believe, that the masters of several of our charity schools are enjoined to confine themselves entirely to the printed questions drawn up for their use, and to give the children no explanations of their own. The consequence is, that neither masters nor pupils are trained to exercise their minds in developing the sense of Scripture, but merely to exercise the memory in reciting words by rote. It is urged, that the master might fall into errors; and that though the framers of the printed questions and answers do not distinctly claim infallibility, their deliberate decisions are at least *less* liable to error than the views which might be taken by a number of comparatively unlearned men, and are less liable to be misunder-

* Hinds' History of the Rise of Christianity, vol. ii. p. 118.

The convenience thence resulting ought to put us the more on our guard against this encroaching character of human compositions. More troublesome indeed may be the diligent search of the Scriptures than a compendious appeal to established formularies; but God has appointed that this labour shall be the Christian's lot, and shall bring with it amply its own reward. The care, and diligence, and patient thought, and watchful observation required in drawing for ourselves the Christian truths from the pure spring-head, will be repaid by our having, through divine grace, those truths ultimately fixed in the heart as well as in the understanding;—we shall not only “read,” but “mark, learn, and inwardly digest them,” so that the heavenly nourishment will enter into our whole frame, and make us not merely sound theologians, but, what is much more, sincere Christians and good men, truly “wise

unto salvation, through faith which is in Christ Jesus.”

§. 8. It must not, however, be supposed, that those are exempt from the spirit of the error I am speaking of, who are the furthest removed from paying undue deference to the authorized *formularies of a church*. Many such persons on the contrary are particularly addicted “*jurare in verba magistri*”—to adopt blindly, and maintain in defiance of argument, whatever they are taught by some favourite preacher, author, or party; whom they thus invest, virtually and practically, with infallibility. There is no benefit in an emancipation from the shackles of Rome to men who set up a pope of their own making, or merely substitute an unerring party, for an unerring church; nor is any thing gained by abstaining from the use of the *term* infallibility, by those who believe in the *thing*.

Those among the clergy who are particularly zealous and sedulous, and particularly successful, in awakening sinners—in enlightening the ignorant—in administering consolation to the desponding, ought most especially to be on their guard, not only not to encourage but watchfully to repress in their hearers this error. “I depend entirely on Mr. Such-a-one; he is my stay and my hope; I feel that I should be lost without him; I am sure every thing he says is right, and that I am quite safe under his guidance:”—this is the sort of language often heard, and this the kind of feeling evinced, in the case of many a one who has been recalled from irreligion, or rescued from despair, through the means of some spiritual guide: a deep-felt, and perhaps commendable, gratitude and veneration, degenerate into a kind of idolatry; and they at length come to exalt him into their mediator, intercessor, and divine oracle. This throws a most flattering temptation in his way; which he must be the more vigilant in opposing. He must not only be ever ready to adopt the Apostle Paul's cautions, “Sirs, why do ye these things? we ourselves also are men of like passions with you:” “Every one of you saith, I am of Paul,” &c. “Was Paul crucified for you? or were ye baptized into the name of Paul?”—but more than this, he must also warn his hearers, that whereas Paul, having been instructed by divine revelation, was an infallible guide, he himself, having no such inspiration, claims accordingly no infallibility; and he must therefore exhort

stood than Scripture itself. The same reasoning would, if fairly followed up, lead to the substitution of homilies drawn up by authority, for all other preaching; and, ultimately, to the confinement of the Scriptures themselves to a set of authorized interpreters. How easily one may be on the high road to Romanism without suspecting it! No doubt the Romanists are right in maintaining that Scripture is liable to be wrested by “the unlearned and unstable, to their own destruction;” and that it is possible to draw up forms so precise and systematic, as to be less liable to misinterpretation, and expressly guarded against particular errors which have been founded on particular misinterpretations of Scripture: and all this ended in their “taking away the key of knowledge, neither entering in themselves, nor suffering others to enter in.” But even had they (which is inconceivable, considering what human nature is) embalmed no doctrinal errors in this system, they would still, as has been already remarked, have substituted a cold, lifeless, formal orthodoxy of profession, for active, vital, heartfelt religion. Our church, accordingly, knowing that the attempt to exclude the possibility of error, leads to the suppression of practically operating scriptural truth, braved the risk of such errors as might from time to time arise, by suffering the people to study the Scriptures, and the ministers to expound them, according to the best of their judgment; not confining to the homilies any except such pastors as might be judged incompetent to preach; and enjoining the bishops to give all diligence in selecting learned and discreet persons for the ministry.

And it would surely be the most consistent with these principles to select carefully the best qualified masters—to be diligent in giving each of them individually the best instructions, and to superintend watchfully their instruction of their scholars, than to preclude them (as is in fact done, on the plan just alluded to) from giving them any instruction at all.

often, and earnestly, the flock (not *his*, but Christ's) committed to his care, instead of pinning their faith to his bare word, to exercise their own minds—to weigh well the reasons he lays before them—and to study for themselves, as carefully as their circumstances will permit, the Scriptures which he is endeavouring to expound to them.

Still stronger to some minds is the temptation to become, each man a pope to himself, by indulging the habit of making his decisions on some points like "the law of the Medes and Persians, which altereth not," and of enrolling them as it were in a certain code, which is thenceforward not to be open to discussion. Such persons make up their minds perhaps on few points, and with cautious deliberation; but having once adopted an opinion, will listen afterwards to no arguments against it. "I have long adopted" (says a respectable and amiable writer) "an expedient which I have found of singular service. I have a shelf in my study for tried authors; and one in my mind for tried principles and characters. When an author has stood a thorough examination, and will bear to be taken as a guide, I put him on a shelf. When I have fully made up my mind on a principle, I put it on the shelf. A hundred subtle objections may be brought against this principle; I may meet with some of them perhaps; but my principle is on the shelf. Generally I may be able to recall the reasons which weighed with me to put it there; but *if not I am not to be sent out to sea again*. Time was when I saw through and detected all the subtleties that could be brought against it. *I have past evidence of having been fully convinced; and there on the shelf it shall lie*. When I have turned over a character on all sides, and seen it through and through in all situations, I put it on the shelf." The proceeding here described I believe to be adopted by not a few, though there are not probably many who would so frankly avow it. Yet such persons perhaps censure the Romanists for claiming infallibility for their church; a claim not implying a pretension to *universal knowledge*, but to an exemption from the *possibility of mistake* as to the points we do pronounce upon; which points accordingly are no more to be discussed, nor any objections against them to have a hearing. Whoever therefore in this way decides on any point, does, so far, virtually, claim infallibility. Indeed if he did not—if he still admitted that he

might possibly be mistaken on the point on which nevertheless he would bear no discussion, this, it is plain, would aggravate the fault.

"But," they say, "it is extravagant scepticism to be certain of nothing; it is an absurd and a wretched thing to have no faith in any thing, but to be for ever wavering and hesitating." I need hardly say that is not what I recommend. The lover of truth need not be always in *actual doubt* on every point; but he must be always *open to conviction*—always ready to hear and to meet fairly, any seriously-urged objections. It is one thing to be without faith, and another thing to have the faith of the apostolical Christian, who is "always ready to give to every one that asketh him, a *reason* of his hope." If there be any thing virtuous or manly in any faith, it must be in that which defies impugnments—which courts investigation; not in that which rests on our resolution to shut our ears. If our confidence, for instance, in a friend's integrity is accompanied with a *determination* to hear no objections to his conduct, it surely is not so creditable to him, as if it rested on a defiance of accusations, and a readiness to hear all that could be said, though with a full *expectation* that all censure would be refuted. For we may very reasonably, on many occasions, feel, after a careful examination of some question, a confident expectation that no arguments *will* be adduced that will change our opinions; but this is very different from a resolution that none ever *shall*.

Yet nothing is more common than to hear a person say, in the course of some discussion, "Nothing shall ever convince me" . . . "Then hold your peace!" would be a fair reply, even before he had finished his sentence; "if you are not open to conviction, you are not qualified for discussion. The more confident you are, *on just grounds*, of being in the right, the more fearlessly ready should you be, to hear all that can be urged on the other side." I am aware that this is, in many cases, no more than a form of speech adopted from imitation: but considering how prone we are by nature to the fault in question, I cannot but think it important that even our language should be carefully guarded, so as never to express, what we should never allow ourselves to feel, that firm confidence in the authority of man (whether the decision be another's or our own) in matters wherein he is liable to err, which is due only to the unerring God.

CHAP. V.

PERSECUTION.

§. 1. THERE are several expressions of our Lord's which are calculated, and probably were designed, to guard against the notion, that a rejection of his religion is an offence which will be lightly regarded by the Most High;—that the gracious and merciful—the tender and condescending—character of the Gospel which proclaimed “peace and good-will towards men,” is to be considered as implying that men are left to accept the offer or not, according to their own tastes and fancies, and have no heavy judgments to dread in case of their not embracing it. On the contrary, “whosoever,” said he, “shall not receive you, nor hear you, when ye depart thence, shake off the dust under your feet for a testimony against them; verily, I say unto you, it shall be more tolerable for Sodom and Gomorrah, in the day of judgment, than for that city.”

It was perhaps the more needful to guard against such a mistake as I have alluded to, on account of his having shortly before rebuked his disciples for proposing to call down fire from heaven on a Samaritan village which had refused to receive him; saying, “Ye know not what manner of spirit ye are of; for the Son of man is not come to destroy men's lives, but to save.” That this prohibition and this declaration of his might possibly have been so interpreted by his disciples as to lead to the mistake in question, we may infer from the tone in which, even as it is, some Christian writers have spoken of the passage, as if designed to contrast the milder and gentler character of the Gospel, with the severity of the Mosaic law. Whereas our Lord, in the words just cited, warns his hearers, and us, through them, that abundant in mercy as the Gospel offers of salvation are, that mercy is reserved for such as shall accept them; and that as the more glorious rewards, so also the more fearful judgments of a future life, are held out in place of the *temporal* sanctions of the old dispensation. It is as if he had said, “Think not that because I came not to destroy the lives of the ungodly by temporal judgments, as Elias did, therefore the sin of these men is less, or the judgments reserved for them, if they persist in it, lighter; on the contrary, as greater miracles have been wrought among the men of this generation, and not temporal but

eternal blessings offered them, so, a proportionate punishment in the next world, though they may escape in this, awaits the impenitent: I forbade you to call down fire from heaven on those who have rejected me; though Sodom would have repented if the mighty works had been done in it which have been done in these cities, and Sodom *was* destroyed by fire from heaven: verily I say unto you, it shall be more tolerable for Sodom *in the day of judgment*, than for them.”

The natural inference from the two passages I have alluded to, compared with each other, and with several more in the New Testament connected with them, would plainly seem to be, that though the Lord will not, under the new any more than under the old dispensation, permit his call to be disobeyed with impunity, the rewards and punishments which form the sanction of the Gospel are not (like those under the law) temporal prosperity and affliction, but the far more important goods and evils of a future life; and that consequently the revelation of Christ cannot, consistently with its character, be either propagated or maintained by the sword or the fires of persecution, or by any *compulsory* means; but requires us to be “gentle unto all men, in meekness instructing them that oppose themselves, if God peradventure will give them repentance to the acknowledgment of the truth.”

The desire, however, of saving men from the dreadful doom in the next world, denounced on those “who do not obey the truth,” has often been a reason, and oftener perhaps a plea, for seeking to enforce a right faith, and to put down religious error, by all possible means. Too anxious, we cannot be, for the salvation of men's souls—for the diffusion and for the purity of the Christian religion—so long as we seek to compass these objects by the gentle force of persuasive argument and winning example: but when these methods fail, or even when it is apprehended that they *may* fail, the endeavour to prevent, by restraint, deviations from the established faith, and to force the stubborn and unpersuadable into that which appears to be both for their own good, and for that of the community, is perfectly natural and conformable to the character of man.

The Romish church, which has so long and so loudly been stigmatized as a persecuting church, is indeed deeply stained with this guilt, but cannot with any reason be reckoned the originating cause of it. The vast and black catalogue of her offences on this score may be accounted for by the circumstance, that a large portion of *mankind* were for many ages members of that church; and that in this, as well as in numerous other points formerly noticed, the evil propensities of man's nature were, instead of being checked on each occasion, connived at, sanctified, and successively embodied in that corrupt system. The pretended successor of Peter does indeed proclaim his own degeneracy, by his palpable disobedience to the command, to "put up his sword into its sheath;" but this, as well as the other Romish errors, has its root in the evil heart of the unrenewed man. Like the rest, it neither began with Romanism, nor can reasonably be expected to end with it.

In respect of the point now before us, this should seem to be more especially evident: for none complain more loudly of persecution than the Romanists themselves; who adore, to this day, the relics of the martyrs to Pagan persecution. And it is but too well known, that the reformers, when they had detected and renounced the other Romish errors, had not, either in principle or in practice, divested themselves of this.* Even in respect of the persecutions directed against themselves, they seem to have joined issue rather on the question whether *they* were heretics, than whether heretics ought to be consigned to the secular arm. Nor can this remnant of the spirit of Romanism be so called, in the sense of making the peculiar system of that church, properly, the *cause* of it; because we find the same principle manifested in its full force among the Mahometans, who cannot in any way be regarded as deriving it from Romanism.

It is derivable rather from the character of "the natural man;"—from the natural feelings of resentment against opponents—of love of control—and of a desire to promote apparent good, and repress whatever seems fraught with mischief, by any means that present themselves as effectual. The bitter contests between the sects of the Nominalists and the Realists, in the

age preceding the reformation, present a memorable and instructive proof, that the operation of these feelings is not confined to the case of religion.

§. 2. But natural as these feelings may be, and strongly as they may tend to produce persecution, it may be thought that in the present age and country at least, it is useless to contemplate a danger now completely done away; since persecution neither exists, nor is likely to arise among ourselves.

It is however important—not perhaps less important now than formerly—to lay down correct *principles* on this point, and to keep clear of a theoretical error, though it may not lead now to the same *kind* of practical evils with those which formerly sprang from it. For it usually happens that a false principle will lead to two different evil results. To use a language which will be familiar to most of my readers, a false premiss, according as it is combined with this, or with that true one, will lead to two different false conclusions. Thus, if the principle be admitted that any *important* religious error ought to be forcibly suppressed, this may lead either to persecution on the one side, or to latitudinarian *indifference* on the other. Some may be led to justify the suppression of heresies by the civil sword; and others, whose feelings revolt at such a procedure, and who see persecution reprobated and discountenanced by those around them, may be led by the same principle to regard religious errors as of little or no importance, and all religious persuasions as equally acceptable in the sight of God. To abstain, in short, in practice from putting down heresies by secular force, if we at the same time maintain the *right* to do so, in the case of *pernicious* error, is in fact to sanction those heresies as harmless and insignificant.

Moreover, it is also important, with a view to future contingencies, to be in possession of just principles on such a subject. When persecution is not actually raging—when men's minds are not actually inflamed by the combination of religion animosity with excitements of a political character—then is the very time to provide ourselves with such firm-fixed and right principles, as may avail in time of need, and to destroy the roots of those theoretical errors which may lie torpid, yet ready to vegetate as soon as the season is favourable to them. For when party spirit and all angry passions are raging, the voice of calm reason is not

* Jeremy Taylor advocated, almost as a paradoxical novelty, the doctrine of toleration; and Locke found it necessary long after to make a formal and elaborate defence of it.

likely to be listened to. When the storm is in its fury, it may be too late to drop the anchor.

And especially persons of the mildest disposition, and most forbearing benevolence, who are fully, and perhaps justly, conscious that they themselves would never, under any circumstances, be in danger of acting harshly—more especially, I say, should such persons be warned of the importance of tolerant *principles*, and cautioned to be on their guard against inculcating or favouring such doctrines as may, by being consistently followed up, lead others into persecution. For such a person is of course not likely to distrust himself on this point; from feeling confident that cruel severity is not his own besetting sin; and therefore may be in the more danger of promulgating principles, which others will act upon in a manner that would be revolting to himself. He may have been preparing a poisonous potion, which others will administer. The sword which he has unconsciously forged and sharpened may be wielded with unsparing vigour by sterner hands.

And it should be remembered, that however comparatively mild the character of the present age may be, if contrasted with those that are past, we think it worth while to pray that we, God's "servants, may be hurt by no persecutions;" let us never therefore forget to add mentally a petition for the far more important blessing, that we may be preserved from hurting others by persecution.

To prove that persecution is unchristian would be superfluous; since the proposition, so stated, would be at once admitted by all. No one calls himself, or probably thinks himself, a persecutor. The errors we are liable to on this point, if we are liable to any, must consist in our reckoning ourselves secure from this fault as long as we condemn the *name* of it, and reprobate the Romanists for being guilty of it, while at the same time we have a false or indistinct notion of what it is that constitutes the spirit of persecution.

I shall therefore chiefly confine myself to a brief notice of the mistakes as to this point which appear to be the most prevalent.

§. 3. I. The tenet of the Romanists, that salvation is absolutely impossible out of the pale of their own church, has been not unfrequently considered as the necessary basis of all their persecution. But this view appears to me not only incor-

rect, but mischievous in its results. For though such a persuasion may be harsh and bigotted, and may tend to foster a persecuting principle, the two are by no means either identical or necessarily connected. It is at least conceivable that a man may believe a conformity to his own faith to be absolutely indispensable to salvation, and yet may hold, as part of that faith, the unlawfulness of employing coercion in its cause. On the other hand, a man may believe the *possibility* of the salvation of those of a different persuasion from his own, yet may think them much less *likely* to attain it; he may think their case not absolutely hopeless, but highly dangerous; and he may also think himself authorized, and therefore bound, to preserve or to reclaim men from error, by coercive means, when no others will suffice. He may consider governments as bound to exercise, in all respects, a *parental* care over their subjects:* now children are withheld, and if

* Grotius, speaking of the establishment of the reformed religion by the States of Holland, says, "Recepta publice disciplina quæ Genævæ, et in Palatinatu Germaniæ, passimque alibi, docebatur: hoc tamen interest, quod ejusdem religionis *alii*, diversas *minus tolerant* : quippe, non in hoc tantum ordinatas a Deo civitates ac magistratus dicantur ut a corporibus et possessionibus injuriæ abessent, sed ut quo more. Ipse jussisset, eo, in commune coleretur; cuius officii negligentes, multos, penam aliorum impietati debitam, in se accersisse. Contra, istæ nationes," &c. The Dutch States regarded the maintaining of a false religion as a *sin* only, not a *crime*; (according to the distinction so ably drawn by Bp. Warburton;) and consequently as not coming within the province of the civil magistrate: while others, misled probably, as men so often and so easily are, by the circumstance that in very many cases the *same* act will be *both* a sin and a crime, confounded the two together; and regarding it the duty of the magistrate, as entrusted with the care of his subjects' *good*, generally, to enforce every thing conducive to what seemed to him their good, concluded that the toleration of religious error would be as unjustifiable as the toleration of theft. Yet all this does not imply their conviction of the absolute *impossibility* of salvation to one infected with religious error.

Some of my readers may perhaps imagine, that these notions, though prevalent two centuries and a half ago, have been long since obsolete among Protestants. But the following passages, breathing the same spirit, are extracted from a work which received the sanction of a large and influential body of Protestants within the present century. "Man is a compounded being, not more impelled to seek his temporal advantage, than bound to pursue his eternal interests. Must not the state look to him in both conditions; and as far as possible assist its individual members in the attainment of both? Is not the sovereign to rule

need be, forcibly withheld, by their parents, not only from *inevitable* destruction, but from every thing *dangerous*, or in any respect hurtful. The persuasion, therefore, of the absolute necessity of a right faith, however uncharitable it may be, does not necessarily lead to persecu-

for the greatest good of the whole? And can he leave out any part of that which constitutes their greatest good? Is he not again bound by the duty which he owes to God, so to govern his people as to enable them best to obey the will of the great common Sovereign of all? Must he not then secure for his subjects the best aids of religion?" (On this principle I cannot conceive how the sovereign can be justified in affording toleration to any, that he thinks religious errors, or in abstaining from suppressing them by the sword, if milder means fail; even as he would theft, or murder.) "In truth, every separation of divine and human things is a rejection of Providence." (The precept of "render unto Cæsar the things that be Cæsar's, and unto God the things that be God's," seems rather at variance with this.) "I should not have dwelt so long upon so plain a proposition as that which affirms it to be the duty of the sovereign to provide a *true* religion for his people," (this must imply, conformably with the foregoing principles, the prohibition of all *false* ones,) "but that, strange as it may appear, it is a maxim which hangs but loosely on the minds of many in the present day."

Whether the writer really meant to adopt the conclusion which inevitably follows from his principles, or whether he was merely designing to advocate what is commonly understood by "an established religion," I do not presume, nor is it important, to determine. Certainly the fallacy of proving too much, is one of those which are the most apt to slip in unperceived. It is remarkable, however, that he proceeds to censure, not merely the enemies of a religious establishment, but also some of "those who admit the lawfulness and necessity of an establishment;" including, particularly, Warburton; whom he describes as "feeling no concern for the truth of the religion which he calls to his aid," and as representing that there is "no difference between false and true religion in their influence on society!" This is the inference drawn from Warburton's just and undeniable remark, that in discussing questions respecting the establishment of a religion by the civil magistrate, we must *waive the question* as to the *truth* of each, because each will of course regard *his own* as the true one, and there is no appeal to any authority on earth to decide between the different sovereigns. Whether Warburton's views are correct or not (which it is not my present object to inquire,) so gross a misrepresentation of him is neither fair nor wise.

But the writer from whom I have made these extracts might, consistently, (and this is the point which is important to my present view,) hold the *possibility of salvation* of one whose religious persuasion differed from his own: how he could, consistently, admit of *toleration*, I cannot conceive. And what I am now occupied in pointing out is the non-connexion of these two things, which are so often confounded.

tion; nor does the absence of that persuasion preclude persecution. And the notion is, as I have said, not only erroneous, but practically mischievous; because it naturally tends to make men regard with suspicion, as leading to intolerance, every one who sets a high value on a right faith, regarding religious error as an important evil; and to suppose that liberalism and Christian charity consist in a carelessness about truth, and indifference as to all religious persuasions.

II. Another mistake as to the real character of persecution is that of regarding it as consisting in the employment of violent means *against the truth*;—as implying that the persecution must be on the wrong side. Those who take this view of the subject (as the Romanists seem always to have done) do not, in fact, censure *persecution* as such, but rather *religious error*. They can no more be said to object to persecution than a man could be called an *enemy to laws* because he condemns what he thinks *inexpedient* laws, while he advocates such as he considers wiser. If the persecutors of whom they complain are doing only what *would* be right, supposing the doctrines they enforce were true, it is not properly the *violence* employed that is complained of, but the *false doctrines* supported by it. And it may be added, that, on this principle, the censure of persecution must be no less *practically vain*, than it is in itself incorrect; since no one will believe, or at least acknowledge, his own persuasion to be wrong, and the cause to which he is opposed to be that of truth. All dissuatives from persecution must pass by men "as the idle wind which they regard not," if the word be used in such a sense, that no one will, or conceivably *can*, apply these dissuatives to his own case.

III. Again, persecution is sometimes characterized as consisting in the *excessive severity*—the cruelty—of the punishments inflicted, and of the coercive means employed. But in cases where *any* secular punishment may allowably be inflicted, it can hardly be said that any can be excessive which is not as great an evil as that which it is designed to remedy, when no lighter penalty will suffice. Now the loss of men's immortal souls was justly regarded by the Romanists as a greater evil than the most cruel death of a heretic: and they were not perhaps mistaken in thinking, that such severity as effectually puts a stop to the offence is, in the end, even the more humane. On the other

hand, where we have no right to inflict secular penalties at all, all alike, whether light or heavy, must be regarded as equally of the *nature* of persecution and cruelty, however unequal in amount. It is not the degree of suffering, but the just or wrongful infliction, that characterizes each punishment. Persecution is not wrong because it is cruel; but it is cruel because it is wrong.

IV. Nor, again, is it correct to characterize persecution as consisting in the infliction of punishment for the gratification of *revenge* or *malice*: according to which view, two individuals might deserve, the one praise, and the other censure, while adopting the very same measures, the one from a benevolent wish to deter offenders, the other, from the impulse of angry passion, and from a blood-thirsty disposition. And it is certainly true that such an act as the persecution of a robber, e. g., may spring from a sinful desire of revenge: but as in that case we do not condemn the act as in itself unjustifiable, though we censure the agent; so, those who hold the principle just mentioned, do not, in fact, disapprove of persecution at all, but only of revengeful *motives* for it. And any censure they may profess to bestow on persecution must be as ineffectual as it is in truth incorrect: for few will even think, and no one will admit, that he is actuated by revengeful motives. In the bloodiest periods of the inquisition, the professed object was always the preservation of men's souls by the prevention of heretical infection. Nor are such professions necessarily hypocritical. A man of the most humane and benevolent character may be led by a mistaken sense of duty, arising from error of judgment, to sanction the most dreadful severities, which he regards as the only effectual check to a greater evil, such as he thinks himself bound to repress at all events. What candid (or even uncandid) student of history can believe Cranmer cruel and revengeful? Yet he sanctioned the cutting off of heretics by the secular arm, from a sincere, though erroneous, sense of duty.

V. Sometimes, again, the mistake is committed of characterizing persecution as consisting in punishing men for their religious *opinions*; while punishment for *propagating* their errors is justified.

But this is in fact to explain away the very existence of persecution; since no man *can* be punished for opinions which he keeps secret within his own bosom. All persecution, if there be any such thing

in existence, or even in imagination, *must* be either for *publishing* opinions supposed to be erroneous, or for refusing to *renounce* them, and to subscribe to the creed imposed. Will it be said then, that we are authorized to prohibit and to prevent, by penalties, the *preaching* of any doctrines we may deem erroneous, though it would involve the guilt of persecution to compel any one to abjure those doctrines, and to assent to ours? Surely this is drawing a distinction where there is no essential difference. If it is our right and our duty to prevent by forcible means the spread of certain doctrines, and to maintain what we believe to be true religion, we must be authorized and bound to employ what will often appear the only effectual means towards our object, by compelling men to renounce those erroneous doctrines, and to profess that religion; or else, at least, to quit the country. For we should remember, that it never can, in any case, be left to our *choice*, whether we will employ coercive means or not. All punishment—all denunciation of punishment—in short, all compulsion and restraint—must be either a *duty* or a *sin*. The civil magistrate may say, "I have *power* to release thee, and *power* to condemn thee;" but he cannot have a *right* to do whichever he will.

And in the present instance, it is impossible to draw a line to any effectual purpose between forbidding a man to propagate his religion, and compelling him to abjure it, on the ground that the one does, and the other does not, offer violence to his conscience; which was perhaps the distinction set up by the Jewish elders, when they were content merely to "charge the apostles not to preach in the name of Jesus." Peter and John replied, that they could not but "declare what they had seen and heard;" and it is not surely impossible, or even unlikely, that others also may think themselves bound in conscience to teach, at least, their families and their friends, what they conceive to be essential truths.

VI. Lastly, it is important to observe, that though persecution *itself* does necessarily imply the actual *infliction* of some penalty, we must by no means infer, that where nothing of the kind takes place, the *spirit* and *principle* of persecution is absent.

On the contrary, wherever this principle is the most vigorously and effectually acted on, there will be the least actual persecution, because there will be the

least occasion for it. For it should be remembered, that no one *wishes* to persecute. Penal laws against heretics, as those against robbers, or incendiaries, are not devised for the purpose of crowding the jails, and multiplying the number of criminals sentenced, but are designed to *prevent* the offences against which they are directed; and the laws are considered as then most effectual, when the terror of the penalties they denounce so operates in deterring offenders, that there is seldom any need to inflict the penalties themselves.

We never hear therefore of persecution in those countries where no resistance is made to religious coercion. The fetters gall those only who struggle against them. Accordingly, where the tyranny of the Inquisition reigns triumphant, there are no punishments for religious offences. No tree is withered by the frost of the polar regions, or by the scorching winds of the Arabian deserts; because none can exist in those regions. And no Protestant is now brought to the stake in Spain, because, there, persecution has done its work.

Hence the fallacious argument, for I cannot but regard it as such, which is often employed against persecution, on the ground that it does not answer its purpose of suppressing dissent. It is evident that *actual* persecution, when it does accomplish its object, must soon cease. The fire will go out of itself, when it has fairly consumed its fuel. The more effectually the Inquisition operates, the less it will have to do. There are accordingly few Roman Catholic countries in which some attempts at reformation have not been suppressed by a vigorous, early, and steady resort to secular force; or in which such attempts are not *prevented* by the *apprehension* of it.

We must not therefore judge of the existence, or of the extent, of a persecuting spirit, in any case, by the amount of *sufferings* actually *undergone*; (else we shall suppose it to exist least where in reality it is in the greatest force;) but by the penalties *denounced*—in short, the degree of *coercion* that exists in religious matters. And in our own conduct, the rock of which we must steer clear, if we would preserve the true course of Christian meekness, is, not the actual practice of religious persecution, but the sanction of secular compulsion and restriction—the not the actual *infliction*, but the *enactment*

of secular penalties. For the *infliction* (in any case) of the punishment denounced, is an accidental circumstance; and it is never the object of the legislator's will, but depends in part on the persons suffering; and if the law is just, the penalty by which it is sanctioned *ought* to be inflicted on any transgressor of that law. And on the other hand, consequently, if the case be such that the infliction of the punishment *would* be persecution, the law ought not to be sanctioned by the denouncement of that punishment. A compulsory enactment necessarily implies the resort to forcible means, in case of resistance or disobedience; in any case therefore where the one would be wrong, the other cannot possibly be right.*

§. 4. The ultimate penalty accordingly, in this world, with which the Author of our religion thought fit to sanction it, was (with the exception of a few cases of miraculous interference) the exclusion of the offender from the religious community which he had scandalized†: “if he refuse to hear the church, let him be unto you as a heathen man and as a publican:” if he would not listen when repeatedly admonished, he was to be removed from the society. And it is worthy of being remarked, that the Romish church itself claims no right to punish those who do not belong to that Society: a “*heathen*

* Accordingly, I have always been at a loss to understand how Christians, of those sects which interpret literally the injunction to turn the cheek to the smiter, and which regard all employment of force as unlawful, can reconcile to their principles the practice (about which they have, I believe, no scruple) of *going to law* for the recovery of their rights.

If one of these has a sum awarded to him, whether in the shape of damages, or otherwise, he must be aware that the defendant would, in most instances, refuse to pay it, but that he is *compelled*; i. e., knows that if he refused payment, his goods would be forcibly seized by the officers of justice, and that an attempt to resist or evade such seizure would be punished by imprisonment or otherwise.

Do they then satisfy their conscience by the plea that no force is *actually* used; the *apprehension* of it being sufficient? or do they plead, that at any rate the force would not be exercised by *themselves*, but by the officers, who are of a different persuasion? The former of these principles might be used to justify a man's sending an incendiary-letter, provided the *threat* proved successful; the latter plea might be urged in behalf of one who should hire an unscrupulous assassin to despatch his enemy.

† For an able developement of this principle, see Hinds' History of the Rise of Christianity, vol. i. p. 327—336.

man" does not come under her jurisdiction. In order therefore to retain the right of coercion over all who have been baptized, even by such as she accounts heretics, the Romanists affect to regard them as truly members, though rebellious subjects, of the Catholic church. In literal and direct opposition to our Lord's words, though censuring them for "refusing to hear the church," they yet will *not* regard them in the light of "heathen men."^{*}

The language of the Apostle Paul corresponds with his Master's: "a man that is a heretic, after the first and second admonition, reject." But no personal violence—no secular penalty whatever, is denounced against heretics and schismatics—"heathen men and publicans." The whole of the New Testament breathes a spirit of earnestness indeed in the cause of truth, and zeal against religious error; but of such a zeal as was to manifest itself only in vehement and persevering persuasion.

This, which the Romanists cannot deny, they are driven to explain away, by saying, that the apostles and other early Christians were *unable* to compel men to a conformity to the true faith; they abstained from the use of secular force, because (I cite the words of Augustine, a favourite authority with the Romanists) "that prophecy was not yet fulfilled, be wise now therefore, O ye kings: be learned, ye that are judges of the earth; serve the Lord with fear." The rulers of the earth, he adds, were at that time opposed to the Gospel; and *therefore* it was that the secular arm was not called in against the church's enemies.

But the Romanists might be asked in reply, if indeed such an argument be worth a reply, *why* the apostles had not this power. Surely their Master could have bestowed it;—he unto whom "all power was given, in heaven and in earth."—He who declared that the Father was ready to send him "more than twelve legions of angels;" whose force, as it would have destroyed all idea of resistance, would at once have established his religion, without any need of a resort to *actual* persecution. Or, if for any hidden reasons, the time was not yet come for conferring on his disciples that coercive power which was to be afterwards justifiably employed in his cause, we

might expect that he would have given notice to them of the change of system which was to take place. But had he designed any such change, his declaration to Pilate would have been little else than an equivocation worthy of the school of the very Jesuits. Had he declared that "his kingdom was not of this world," meaning, that though such was the case, *then*, he meant it to be supported by secular force hereafter, and consequently to *become* a kingdom of this world;—and that his servants were not allowed to fight in his cause; with the mental reservation, that they were hereafter to do so:—He would have fully justified the suspicion which probably was entertained by many of the heathen magistrates, that the Christians and their Master did, notwithstanding their professions, secretly meditate the establishment of a kingdom supported by secular force; and that though they disavowed this principle, and abstained from all violent methods, this was only a mask assumed during the weakness of their infant power, which they would (according to the principle which Augustine avows) throw aside as soon as they should have obtained sufficient strength.

But the very idea is blasphemous, of attributing such a subterfuge to him who "came into the world that he might bear witness of the truth." The immediate occasion indeed of our Lord's *making this declaration* to Pilate, was his desire to do away the expectation so strongly prevailing both among Jews and Gentiles, of a temporal Messiah about to establish a triumphant kingdom: but no occasion would have led him to make the declaration, had it not been *true*: and it would *not* have been true, had he meant no more than that his kingdom was spiritual, in the sense of its having dominion over the souls of men, and holding out the glories and the judgments of the other world; for this was what the infidel Jews expected, and expect to this day; they look for a kingdom both of this world and also of the next;—for a Messiah who shall bestow on his followers not only worldly power and splendour, but also the spiritual blessings of a future state, besides. They did indeed expect the Messiah to reign over them for ever in bodily person: but the main part of their expectation would have been fulfilled, had he merely *founded* a temporal kingdom, and delegated (as the Lord did of old, to the kings) his power, to his anointed, in whom his spi-

^{*} Blanco White's Evidence against Catholicism, p. 118.

rit should dwell. Jesus accordingly not only *claimed spiritual* dominion, but *renounced temporal*: he declared not merely that his kingdom is of the *next* world, but that it is *not* of *this* world.

All the declarations, however—all the direct and indirect teaching—of Scripture, is unavailing to the uncandid inquirer, who seeks in these books, not a guide for his conduct, but a justification of it; and who is bent on making the word of God, where it does not suit his views, “of none effect, by the tradition” of a supposed infallible church, or by the subtleties of strained interpretations.* But to a candid mind the instructions afforded by the evangelists and apostles appear to me not only sufficient to settle all questions relating to the subject of persecution, but also (to the generality of mankind) better adapted for that purpose than any arguments which human reason could supply.

§. 5. For I am convinced, after much observation and reflection on the subject, that in all discussions, whether with professed Romanists, or with others, in spirit, Romanists, who advocate such principles as lead to persecution, the arguments drawn from Scripture are to be preferred for popular use, as best calculated to satisfy those who are of a Christian spirit and open to conviction, but of moderate intellectual powers. Other arguments have often been unanswerably urged against persecution, drawn from its ultimate inexpediency—from its liability to be employed against the truth, as well as for it. It has been condemned again with equally good reason—from its tendency to produce hypocrisy and covert atheism, and, by creating a general suspicion of insincerity, to weaken the evidence in favour of a religion so supported. For the argument from authority—the confirmation any one’s faith receives from the belief of others, is destroyed, when a *compulsory* profession leaves it doubtful in each case whether those others are sincere believers or not. And the prohibition, under secular penalties, of any arguments against a religion, does away with another and more important branch of evidence, *the defiance of contradiction*; through the medium of which most of the other evidences of Christianity present themselves to the minds of the generality;

who could not possibly examine, in detail, for themselves, any great part (no one could, the whole) of the proofs of each of the historical facts on which our religion rests; but whose confidence rests, and justly rests, on the conviction, that if there were any flaw in the evidence, it would be detected and proclaimed.* Force accordingly, together with fraud, the two great engines for the support of the papal dominions have almost annihilated sincere belief in Christianity among the educated classes, throughout a great portion of Europe.

Such arguments, I say, as these, are sound indeed, and, to an enlarged and philosophical mind—one capable of taking a comprehensive view of human affairs and of human nature—they are perfectly convincing. And they afford to such a mind, a pleasing confirmation of the super-human wisdom manifested in the

* “Christians must generally, it would seem, believe in Christ, because their spiritual rulers do, and reject the infidel’s views, because these people are pronounced accursed. Nay, the supposition of the clergy themselves having the qualification, and the opportunity to go through the process of proof, is only a supposition. They often want either or both, and it is impossible that it should not be so. The labour of a life is scarcely sufficient to examine for one’s self one branch alone of such evidence. For the greater part, few men, however learned, have satisfied themselves by going through the proof. They have admitted the main assertions, because proved by others.

“And is this conviction then reasonable? Is it more than the adoption of truth on the authority of another? It is. The principle on which all these assertions are received, is not that they have been made by this or that credible individual or body of persons, who have gone through the proof—this may have its weight with the critical and learned—but the main principle adopted by all, intelligible by all, and reasonable in itself, is, that these assertions are set forth, bearing on their face a *challenge of refutation*. The assertions are like witnesses placed in a box to be confronted. Scepticism, infidelity, and scoffing, form the very groundwork of our faith. As long as these are known to exist and to assail it, so long are we sure that any untenable assertion may and will be refuted. The benefit accruing to Christianity in this respect from the occasional success of those who have found flaws in the several parts of evidence is invaluable. We believe what is not disproved, most reasonably, because we know that there are those abroad who are doing their utmost to disprove it. We believe the witness, not because we know him and esteem him, but because he is confronted, cross-examined, suspected, and assailed by arts fair and unfair. It is not his authority, but the reasonableness of the case. It becomes conviction well grounded, and not assent to man’s words.” *London Review*, No. II. p. 361, 362

* “Quicquid recipitur, ad modum recipientis recipitur,” is an ancient medical aphorism, capable of a wide application.

† Bishop Taylor and Locke have almost exhausted the arguments on this subject.

Gospel scheme. For men of that age and condition of life, and of the *Jewish* nation more especially, would never have been led by mere human sagacity to reject and prohibit all temporal coercion, and seek to propagate and maintain their religion by no force but that of gentle persuasion. And even in the present day, I cannot but think that such arguments as I have adverted to are not likely to be comprehended in their full force, by men of narrow or uncultivated understanding. And therefore it is, I conceive, that our great Master has graciously provided, in his holy word, a support for the weak, and a guide for the dim-sighted, among his faithful followers;—that he has been pleased to reveal what is, not indeed undiscoverable by human reason, but yet not so discoverable as to be capable of being made clear to the mass of mankind;—that he has prohibited, both by the precepts and the example of himself and his apostles, that persecuting spirit whose inexpediency and whose intrinsic turpitude, some, even of the humble and sincere among his followers, might have failed to discover for themselves. As for the prejudiced and the wilful, they are not likely to learn the truth either from Scripture or from reason:* but the plainest Christian, who has indeed “the Spirit of Christ,” and not that of the Papal Antichrist, may learn the will of his Master both by his teaching and from his pattern; and may be made “wise unto salvation,” by becoming a follower of him who was “meek and lowly in spirit,”—who “did no violence, neither was guile found in his mouth,” and who “came not to destroy men’s lives, but to save.”

§. 6. How blind even an intelligent man may be to the abstract arguments against persecution, is strikingly illustrated by a slip which the acute and powerful Bishop Warburton has made, in treating of toleration. He would have all men allowed liberty to worship God in their own way; but Atheists, he says, should be banished from every civil government, because they are “incapable of giving security for their behaviour in community; and their principles directly overthrow the very foundation on which it is built.”† This great man overlooked the seemingly obvious circumstance, that, by a kind of perverse inconsistency, his remedy would operate precisely in those cases where

his reason for it did not hold good, and would be almost sure to fail in the very cases it was designed to meet. Such Atheists as were, conformably to his supposition, utterly unprincipled and unscrupulous, would of course, were the system he recommends established, make no difficulty of denying their infidelity, and professing any thing whatever that might be proposed to them; those again, if there be any such, who were too honest to save themselves from punishment by falsehood, would be the very persons to suffer the penalty. So that those to whom his description applies, as being such that the community could have “no security” for their good behaviour, would remain in the community; and the sentence of exile designed for them, would fall on those, exclusively, to whom the description did not apply.

A like error results, practically, in some instances, from our laws relative to oaths. I have seen a case recorded, of a tradesman suing a customer for a debt, which the other denied; he produced his books, and was about to make oath in the usual form, of the correctness of the entry; when the other party objected that he was an Atheist, and therefore was not entitled to take an oath: on being questioned, he admitted this; and the case was dismissed. The magistrates could not have acted otherwise, as the law stands; but surely the law should be altered when it operates, as in this instance, to defeat its own object.* The very purpose of an oath is to obtain some security of a man’s speaking the truth: now in this case, if the tradesman had been so unscrupulous as to make a false charge, it is not likely he would have hesitated to support it by a false profession of his belief in religion. The best ground that could have been afforded for trusting to his veracity, was his refusing to utter a falsehood for the sake of establishing his claim; and it was for this very reason, in fact, that his claim was disallowed.

§. 7. The feeling which tends to foster the spirit of persecution, and to blind us to the reasons opposed to it—that feeling of *hostility* which naturally arises in our breasts against such as reject our faith, or our own views of it—in short, against infidels and heretics—is chiefly remarkable from the circumstance of its being

* “Remedia non agunt in cadaver.”

† Alliance between Church and State, b. iii.

* See an able pamphlet entitled “Remarks on Oaths, &c.” published by Hatchard, 1826.

usually so much stronger, than our indignation against those who, professing our religion, disgrace it by an unchristian life, or even by an avowed disregard of religion. It should seem at the first glance, as if the very reverse of this were the more reasonably to be expected. For, as far as the *cause itself* is concerned, he surely injures it more who brings discredit on it, than he who openly opposes it. The professing Christian implies, by a sinful life, either that his religion is compatible with immorality, or else that he professes it for form's sake only, and secretly disbelieves it; by which means he casts a doubt on the sincerity of the professions of others, and thus weakens the evidence their example would have afforded. And as far as the *individual* is concerned, the irreligious, or profligate, or worldly-minded Christian, is surely more chargeable with *impiety* than the unbeliever. An Atheist might, conceivably at least, have loved and obeyed his Saviour, if he could have been convinced of his divine mission: at any rate, he is not living in habitual defiance of a God whom he acknowledges. If two men receive each a letter from his father, and one of them, on very insufficient grounds, rejects it as a forgery, he is not surely *more* undutiful than the other, who, recognizing it as a genuine letter from his father, puts it away carefully, and utterly disregards all the injunctions it contains.

The Apostle Paul accordingly enjoins his converts to withdraw themselves, not from all intercourse with unbelievers, but from any man of their own society, that "walketh disorderly;"—"if any one that is *called a brother*" bring a scandal on the church by living in known sin, "with such a one not even to eat:" (i. e. at the agapæ, or love-feasts;) and to "cut off" (excommunicate) those who "offend" (i. e. scandalize) the society.

How comes it, then, that men's feelings for the most part take an opposite direction? I. One obvious cause, as far as we of the present day are concerned, is, that avowed infidelity is comparatively *rare*. We are so much accustomed, unhappily, to the case of Christians leading an unchristian life, while the open rejection of the faith is an exception to the general rule, that in respect of the one, our feelings are blunted by familiarity, while the comparative unfrequency of the other fault makes it the more shocking.

It is evident, that with the early Christians the case must have been reversed.

Since men did not then profess Christianity as a matter of course, and had in general to encounter some hardships and inconveniences on account of their profession, an utter disregard of their religion, or a life utterly at variance with it, must have been much less common among the primitive Christians than among ourselves: while, on the other hand, they were living in the midst of unbelievers, and were themselves the exception to the general rule.

It is also evident, that the reason given does not apply, at least with equal force, to the case of persons holding a different form of Christianity. These are much more frequently met with than avowed anti-christians; and they are the objects accordingly, in general, of feelings less hostile than the others; yet still, in many instances, of greater hostility than is usually felt towards those who lead an unchristian life.

II. Another cause, which has the same tendency with the foregoing, is that every one who rejects the whole, or any part, of our faith, diminishes, so far, the confirmation which all men are disposed to derive, more or less, on every point, from authority—from feeling that others think with them. I suspect there are few whose acquiescence, even in the conclusions of Euclid, is entirely unmixed with this feeling. In matters which admit of less intrinsic certainty, it is of course a larger ingredient in that compound of evidence on which belief rests.* And in proportion as each man is the worse qualified for reasoning, or the more averse to the trouble of it, he will be the more disposed to content himself with this description of evidence, and to acquiesce in what is generally received, without submitting to the toil of seeking for other reasons.

Now any one who rejects our tenets goes so far towards shaking this confidence, and disturbing this indolent tranquillity; he drives us to take the trouble of thinking—of supporting our conclusions by argument—of contemplating and answering objections—and of making our opinions assume the attitude rather of frontier towns, carefully fortified and watchfully garrisoned, than of secure and peaceful inland districts. And hence we are naturally led to feel some indignation

* In truth, as has been already observed, (in note, §. 5. p. 68.) the existence of infidelity supplies one important branch of evidence.

against the causer of this disturbance. On the contrary, one who adheres to the belief of our religion, while it condemns his own life, is, in fact, bearing strong testimony in our favour, by admitting what, it should seem, he must wish to disbelieve.

III. Add to this, that one who is opposed to our faith, however courteous his outward demeanour may be, and however liberal his real disposition, cannot, we feel, but inwardly look down upon us, as weak and credulous, or prejudiced and bigotted to error, or in some way opposed to right reason; and these sentiments we feel as personally *affronting* to us. On the other hand, he who, adhering to an orthodox Christian faith, lives a life at variance with it, seems to acknowledge his own inferiority to those whose conduct is such as, by his own showing, his *ought* to be. The one in short seems to scorn, and the other to honour us, not by their external demeanour, but by the very character of their respective opinions.

IV. Lastly, it will often really happen, and often again be supposed, and sometimes perhaps pretended, that a man's rejection of Christianity is, in fact, a *step beyond* his disobedience to it;—that he has *proceeded* from leading an irreligious life to the adoption of irreligious principles; and set himself against the Gospel, because he found the Gospel against him. In this case it may be urged, with truth, that he is deserving of heavier censure than the Christian who leads an ill life, because he includes *both* characters. Whatever we may suspect, however, I know not that we are authorized to impute these motives to any one without actual proof.

This last is, of course, the reason which, of all that have been mentioned, would be in general the most readily avowed, (and often in perfect sincerity,) to account for the greater indignation felt against infidels and heretics, than against irreligious or vicious Christians. I am convinced, however, that the other causes enumerated, operate not less powerfully towards the same result. And if such be indeed the natural feelings of the human heart, it behoves us to be ever on our guard against their excess, and against being led by them into those practical faults, to whose frequency history bears such ample testimony.

§. 8. That much of that kind of feeling does exist, which I have been endeavour-

ing to account for, observation will, I think, sufficiently prove. And indeed it will often be found that the very persons whose requisitions in respect of orthodoxy are the most rigid—who go to the greatest extreme in narrowing the pale of it—who make the least allowance for minute differences of opinion—and are the most bitter against all who do not agree with them; are the very same who go the greatest lengths of indulgence in respect of moral requisitions—show the greatest extreme of tenderness towards those whose conduct is a scandal to Christianity—and seem as if they would have utterly disapproved the system of discipline, in respect of moral delinquents, which prevailed in the primitive churches. I have seen accordingly severe censure bestowed on a sermon of a pious and able writer, in which he ventures to utter a wish, (far short, by the way, of that contained in our church's commination-service,) that those who are Christians only in name and profession—"who have no clear knowledge of what a Christian ought to be—would either take one side or the other; that they would either be the servants of Christ in earnest, or renounce him openly, and say that they have nothing to do with Jesus of Nazareth, or his salvation. Happy indeed," he adds, "would it be for the church of Christ, if all its false friends would declare themselves its enemies." The temerity of this wish, we have been told, would be such as to make us shudder, if it came from the lips of an enthusiast. No doubt more of the effect produced on some minds, depends on the question, *who* it is that says any thing, than on *what* it is that is said: for the framers of our services have been so temerarious as to express an earnest wish, that the "godly discipline of the primitive church" might be restored, under which those who had scandalized their brethren were put to open penance, or, as every one knows, in the event of their refusing to make submission, or of their not reforming their lives, were excluded from the society, till they should so submit and give satisfactory assurance of their repentance.

We have been told, however, that in the event of even a voluntary secession on the part of "the false friends of Christ," there would be a vast portion of society permanently cut off from the ordinances and institutions of Christianity: (that is, I presume, as permanently as the unbelieving Jews and Gentiles, who might

choose to make their own unbelief "permanent;" or as the incestuous Corinthian, who was to be "permanently" cut off as long as he should persist in his sin and impenitence:) that they would cease to frequent the assemblies of the faithful—would never hear the word of doctrine or exhortation—would have shut themselves out from the appointed means of grace, and would be publicly and solemnly pledged to unbelief: that their hearts would be sealed against the voice of the church, and they would be fixed to their life's end among the desperate adversaries of their Redeemer. The existing condition of things, it is admitted, is discouraging enough; but it is a state, it is contended, of millennial bliss, compared with what would follow, if heaven were to listen to the wishes of this preacher: i. e., compared with the actual state of things in the times of the primitive churches. It is urged, that now the unfaithful and double-minded Christian is perpetually and closely confronted with the principle he professes: the offices and ministrations of religion are loudly and incessantly appealing to the vows he has made, &c.

All this may be very true; nor am I undertaking to prove, that the primitive churches were not injudiciously strict in their discipline; or that our reformers were not unwise for wishing its restoration; or that it was not a disadvantage to those churches, that such as were strangers to Christian faith and practice, were not members of them as a matter of course, but remained avowed unbelievers till they were disposed deliberately and in earnest to embrace Christianity. The early Christians probably thought, that the ungodly or vicious were not the less, but the *more* likely to be reclaimed, by the loud warning as to their dangerous state, which would be forced on their minds by their exclusion from the visible church: that when not merely told from the pulpit, that the sacraments and other means of grace are of no benefit to such as lead an unchristian life, but impressed with this truth by the actual refusal of these ordinances, they would be the less liable to that common superstition of regarding these means of grace as a charm, and of flattering themselves that, if not in a safe state, they are at least in a *safer* state, by virtue of their going to church, and of being confessedly *Christians*, though they do not (as one may often hear people say) profess to be "saints."

In all this however they may perhaps

have been mistaken; and I am far from denying that there is much show of reason in what may be urged on both sides. But what is to my present purpose to remark is, that those who are thus anxious to retain within the pale of the church such professing Christians as lead a careless or immoral life, are not found, as some perhaps might have antecedently expected, to feel any thing like a proportionate tenderness towards differences of opinion. On the contrary, they are usually the foremost in exaggerating into fatal heresy the smallest shade of variation from their own views of orthodoxy; and the loudest in urging all those, openly and at once, to separate from the church, whose notions do not appear minutely to coincide with their own. If such arguments as those just alluded to were urged on behalf of those they denounce as heterodox—if any thing approaching to the same forbearance as they recommend in the case of immoral Christians, were proposed to be extended to such as have not quite made up their minds as to this or that doctrine, or have taken such a view of any points as appear incorrect in the eyes of others who lay claim to pre-eminent orthodoxy—were such a plea, I say, to be urged, almost in the very same words, I cannot but think we should hear a loud clamour against latitudinarian laxity and dangerous liberalism.

I am not of course contending that there may not be either a defect, or an excess of strictness, in the requisitions either of an orthodox faith, or of a blameless life: it requires a discreet judgment, to decide in each particular case, under either class, the precise amount of the departure from the right road. But the circumstance to which I wish to call attention is, that since those who are the most lax on the one side, are the most rigid on the other, this confirms what has been above said of the tendency in our nature towards a more hostile feeling against such as oppose or disavow our religion, than against those who disobey and scandalize it.

And as this tendency is altogether *natural*, so it is, as might have been expected, eminently *Romish*. Never was there a more prevailing laxity of Christian morals, even among the very governors of the church of Rome, and never was such corruption more lightly thought of by her zealots, than at the very periods when she was occupied in suppressing heresy with the most unrelenting rigour. Louis the

Fourteenth, who, during nearly his whole life, was setting his subjects the example of living in open adultery, was applauded to the skies by a Christian preacher, for his piety in having burned, gibbeted, racked, or driven into exile, hundreds of thousands of his Protestant subjects.*

If we would be really safe from the danger of committing faults of a like character with those which we regard with abhorrence in others, we must seek that safety in self-distrust—in a vigilant suspicion of the human heart.

§. 9. For it is to human nature we must trace both this and many other of those evils which each man is usually disposed to attribute to the particular system he is opposed to. As the Protestant is often inclined to look no further than to *Romanism* for the origin of the persecution, so is the infidel to regard *Christianity* as the chief cause of it. But both are mistaken: I am convinced that Atheists, should they ever become the predominant party, would persecute religion. For nearly the same causes, or others corresponding to them, would exist, which have been just mentioned as generating especial hostility towards those who differ in faith from ourselves. The Atheists would feel themselves to be regarded by the Christians, not indeed as weak and credulous, but as perverse and profane: their confidence again in their own persuasion would be as likely to be shaken by the Christian, as the Christian's by them: all the human passions, in short, and all the views of political expediency, which have ever tempted the Christian to persecute, would have a corresponding operation with them. Not that I conceive most of them to have, themselves, any suspicion of this, or to be insincere in their professed abhorrence of persecution. As no one wishes to persecute, so they probably do not anticipate (under the above mentioned supposition) such a state of things as would seem to call for coercive measures. They imagine, probably, that when they had deprived Christian ministers of endowments, had publicly proclaimed the falsity of the Christian faith, and had taken measures for promoting education and circulating books calculated to enlighten the people, the whole system of religious belief would gradually but speedily die away, and be

regarded in the same light with tales of fairies. Such doubtless was the notion of some, whom I have known to express regret that Buonaparte did not employ the power he possessed in conferring so great a benefit on society as he might have done, "by abolishing Christianity." They were thinking, probably, of no more active measures than the withholding of the support and countenance of the government.

In such expectations, every one who believes in Christianity must feel confident that they would be deceived. At first indeed appearances probably would be such as to promise favourably to their views. For most of those who profess Christianity, merely for fashion's sake, or in compliance with the laws of their country, would soon fall away, and would be followed by many of such as wanted firmness to support ridicule, or the disfavour of those in power. But after a time, the progress of irreligion would be found to have come to a stand. When the plants "on the stony ground" had been all scorched up, those "on the good soil" would be found still flourishing. Sincere Christians would remain firm; and some probably would be roused to exert themselves even with increased zeal; and some apostates would be reclaimed. Complaints would then be raised, that Christian preachers decried, as profane and mischievous, the works put forth by authority; and that they represented the rulers as aliens from God, and men whose example should be shunned. Those indeed who had imbibed the true spirit of the Gospel, would not fail to inculcate, after the example of the apostles, the duty of submission even to unchristian magistrates; but it is not unlikely that some would even take a contrary course, and would thus help to bring the imputation of sedition on Christian preaching universally. The rabble, again, would be likely occasionally to assail, with tumultuous insult and outrage, the Christians; who would in consequence be represented by their enemies as *occasioning* these tumults; especially if, as is likely, some among them did not submit patiently to such usage, or even partly provoked it by indiscretion. And however free the generality of the Christians might be from any just suspicion of a design to resort to lawless violence in the cause of their religion, still it would be evident, that a revival and renewed diffusion of Christianity, such as they

* "Epanchons nos cœurs sur la piété de Louis; poussons jusqu'au ciel nos acclamations . . . Vous avez exterminé les hérétiques; c'est le digne ouvrage de votre règne: c'en est le propre caractère."—Bossuet.

were furthering, must, after it should reach a certain point, endanger the continuance of power in the hands then wielding it; and that such a change of rulers would put a stop to the plans which had been commenced for the amelioration of society. Representing, then, and regarding Christianity as the great obstacle to improvement, as the fruitful source of civil dissensions, and as involving disaffection to the then existing government, they would see a necessity for actively interfering, with a view (not indeed, like religious persecutors, to the salvation of souls, but) to the secular welfare of their subjects, and the security and prosperity of the civil community. They would feel themselves accordingly (to say nothing of any angry passions that might intrude) bound in duty to prohibit the books, the preaching, and the assemblies of Christians. The Christians would then, in violation of the law, circulate Bibles clandestinely, and hold their assemblies in cellars and on sequestered heaths. Coercion would of course become necessary to repress these (as they would then be) illegal acts. And next . . . but I need not proceed any further; for I find I have been giving almost an exact description of the state of things when the Christian churches were spreading in the midst of Heathenism. And yet I have only been following up the conjectures, which no one (believing in Christianity) could fail to form, who was but tolerably acquainted with human nature. For "such transactions," says the great historian of Greece, "take place, and always will take place, (though varied in form, and in degree of violence, by circumstances,) as long as *human nature* remains the same."* Never can we be secured from the recurrence of the like, but by the implantation of some principle which is able to purify, to renovate, to convert that nature; in short, to "CREATE THE NEW MAN."† Christianity, often as its name has been blazoned on the banners of the persecutor—Christianity, truly understood, as represented in the writings of its founders, and honestly applied, furnishes a preventive, the only *permanently* effectual preventive, of the spirit of persecution. For, as with fraudulent, so it is also with coercive measures, employed in matters pertaining to religion: we must not expect that the generality will be so far-sighted, as always to per-

ceive their ultimate inexpediency in each particular case that may occur; they will be tempted to regard the peculiar circumstances of this or that emergency as constituting an exception to the general rule, and calling for a departure from the general principle. Whereas the plainest Christian, when he has once ascertained, as he easily may, if he *honestly* consult the Scriptures, what the will of God is, in this point, will walk boldly forward in the path of his duty, though he may not see at every turn whither it is leading him; and, with full faith in the divine wisdom, will be ready in pious confidence, to leave events in the hands of Providence.

§. 10. I will conclude this chapter with a brief notice of some mistakes as to the real character of persecution, on the opposite side to those formerly mentioned. For as some may be in danger of unconsciously countenancing persecution, by *narrowing* too much their notion of what it consists in, so others, on the contrary, by forming too *wide* a notion of it, may incur the opposite danger of comprehending under the head of persecution what does not properly deserve the title.

I. There is not *necessarily* any thing of the character of persecution in doing violence to a man's *conscience*. Though at the first glance this may be a startling paradox, it is evident on a moment's reflection, that to admit, at once, and universally, the plea of conscience, would lead to the subversion of the whole fabric of society. To say nothing of the *false* pleas which would doubtless be set up, when it was once understood that all were to be admitted, there would be no limit to the possible aberrations of even the sincerely conscientious. Some sectarians have a conscientious scruple against paying tithes, on the ground that they disapprove of a hired ministry. Not that according to the strict use of language the pastors of our church are *hired* at all; nor the tithes *paid* by the farmer, since they only pass through his hands, allowance having been made for them in his rent; and he no more hires the minister than he does his landlord.* But still, as is

* I have known a striking instance of the confusion of thought resulting from inaccuracy of language on this point. A farmer declared to a friend of mine, that he would not attend the ministry of *paid* preachers, but would listen to them only if they should go forth like the seventy disciples "without scrip or purse," &c. He did not recollect that in that case he *would* have to

* See Motto. † Eph. iv. 24.

well known, the collection of tithes has been complained of as persecution. On much better grounds might the same persons scruple to pay *taxes*; (which they know are employed, among other purposes, for the keeping up of a *military* establishment;) since these really *are* paid, out of what was before (which the tenth sheaf never was) the payer's own property.

Some enthusiasts again, in the present day, have made it a religious duty to desert their wives and families, when these would not adopt their peculiar tenets.* Others, such as the ancient German Anabaptists, under the pretence that Christian men's goods are common, might incite their followers to a general plunder of those who had property, that the spoil might be thrown into a common stock. And some wild Millenarians, like the fifth-monarchy-men, might feel themselves bound in conscience to overthrow all governments, as the necessary preparation for the temporal reign of Christ on earth. In short, there is no saying at what point the plea of conscience, if once admitted without further question, would stop. The only possible principle on which we must draw the line is, that the civil magistrate, to whom is committed the care of the temporal welfare of the community, should interfere in those cases (and in those only) in which the *persons or property* of the citizens are directly and confessedly concerned.† I say "directly," and "confessedly," because *remotely*, and *by inference*, every religious system may be made out to affect in some way the peace and well-being of the community. There is, I believe, no religion existing, respecting which I have not seen an elaborate proof that it leads to mischievous consequences in practice, and that its professors are either likely to be, or, consistently with their principles, ought to be, the worse citizens; and again, I have seen the direct contrary inferred respecting every one of them. So that without the limitation above suggested, there would be an opening left for the forcible suppression, or for the forcible establishment, by the civil magistrate, of any religion whatever.

maintain the preachers, who are *now* supported by endowments. The disciples were directed, wherever they went, to "eat and drink such things as were set before them; for the labourer is worthy of his hire."

* Fact.

† "Render unto Cæsar the things that be Cæsar's, and unto God the things that be God's."

"But is the civil magistrate," it may be said, "to determine what are the cases that call for his interference? And if so, how can any principle be laid down that shall not leave him an opening to call in, whenever he is so disposed, the aid of the civil sword?" Certainly this is not possible. Coercive power *must* be entrusted to *somebody*; nor can those to whom it is entrusted be withheld from abusing it, if they are inclined to do, by any rule that can be laid down. It is notorious, that the Scriptures furnish none such; nor is it possible, from the nature of things, that they should. He who has the power, and the will, to do wrong, will never be at a loss for a plea to justify himself, even though he should be driven to maintain (like the wolf in the fable) that a stream flows upwards. But my object was, not to lay down a rule that should preclude (which is impossible) one who is seeking an evasion, from finding any; but to point out the principle which should govern the *conscience* of an upright magistrate: viz., to protect, by coercive measures if necessary, the peace, the lives, and the property of his subjects, and to abstain from all coercion in matters purely religious. But many persons are apt to conclude, that whatever is left to a man's *discretion*, is left to his *arbitrary caprice*; and that he who is responsible only to God, has no responsibility at all.

II. Although, however, such is, on Christian principles, the limitation of the civil magistrate's authority, there is no reason why the individual holding such an office should not also be a member, or an officer, of a Christian church, provided he is careful not to blend together the characters of a political and a religious community. Coercive means cannot suitably be employed for the propagation or the maintenance of Christianity; but there is nothing that necessarily goes to secularize the kingdom which is "not of this world," or that necessarily implies the spirit of intolerance, in the possession, or in the exercise, of coercive power for other purposes, even by a Christian pastor. Only there is the more call for care and discreet judgment in cases where the same individual has to exercise distinct functions, and especially if he is thus made to stand in two or more different relations to the same men. Such, for instance, is the case where the rector of a parish is also a justice of the peace. Even if he were so not by an accidental appointment, but by virtue of some fixed general regu-

lation, still he would be exercising, in respect of the same individuals, two distinct offices, regulated by different principles, and concerned with distinct kinds of subject-matter. In the same manner, if a military officer should chance to be also a magistrate, this would not imply his blending together the principles of martial law and of common and statute-law. So also some kings or other chief magistrates hold also ecclesiastical supremacy; some bishops have a share in the secular legislature: others have principalities annexed to their sees; and the bishop of Rome in particular has long been a considerable temporal sovereign.

With respect to that church, it is worth remarking, that the persecution and the other enormities with which it has been justly charged, have led many of those who have renounced it, to blend together confusedly in their thoughts every thing that in any way pertains to it. Whereas, in truth, many parts of the Romish system, even such as are in themselves utterly indefensible, have no necessary connexion with each other, or with Rome. Her usurped supremacy, for instance, and her false doctrines, are two distinct faults; the latter of which is so far from being necessarily connected with the church of Rome, that she scarcely differs at all in doctrine from the Greek church.

And with respect to the point now before us, let it be supposed, (and the supposition, however unlikely to be realized, is perfectly conceivable,) that the pope had, in respect of his *diocess*, proceeded on Christian principles, and in respect of his *principality*, had protected the civil rights of his subjects, leaving every one to exercise his own religion without molestation, as long as the temporal peace and security of the community remained undisturbed:—if, I say, he had always acted thus, as two distinct persons, it cannot be maintained, that this state of things would have introduced any thing approaching to a persecuting spirit—any thing savouring of that secular coercion which amounts to intolerance, and is at variance with the character of Christ's kingdom.

The question then respecting such a union, of civil office with spiritual or ecclesiastical office, in the same individual, becomes one of mere expediency; and one which of course will vary in its complexion, according to the circumstances of each country or period. What we are at present concerned with is, merely to

determine what does or does not involve the principle of persecution; i. e., the employment or the denouncement of coercion in matters of religion.

III. There is nothing, *necessarily*, of the spirit of persecution in a man's requiring his servants, or his tenants, or the tradesmen he deals with, or all that associate with him, to be pious characters, or to be of his own religious persuasion or practice, even down to the minutest particulars.* This is so evident, that it would not have needed being mentioned, but that we are so liable to have our thoughts insensibly led astray by language.† We hear, for instance, of a man's being *compelled* to adopt this or that form of religion, as a condition of being in such-a-one's service, or of obtaining a renewal of a lease; and we are thence liable to forget, what is plain as soon as we reflect on it, that this is not *absolute* compulsion, since it interferes with no man's *natural*, or *previously existing rights*;‡ and that to prohibit such a procedure *would* be an interference with the right of the other "to do what he will with his own." Such a mode of conduct, as I have been alluding to, might indeed be carried to such a length, as justly to incur the censure of indiscretion—of bigotry—of illiberality; it might be such as even to indicate in the individual a disposition§ which would lead him to persecute if he had the power; but still it would not in itself involve the principle of persecution.

The same reasoning will apply to the case of the exclusion from certain endowments of one not belonging to the church for whose benefit they are designed. A man is said to be *compelled* to subscribe the Thirty-nine Articles, if he would hold a church living, or a fellowship: he is compelled to be a Presbyterian, if he

* I mean, of course, supposing him not to disappoint any *expectations* that may reasonably have been formed; for reasonable expectation is a ground of *equitable right*.

† Elements of Logic, chap. iii. §. 5.

‡ I cannot but think, however, that there is ground of complaint when a man cannot obtain his rights, whether those to which all men are entitled by nature, or those of the citizens of his particular community, without either taking some oath, or going through some other religious ceremony, against which he has a conscientious scruple. A special indulgence has been granted to the Quakers in respect of oaths and the marriage service; but if this was reasonable in principle, I cannot see why the principle should not have been recognized and acted upon uniformly.

§ See above, §. 3. subject. I, of this chapter.

would hold the office of minister at a Presbyterian chapel, &c. So also in order to obtain a degree, he *must* have kept certain academical terms, and must undergo an examination in certain prescribed branches of learning; nay, in order to hold a scholarship on some particular foundations, he *must* be a native of a certain district; and if he would retain his situation, he must remain unmarried. It is evident, on a moment's reflection, that though we use in such cases the words 'must,' 'obliged,' 'forced,' &c., all this has nothing to do with absolute coercion.*

On the same principle it may be maintained, that there is nothing, necessarily, of the character of intolerance, in precluding those who are not members of a particular church from having any share in legislating for that church, in respect of matters of a purely spiritual or ecclesiastical character: indeed to admit them to such a share, is a manifest anomaly and inconsistency, though one which may sometimes be in practice unavoidable or insignificant. That none but Quakers, for instance, or Methodists, have a voice in the general assemblies of Quakers, or of Methodists, respectively, is so far from being at all to be complained of as savouring of an intolerant spirit, that, on the contrary, as long as they confine themselves to matters exclusively religious, they would justly regard the interference of those not belonging to their sect as a violation of the principle of toleration. And the *anomaly* is in itself just as *real*, whether in practice it lead to the most *important* or the most *trifling* results;—whether, for instance, a majority of the assembly which governs a particular church, be of a different persuasion, or whether *one single* Roman Catholic or dissenter have a voice in the election of a member of that assembly.†

* See Appendix to Elements of Logic; article "Necessary."

† Some are apt to express themselves as if the anomaly consisted merely in members of the church of Rome legislating for a Protestant church. Suppose that some particular description of Protestants, or, if you will, that all Protestants, are more pure in their faith—less dangerous in their principles—less hostile to our church—than the Romanists; still the question remains the same, what has any man to do with the regulations of a church he does not belong to?

But some persons are even accustomed to speak of "the Protestant religion," and even of "the Protestant church," without reflecting whether there are any such things, or whether they are employing words without any distinct meaning.

But then, it may be said, if it so happen (as is the case among us in practice, though not by original appointment, according to the theory of the constitution, and early usage*) that the assembly, which alone exercises the right of legislating for the church, in all matters, is also the supreme legislating body in secular concerns; does it not savour of intolerance to exclude, by a test-law, from such an assembly, or from voting for those who are to sit in it, men otherwise qualified? Granted that they have nothing to do with the internal regulations of a church to which they do not belong; the same cannot be said of the taxes imposed, and the laws enacted, by that same assembly. In despotic countries, indeed, the people have nothing to do with the taxes, but to pay them, or with the laws, but to submit to them: but in a free country, it cannot be maintained, that to preclude from all share in legislating, or in appointing legislators, in secular matters, one who is not disqualified, in respect of *that particular branch* of business, does not deprive him of any of his rights, or that it is not as great an anomaly as to *admit* him to interfere in church matters in respect of which he is disqualified.

Such are, in the abstract, the conflicting difficulties in the case. It is as if a man should put in an equitable claim to a house, some parts of which are confessedly none of his; or to a piece of land, on which there are buildings erected, to which he has no right. The problem, to keep clear of both of these opposite anomalies, has not, I think, yet been solved‡; nor has it, I think, hitherto

Dr. Hawkins, I am happy to find, has forestalled me in part of this remark. "The term 'Protestant,' when it denotes a member of one of the western churches who is free from Romish error, is merely a term of convenience. It may be employed perhaps with little regard to history or etymology; but it answers its intended purpose, and it does no harm. Not so, such a phrase as 'the Protestant religion.' The very expression, whenever it is not evidently synonymous with 'the religion of the Protestant church of England,' implies inattention to the fact, that there is no one religion common to Protestants as contradistinguished from the Romanists; and it tends to throw a veil over another important fact, that the creeds of certain Protestant sects are far more remote than that of the church of Rome from the truth of the Gospel." *Sermon preached at Maldon, p. 6.*

* See Field's work on Church Government.

† It ought to be mentioned, in justice to Mr. Wilmot Horton, that he is one of the few persons

been generally contemplated with sufficient clearness and steadiness to allow of a fair trial, whether it can be solved or not: though about thirty years ago steps began to be taken with a view to the practical adjustment of the difficulties. My object in touching upon the question at present is no more than, (confining myself to the proper topics of this work,) to point out in what relation that question stands to the subject of the present chapter.*

IV. Lastly, there is nothing, necessarily, of intolerance, in protecting, by coercive means, if needful, the professors of any religion, against violence or plunder, disturbance to their religious meetings, insult, libel, or any other such molestation, from those of an adverse party. Such protection is so far from being at variance with the principles above laid down, that it is an application of them. It is not persecution, but the prevention of persecution. For *lawless and irregular* outrage is not, for that reason, the less of the character of persecution; and the unauthorized cruelties of the people were, we may be sure, among the severest trials the early

who have seen and fairly met the difficulty. I cannot but think indeed, that according to his scheme, (see "Protestant Securities,") other difficulties would have arisen, in the practical adjustment of the questions as to each measure, whether it concerned the church *only*, or affected also the *property and civil rights* of the community. Still, he seems to have fixed on the right *principle*; which might, I should think, by some contrivance or other, have been adapted to practice. At least the main objection usually alleged against his proposal, that it would constitute in fact *two* legislative assemblies for two distinct branches of legislation, has always appeared to me its chief recommendation. The distribution of the several offices among the several ministers of state, viz., chancellor of the exchequer, secretary for the home department—for foreign affairs, &c., is open to the same objection.

* I have alluded merely to the grant to Roman Catholics of the *elective franchise*, and to the suspension of the *operation* of the test-law for excluding dissenters, because in these consisted the *anomaly*, which alone it is for my present purpose to treat of. As for the greater or less *political* danger of any of the measures subsequently proposed or adopted, it would be foreign to the purpose of the present work to enter on the discussion of these, or any other, political questions. Whether it were a safer course to leave the test-law dormant, or formally to repeal it—to confine the Roman Catholic electors to the choice of a Protestant representative, or to leave them at liberty to elect one of their own persuasion—these, and all such questions of political expediency, I pass by, as not properly connected with the matter in hand.

Christians had to undergo. And yet there are some persons who are ready to denounce as persecuting, every system which does not leave them at liberty to persecute others.

It must not be forgotten, however, that when the religion, in behalf of which the civil magistrate has been driven to interfere, happens to be *his own*, he will be strongly tempted not to stop short at measures of mere immediate self-defence, but to take what will seem the effectual step, of putting down altogether the hostile party.

To guard against overstepping the proper line of procedure in this matter, and also to decide on what occasions the appeal to the interference of the civil power is not only justifiable, but expedient also, are points which must, in each particular instance, be left to the head and the heart of each individual. General principles may be sketched out; but there can be none that will teach their own application, or supersede the exercise of practical good sense, cautious deliberation, and Christian candour.

It may be worth while, however, to observe, in conclusion, how important it is always to keep in mind, that the Cross which our Master and his apostles bore so meekly, our proud nature strongly impels us to refuse, whenever we can, by any means whatsoever, avoid it. We are tempted to admire at a distance, while we revolt at the thought of copying, their patience under calumny and derision, and every kind of provocation. And, what is more, this pride of the human heart is apt to disguise itself to our conscience under the appearance of piety; we are in danger, I mean, of regarding as zeal for God's honour, what is, perhaps, in truth, rather zeal for our own honour. He who does but reject our faith implies, as I have observed above, something affronting to ourselves; much more, if he slander and insult us for maintaining it: and it is from this cause that we are prone to feel greater indignation at such conduct, than at the equal affront offered to God by those who acknowledge his claim, while in their lives they habitually disregard it, to their love, gratitude, veneration, and obedience. But yet, as every one who insults us on account of our religion, does by so doing insult that religion itself, we are likely to flatter ourselves that this last is the sole ground of our indignation; when in fact, perhaps, our personal feelings have a great share in it.

But we must not expect, till the church

militant is exchanged for the church triumphant, that Christ's devoted followers will have no cross to bear, or that they will encounter no opposition or molestation from his enemies. At least, till the world, even what is called the Christian world, shall have become much more imbued with the spirit of Christianity than it ever has been yet, our Lord's warnings to his disciples must be regarded as in some degree applicable to us: "If the world hate you, ye know that it hated me before it hated you . . . because ye are not of the world, therefore the world hateth you." The Christian who is steady and unshrinking, and active in his master's cause, though it is his duty not wantonly to provoke obloquy and opposition by any indiscreet or violent conduct, yet must not expect always to escape such mortifications; and he should be prepared so to meet them, as to show how far beyond "the praise of men" he prizes the approbation of him "who seeth in secret."

Still, cases may undoubtedly occur, in which it will be our right and our duty to use means for protecting ourselves or others, against lawless aggression. No rule, as I have said, can be laid down, which will supersede the exercise of a

sound and unbiassed judgment, for deciding in each particular instance whether it is allowable and advisable to call in the aid of the secular arm for the protection of the professors of religion. The right medium, says the great master of ancient moralists, must be fixed in each particular instance by each man's discretion: but he proceeds to give the best general caution that can be supplied; viz., to lean always towards the safer side; ever avoiding the more sedulously the worse extreme, and regarding that as the worse to which we are by *nature the more prone*.* On this principle we should always, in respect of any matters connected with our religion, be more willing to have it asked, *why we do not*, than *why we do* resort to the aid of the civil power.

And even when we have fully determined what procedure is *in itself* right, we must be still watchful over our own heart, subjecting our *motives* to the severest scrutiny, and taking care that we do not inwardly applaud and sanctify in our own eyes, as a virtuous jealousy for God's glory, what may be in reality chiefly a regard for our own credit, and a tenderness for our own ease and comfort.

CHAP. VI.

TRUST IN NAMES AND PRIVILEGES.

§. 1. MANKIND have a natural tendency to pride themselves on the advantages they enjoy—on the privileges they possess—on the titles they bear as badges of those privileges—and especially on their being members of any society or class endowed with such privileges. And they are disposed not only to feel a pride and satisfaction in possessing such advantages, but also carelessly to put their trust in these, independently of the use made of them, as necessarily implying some superior benefit to the possessor.

How strongly this tendency operated among the Jews of old, we have ample proof in the Bible. Even under the old dispensation we may gather from the writings of the prophets, that in spite of their numberless backslidings, they still flattered themselves that, as the Lord's chosen and peculiar people, and as having among them the only temple of the true God, he would not execute on them the judgments he had denounced. And when

their captivity and the destruction of their temple had undeceived them in this point, they still clung to the hope of the promised Messiah to arise from among them, and who should restore "all things." In this hope, indeed, they were not erroneous; but their error was, in trusting that they should surely be partakers of the promised benefits, by virtue of their privilege as Abraham's children, of the stock of his chosen descendant Judah, whatever might be their own conduct; and that no such change of dispensation could take place as should put even the least deserving Jew below, or even on a level with, the best of the unclean and despised race of the Gentiles.

Accordingly, John the Baptist takes occasion to warn them on this head at the opening of his ministry; "Now is the axe laid to the root of the tree: every tree therefore that bringeth not forth good

* Arist. Eth. b. ii. ch. 9.

fruit, is hewn down, and cast into the fire. And think not to say within yourselves, we have Abraham to our father; for I say unto you, that God is able of these stones to raise up children unto Abraham." The Apostle Paul in like manner is compelled incessantly to warn the Jewish believers, that "there is no difference" between the Jewish and the Greek Christian, inasmuch as "all have sinned and come short of the glory of God;"—that there is "neither Jew nor Greek—neither barbarian, Scythian, bond, or free;" and that "in Christ Jesus neither circumcision nor uncircumcision profiteth any thing, but a new creature;" and that the believing Gentiles are adopted as equally God's children, and heirs of his promises, no less than the natural descendants of Abraham.

Nor is he merely warning Christians that God is "no respecter of persons," (as it had been first revealed to Peter,) and that "in every nation he that feareth him, and worketh righteousness, is accepted of him"—not only are the *workers of righteousness* cautioned against supposing that the Jews by nature, or the adherents to the ceremonial law, were to obtain a higher share of divine favour; but, what may seem more strange, the apostle finds it necessary to guard them against the error of trusting in the circumstance of being *under* the law, independently of the *observance* of it; as if a certain degree, at least, of divine favour was secured by the mere circumstance of having received by revelation the divine commands, even though they were not careful to obey them. The greater part of the early portion of the Epistle to the Romans is taken up in combating this strange delusion: he assures them, that "not the *hearers* of the law are just before God, but the doers of the law shall be justified;" "behold," says he, "thou art called a Jew, and retest in the law, and makest thy boast of God;" and yet these same persons he speaks of as dishonouring God, by breaking the law in which they made their boast, so notoriously, that the name of God was "blasphemed among the Gentiles through them."

§. 2. A like error seems to have prevailed no less among the early Christians generally, in respect of the pride and vain-confidence with which *they* regarded their privileges as Christians. The apostle warns them in the same epistle, that as the natural branch (i. e. the Israelites after the flesh) had been broken off, and they

grafted in, so a like severity was to be expected by them also, as God had exercised towards the disobedient among his favoured people of old, if, instead of making the best use of his mercies, they were high-minded—puffed up, i. e., with boastful confidence in their peculiar privileges, and neglectful of the peculiar responsibility these imposed. "If God," he admonishes them, "spared not the natural branches, take heed lest he also spare not thee." And in the same tone he warns the Corinthians not to rely in security on their being God's elect people, from the example of the Israelites, who were also, all of them, "God's elect,"* yet of whom one whole generation were cut off, by various judgments, in the wilderness, for their disobedience: the history of these things, he says, was "written for our admonition; wherefore let him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he fall." And the Apostle Jude again seems to apprehend the same danger for those he is addressing, and cautions them by the same example, "how the Lord *after having saved the people* out of the land of Egypt, afterwards destroyed them that believed not."

And as, in the first ages of Christianity, Christians were likely to feel this proud confidence in *that* title, as distinguished from unbelieving Jews and Pagans, so, the same feeling was likely afterwards to show itself, in another form, among those who were characterized as *orthodox* and *catholic* Christians, in contradistinction from heretics, whose tenets had been condemned by the general voice of the Christian churches. How strongly this feeling prevailed, and still prevails, in the members of the Romish church, every one is well aware: but the circumstance to which I wish to direct attention is, in conformity with the views already taken in the present work, that such a feeling is not peculiar to Romanists as such, but originates in our common nature, and consequently is one from which no one who partakes of that nature can be exempt, without perpetual watchfulness. The Mahometans, as is well known, partake largely of this spirit; and even those of them who are habitual transgressors of their law, still flatter themselves that some superior degree of divine favour is reserved for them as "true believers," beyond what can be expected by the best of those who are strangers to the Koran: while the

author of *our* faith, on the contrary, teaches us that he will reject as utter strangers to him those who are ready to make their boast in his *name*, and to plead that they have even "done many mighty works in that *name*:" and the knowledge of his Gospel he represents as bringing aggravated condemnation to such as do not live a Christian life; since "the servant who knew his Lord's will, and did it not, shall be beaten with many stripes."

§. 3. In order to profit as we may do by the example of the Romanists, and even of the Mahometans, we must waive, for the time, all questions concerning the unsoundness of their tenets, and confine our view to the danger which is common to men of all persuasions, whether essentially correct, or contaminated with more or less of error. If Mahomet had been a true prophet, as Moses was, this would not have secured his followers from the fault into which the disciples of Moses did in fact fall; viz., that of expecting to be saved by their privileges, rather than by the use made of them. And if the Romanists were following in their system of doctrine and discipline, not the dictates of weak or wicked men, but those of a truly infallible apostle, this would not alone secure them from the very error which the apostles themselves found perpetually springing up among their converts, even in their own lifetime; the tendency to substitute the *means* of grace for the *fruits* of grace;—the proud confidence of belonging to a certain holy community, church, sect, or party which must secure an especial share of divine favour to every member of it.

If, on the contrary, we dwell on the *groundlessness* of the claim of the Romish church to be the only true and Catholic church, and on the doctrinal errors into which that church has fallen, we shall of course be likely to flatter ourselves, as Protestants are apt to do, that our abhorrence of that church exempts us from all danger of vainly trusting in a name, and in our connexion with a highly endowed society.

It is true that the Romish church has erred in many essential points; but nothing probably has more contributed to lead her into those errors than reliance on names and privileges. Spiritual advantages which are *real*, and titles which are *not* misapplied, may be made subjects of presumptuous boast, and may thus lead to indolent security with respect to personal exertion; this is usually the first

error men fall into: the second naturally springs out of this carelessness; the name, that is, survives the thing signified;—the advantages are actually lost, either wholly or in part, through a confident reliance on their intrinsic efficacy, without an endeavour to improve them;—the land which was fertile, becomes a desert, through a confident trust that it will ensure wealth to the possessor, while he neglects to till it.

A familiar illustration of the tendency I have been speaking of is afforded by the parallel case of academical institutions. To be a member of a learned body is regarded as an honour; it affords to the individual facilities for the acquirement of learning; and, to others, some degree of presumption that he has used his advantages. How many accordingly pride themselves on being members of such a society, and on the title which denotes this, while they think little of acquiring the learning and using the advantages, which alone give to the name, and to the society, their value.

All this has been strikingly illustrated in the progressive history of the church of Rome. She was built by apostles on Jesus Christ, the only true foundation; she was left by them with sound doctrines and pure Christian worship; her members were cautioned by them not to be "high-minded, but fear;" not to rely on the divine favour as a reason for relaxing personal exertions, but as an encouragement to make them; or to exult in their deliverance from heathen superstition, and their adoption in place of the disobedient, to be the people—the chosen people—of God, but to take warning from the example of his mercy combined with severity.

But they were seduced from humble vigilance into a proud and careless reliance on the greatness of their privileges, till they even lost the talent which they had neglected to employ. What was their condition at the close of the apostles' ministry? They had renounced idolatry;—they worshipped the true God;—they had the sacred Scriptures, the words of eternal life, in their hands, for private study, and in their ears, at their religious meetings;—they had the means of grace among them, the ordinances appointed by Christ, which are strictly called the sacraments, and public joint worship, itself of a sacramental character;—they had learned to despise and abhor the superstitious offerings, purifi-

cations, and other ceremonies of the heathen, and had been taught to trust in the atonement of Christ alone, and to seek for acceptance before God, by being "led by his Spirit." All these were real and inestimable privileges, and gave them just reason for rejoicing (but for rejoicing in trembling gratitude, and not with careless pride) in the deliverance that had been wrought for them—in their happy condition as contrasted with that of their Pagan neighbours.

But their exultation in these advantages led them first to neglect, and in the end to lose them; their vain confidence in names, led them first to forget, and afterwards to forfeit, the things which the names denoted. Their minds were fixed on what was past—on what had been done for them, and withdrawn from a vigilant attention to the future—from diligence on their part to "make their calling and election sure." Confident in the titles of Christian—of Orthodox—of Catholic—of the Church of God—and careless of living "as *becometh* saints," they trusted that no deadly error could creep into so holy a community, and adopted, one by one, the very errors (under new names) of the Paganism which had been renounced; thanking God, like the Pharisee, that they were "not as other men are," they became gradually like their heathen ancestors, with the aggravation of having sinned against light, and abused their peculiar advantages; and their confidence all the while increasing along with their carelessness and corruption, when their "gold was become dross," they boasted more than ever of their wealth, and in the midst of their grossest errors insisted on complete infallibility. And to what did all this at length bring them? How far did they ultimately depart from their primitive purity? "How did the faithful city become a harlot?" They ended in overlaying Christianity, one by one, with the very errors and superstitions (in substance) from which the first Christians exulted in being delivered.

Idolatry of the grossest kind was gradually restored: the worshippers of the one true God manifested in Christ Jesus, paid, practically, their chief adoration to deified mortals: the Scriptures were secluded from the people under the veil of an unknown tongue,* and their interpre-

tation fettered, and their authority superseded, even with the learned, by a mass of traditions which made the word of God of none effect; their sacraments became superstitious charms; their public worship a kind of magic incantation muttered in a dead language; and Christian holiness of life was commuted for holy water—for fantastic penances, pilgrimages, amulets, pecuniary donations, and a whole train of superstitious observances, worthy of Paganism in its worst forms. "How is the faithful city become a harlot!" They trusted in privileges and names, till the privileges were lost, and the names became an empty sound. But still they are as proud of them as ever. They distinguish themselves by the title of Catholics,* members of the true church—adherents to the ancient faith: nay, even *Christians* is a title by which on the continent they distinguish themselves from those heretics,† as they term them, who chiefly differ from themselves in trusting in Christ as the one Mediator, instead of a host of pretended saints. Such monstrous corruptions could never have been introduced into any church by the arts of a worldly and ambitious hierarchy, had not the individual members of it been lulled into false security, by boastfully contemplating their Christian privileges, instead of dwelling on the additional responsibility these privileges create; by priding themselves on names, without bestowing a watchful attention on the things those names denote.

§. 4. The warning of the apostle, in his Epistle to this very church, they neglected, and imitated the very example by which he warned them—that of the presumptuous and disobedient Jews of old. The admonitions, I say, of Paul to the church of Rome were lost on the succeeding generations of that church: shall they be also lost on us? Or shall we say that *Protestants* have no need of them, because we do not trust in the title of Catholic, or in being members of an infallible church;—because we have protested against the usurpations of that church, and have renounced her corruptions? The apostle might reply to us, if he lived in these days, "Be not high-minded, but fear: those whom I then addressed were in the very same situation

* A language, be it remembered, which *gradually became* obsolete: for no church ever introduced the use of an unknown tongue, in its prayers, or recital of Scripture.

* See note [A] in the Appendix, p. 86.

† Those in the neighbourhood of the Vandois, in particular, distinguish themselves from the members of that pure and ancient church, by the distinguishing appellation of Christians.

as you: they were the *reformed*—the Protestants of their day; they had been delivered from Jewish and Pagan infidelity, as you have been from Romish corruptions of Christianity; they prided themselves on that deliverance, as you are liable to do, on yours: they felt confident that they were in no danger of *precisely* the same errors as those of the infidel Jews and heathen idolaters, and they incorporated into Christianity substantially the same errors, under different names; they have fallen from their first faith; and are left with the candle of God's word darkened, and their minds bewildered by the false light of a delusive superstition: if God spared not this branch, take heed lest he also spare not thee: behold, therefore, the goodness and the severity of God; on them which fell, severity; but toward thee, goodness, if thou continue in his goodness; otherwise thou also shalt be cut off."

The examples which are adduced from the cases of those in different ages and countries from our own, are apt to lose their instructive force, from the very circumstance which ought to make them the more instructive; viz., that there will always be some, if not essential, yet circumstantial, difference between the temptations which arise, and the errors which prevail, among different sets of men. Hence, we are apt to lose sight of the substantial agreement between two cases, and to derive no profit from the recorded faults of others, because those to which we are liable, are not the same in name, and in all the accompanying circumstances. Yet this very difference proves that they were not *copied*, the one from the other, but originate in a common and deep-seated source; it would enable us to draw the more instruction from such examples, if we would but remember that man's nature is always, and every where, substantially the same; because we view with a more impartial eye such errors as do not precisely resemble what prevail among ourselves. For these reasons, the backslidings of the Israelites in the wilderness, for instance, are so earnestly set forth by the apostle, for the instruction of the Corinthians, as being an example likely to be overlooked by them, and especially profitable to be contemplated by them; disposed, as they probably were, to rest in their high privileges as God's people, even as the Israelites did of old, and to think, like them, their deliverance complete, and their attainment of the promised inheritance secure, without watch-

fulness against the trials that awaited them.

It is with this view, accordingly, that I have attempted, in the present work, to point out what instructive lessons may be drawn from the errors of our brethren of the Romish church. For when once it is clearly perceived, that her corruptions are such as human nature is prone to—that they are rather the cause, than the effect, of the system of the church—and that consequently, those out of her pale are not therefore safe from similar corruptions—we are then the more likely to guard watchfully against those faults, whose deformity we have seen fully displayed by another.

§. 5. In pursuing this view, I took occasion to illustrate the general principle, by touching briefly on some of the particular points in which faults, essentially the same with those of the Romanists, have beset, and will ever beset, the rest of mankind also, in proportion as their vigilance against them is remitted: but to enumerate and dwell on all these points, would not only have led to too long a discussion, but would hardly have been needful. For when once the general principle is embraced, it is easy, and it is also best, for every one to follow up for himself the several applications of it, and to pursue the train of thought thus suggested. Nor should this be done once for all, in a single discussion, but, practically, throughout the whole of his Christian life: since if it be fully understood that the system of Romanism, so far as it disagrees with true Christianity, is in fact a transcript of man's frail nature, every one must perceive the necessity of contemplating, as in a mirror, this portraiture of his own infirmities, and of not merely abjuring, once for all, the errors he censures in another, but guarding against them with incessant vigilance. The more secure any one feels against his liability to errors, to which in fact he is liable, the greater must be his real danger of falling into them.

In pointing out, accordingly, several particular classes of faults to which Protestants are liable, and which are substantially the same as they condemn in the Romanists, I have repeatedly dwelt on that aggravation of the danger, the false security we are likely to feel, in our renunciation of the papal dominion, against the errors of Romanism. I cannot therefore more properly conclude this treatise, that by observing, that this very *false security* is itself one of the most fatal of

those errors;—that we are in fact imitating the Romanists, if we securely exult in our separation from them:—if we trust in the name of Protestant, as they do in that of Catholic; and look back, with proud satisfaction, on our emancipation from their corrupt system, without also looking forward, to guard vigilantly against the like corruptions; even as *they* triumphed in their abandonment of Pagan superstitions, while they forgot that Paganism itself was the offspring of the self-deceiving heart of man, in which the same corruptions, if not watchfully repressed, will be continually springing up afresh.

A more acceptable subject, perhaps, I might easily have found, in exposing the enormities of the church of Rome, and panegyricizing the comparative purity of our own; inasmuch as self-congratulation is more agreeable than self-examination. But with a view to our own practical improvement, there can be no doubt which is the more profitable. The apostle's warning, "be not high-minded, but fear," was not likely to be so gratifying to the church of Rome, to which it was addressed, as unmixed praise and congratulation; but it would have saved them, had they continued duly to attend to it, from the evils which it denounced.

Let the Protestant then consider their fall as recorded "for his admonition:" and let him profit by the example before him.

The errors which, with these views, I selected for consideration, as being among the most prominent, and usually regarded as most characteristic, of the Romish church,* but which I have endeavoured to trace to our common nature, are, 1, superstition; considered as consisting, not in this or that particular mode of worship, but in *misdirected* religious veneration, generally: 2, the tendency towards what may be called a vicarious service of God; a proneness to convert the Christian minister into a priest in the other sense of the word, and to substitute his sanctity of life and devotion, for those of the people: 3, the toleration of what are called "pious frauds;" either in the sacrifice of truth to supposed expediency, or in the propagation of what is believed to be the truth, by dishonest artifice: 4, an undue deference to human authority; as, in other points, so especially in forgetting the legitimate use of creeds, catechisms, liturgies, and other such compositions set forth by any church, and intruding them gradually into the place of

Scripture, by habitually appealing to them (where the appeal ought always to be made to the records of inspiration) in *proof* of any doctrine that is in question: which practice I pointed out as not originally the consequence, but the cause, of the claim to inspiration and infallibility set up by the church: 5, lastly, I remarked, that intolerance, or the spirit of persecution, i. e., the disposition to enforce by secular coercion, not this or that system of religion, but, one's *own*, whatever it may be, is a fault inherent in human nature, and to which consequently all mankind are liable, however strongly they may reprobate (as, e. g., the Romish church has always done) persecution, or any form of compulsion, exercised on themselves.*

From these then, and all other Romish errors, Protestants cannot, as such, be exempt; and they are in the greater danger of them in proportion to their abhorrence of them as existing in that church, if they regard them as properly the offspring of Romanism, and not of human nature;—if they build their security on their being out of the pale of that corrupt church, and neglect to guard against the spirit of those corruptions, while they exult in the name of Protestants. This careless reliance on titles and privileges, is, as I have in this chapter been endeavouring to show, itself one of the most mischievous of the Romish errors, and which has mainly contributed to favour the introduction of the rest.

§. 6. In what way then, it may be asked, are we to apply practically what has been said, in guarding against this particular error? Let any one (I would reply) but look around him, and look within his own heart. Are there not multitudes who exult in the title of Christian—of Protestant—of Churchman—and in their belonging to a society endowed with such high privileges? There are: and would God the description, thus far, were even more universally applicable than it is; for in these things we *ought* to rejoice, even much more than we do. But do all who congratulate themselves on these advantages, and on these names, and who regard it, if not as some sort of merit, at least as a sure pledge of some divine favour, to possess them—do all of these reflect on the superior responsibility which is thus imposed on them? Do none of them (in feelings and in conduct at least, though not in express avowal) cherish a hope of being saved by their

* See Appendix, [B.]

* See Appendix [B.]

privileges, rather than by the use made of them? Do they reflect on those privileges as aggravating their condemnation if they do not rightly use them; or do they exult in their admittance to the wedding feast, forgetful that the guest who "had not put on the wedding garment," was cast "into outer darkness?" Do they regard the names of Christian and of Protestant as a *reproach* to those who bear them, if they are not "led by the Spirit of Christ"—if they do not in their heart and life, as well as with their lips, *protest* against the faults which they condemn in the Romanists?

Nor is it to the names of *Christian* and of *Protestant* alone, that these cautions will apply: every title which we claim that implies any peculiar advantage, involves a corresponding responsibility; and a corresponding danger, if we forget that responsibility. Does any one consider himself entitled to the name of churchman—of orthodox—of evangelical?—let him remember, that there is a perpetual danger of his relying in proud security on these titles—of trusting, not so much to his endeavours after personal holiness, as to the sanctity of the society, sect, or party, with which he is thus connected.

Some members of the Romish church, not satisfied with merely belonging to that church, and with the title of Catholics, have enrolled themselves in certain subordinate societies, (or religious orders as they are called,) enlisting themselves under the banner of some founder, of supposed superior sanctity. I am not now inquiring into the peculiar errors and superstitions actually connected with these institutions: had they been exempt from every thing of this kind, there would still have been a danger (which, in fact, must exist, more or less, in all religious communities whatever) of that evil which has so notoriously attended the religious societies of the Romish church:—the evil, I mean, of considering the mutual connexion of the members of such societies as a kind of *partnership*; in which each member may hope to derive *some* benefit at least, from the piety and purity of the whole body. This absurdity—the supposed transfer of the merits of one sinful mortal to the account of another—has indeed never been distinctly avowed except in the church of Rome: but the tendency towards such a feeling must have been inherent in the human heart, or men never could have been brought to acknowledge

it. The danger of it is, as I have said inherent in the very nature of a religious community. As, in a partnership, the neglect of one man may often be in some degree remedied by the diligence of others; and as, in an army, the soldier who does not himself fight bravely, may sometimes, through the valour of his comrades and the skill of his general, be made partaker of the benefits, and sometimes even of the glory, of a victory; so, men are apt to transfer views thus familiar to them, to the case of members of a religious society. And this danger, being, as I have said, one which necessarily besets every religious society, can never be escaped except by incessant vigilance. For Christianity is essentially a social religion. We are "every one members one of another;" and the Author of our faith has decreed, that Christians are to further their own salvation, by labouring jointly to forward the salvation of each other. But it is by the personal faith and holiness of *each* individual Christian, that each individual Christian, after all, is to be made, through the intercession of the *one* Mediator and Redeemer, whose Spirit sanctifies his heart, acceptable before God. The pious labours of others can do nothing for any man, unless they lead him to labour in like manner for himself.

Richly endowed indeed is the church of Christ with the *means* of grace—with *privileges* and advantages of inestimable value; but if we fail to *use* these means, and to *avail* ourselves of these privileges, they will but increase our condemnation. The name of Christian—of Reformed, of Protestant Christian—instead of saving, will condemn, as doubly inexcusable, on the great day, when the secrets of men's hearts shall be disclosed, him, who, "naming the name of Christ," has not "departed from iniquity;"—who "heareth his words, and doeth them not;"—whose life and heart are not "reformed"—and who exults over the errors of the Romish church, while he supinely overlooks those evil propensities of our common nature, from which they took their rise. "For he is not a Jew," (nor, by parity of reasoning, a Christian—an orthodox, or an evangelical Christian—a Reformed, or a Protestant Christian,) "who is one outwardly, neither is that circumcision which is outward in the flesh; but he is a Jew, who is one inwardly; and circumcision is that of the heart, in the spirit, and not in the letter; whose praise is not of men, but of God."

APPENDIX.

[A.]

THE title of *Catholics* the Romanists claim, and apply to themselves, not merely as *belonging* to them, (and it is not denied that they are a branch, though a corrupt one, of the universal or Catholic church,) but as *distinctive*, and peculiar to the members of the church of Rome. And Protestants have usually, in language, conceded this claim. But I think that in so doing they manifest too exclusively the harmlessness of the dove, and leave the wisdom of the serpent entirely with their opponents. It is urged that these are offended at being called Papists; considering that as a term of reproach, from its being used only by their adversaries. That I may not seem to seek a quarrel, I have generally avoided that name: but let us not be so weak as to imagine that "Romanist," or any other title by which they can be, *properly*, designated, will ever fail, *when it shall have become common*, to be complained of as reproachful; or that they will ever acquiesce in any appellation which does not *imply a reproach to ourselves*. Even the apparently neutral designation of "members of the church of Rome," is one which we must not too confidently expect them to adopt or acquiesce in; nor is it unlikely that they may complain of it as reproachful, should it ever become their customary appellation among Protestants. For it implies that there are *other* churches, properly called churches, besides the church of Rome. We indeed are content to be designated as members of the church of England; and we regard them as belonging to a distinct church, over which, though we censure it as corrupt, we claim no supremacy; but they do not take a corresponding view of us: they do not regard us as constituting *any* distinct church, but as actually members, though schismatical and revolted members—subjects, *de jure*, though rebellious subjects—of *their church*. A name therefore which implies that there are other churches distinct from theirs, contradicts one of their fundamental tenets; viz., that they, and they only, are faithful members of the one true church. And this tenet they have embodied in the appellation they have chosen for themselves; which consequently implies, as I have said, a reproach to all other Christians. The title of Catholic, when used as distinctive, implies the exclu-

sion of all others from the character of loyal members of the society which Christ founded—of "the holy Catholic church, the communion of saints," as it is expressed and explained in the Apostle's Creed: it implies, in short, that all others are heretics or schismatics.

This is no uncommon device. There is a sect who call themselves "Baptists," i.e., persons who *baptize*; thus implying that no others are *really* baptized, and that infant baptism is null and void. This is their distinctive tenet; which they are perfectly right in professing, if convinced of its truth: but it is an absurdity for any one who differs from them to give them this title, which palpably begs the question at issue, and condemns himself. The title of Antipædobaptist is to be sure somewhat cumbrous; but awkwardness of expression, or even circumlocution, is preferable to error and absurdity. "The same caution might well be extended to the use of the word *Unitarian*, as the title of a sect; for the term properly expresses a fundamental doctrine which the church holds. *Socinian* appears to me a better appellation. But this too I would avoid, if it gave serious offence; at the same time being careful to make it known that the word *Unitarian* is employed in compliance with a custom, which, however general, and perhaps harmless, I cannot but regard as objectionable."*

That the term Papist is a term of reproach, (though I do not insist on its being employed,) I can never admit. A "term of reproach" is *one which implies something disgraceful in the opinion of the party to whom it is applied*. Thus, heretic (in its ordinary, not perhaps in its etymological, sense) implies the holding of some *erroneous* tenet; it is, consequently, a reproachful term. But Papist implies simply one who *acknowledges the authority of the Pope*: and those to whom it is applied do, openly, acknowledge his authority.

"Considering the tendency of words," (says a writer whom I am proud to appeal to) "to influence *opinions*, I hold the right use of this word CATHOLIC to be of essential importance. The controversial writers of the church of Rome never fail to take advantage of the want of caution in this

* Note to Bishop Copleston's Sermon at the reopening of Abergavenny church.

respect observable among Protestants. Of this a strong example is given in a recent publication, which affords a gratifying proof of the strength of our cause, and of the weakness of the Romanists, whenever they are respectively brought to the test of Scripture and of reason. I allude to the correspondence between the clergy of Blackburn and the principal and other members of the Roman Catholic establishment at Stonyhurst. From this interesting publication I cannot do better than extract the following passage in one of Mr. Whittaker's letters to the principal of that institution.

"It was not from a love of contending about words, still less from any reluctance to give every possible satisfaction to the Romish priesthood, that I persisted in refusing the unqualified term 'Catholic' to them and their church. The use which they make of it, when it is conceded to them, cannot be unknown to you. Dr. Milner, in his *End of Religious Controversy*, (Letter XXV.,) says of our church, 'Every time they address the God of truth, either in solemn worship or in private devotion, they are forced each of them to repeat, *I believe in the Catholic Church*, and yet, if I ask any of them the question, *are you a Catholic?* he is sure to answer me, *No! I am a Protestant!*'—Was there ever a more glaring instance of inconsistency and self-condemnation among rational beings? 'But,' says one of the Blackburn secular priests to me, 'where is the man who can or will accuse you of acting inconsistently with your religious principles,' supposing me to concede this appellation to their church and its members exclusively? I refer him for his answer to Dr. Milner, with whom I entirely agree, that a more glaring instance of inconsistency and self-condemnation 'cannot well exist among rational beings,' than that exhibited by Protestants, who confess before God that they believe in his holy Catholic church, and allow themselves to limit the practical use of the term to the church of Rome."—*Correspondence, &c., published at Blackburn, 1829, p. 14.*

"There is nothing I abhor more than religious persecution—nothing I would censure more strongly than a wanton offence given to the feelings of others, on account of a sincere difference in religious opinion. Yet I cannot carry this principle so far as to abstain from calling the members of that church who refuse to join in our reformation of its errors, by some appellation which marks their adherence to its communion, and their submission to its authority. *Papist* appears to me the most correct designation, because the differences in doctrine are often ingeniously softened down and even explained away by the more enlightened Roman Catholics; but I never met with one who did not hold that spiritual submission to the bishop of Rome in some sense or other was indispensable. The word *Papist*, however, is understood by

them as a reproach. Let us then, in Christian charity, forbear to use it. But some phrase, indicative of their connexion with Rome, and of their dependence upon the authority of that see, whether Romish, or Romanist, or Roman Catholic, I hold to be not only allowable, but highly expedient, and even necessary: and heartily do I wish that all Protestants would form themselves to a habit of thus speaking, both in public and private: for then it would never be understood as a personal affront, but as a serious and firm resolution not to compliment away an important point, in which our feelings and our honour are at least as much concerned as *theirs*."*

"Yes, but" (I have heard it answered) "the term *Papist* implies more than mere submission to papal supremacy; it implies the adoption of an *erroneous* system and submission to a *usurped* authority." It implies no such thing. That indeed is *my opinion* respecting the Romish system; but the *word* does not denote that. The difference is practically very great and important between a word which itself *expresses error or wrong*, and a word which denotes some *thing* which the speaker *believes* to be erroneous or wrong. One person, for instance, may think a democracy the best form of government, and another may think it the worst; the one will consequently have the most pleasing, the other the most odious, associations with the term *democrat*; but the word itself is not used by them in two different senses; it expresses simply, an "advocate for democracy;" and it is not, in itself, either a term of honour or of reproach. On the other hand, "patriot" and "traitor" imply, respectively, honour and dishonour in their very signification.

Inattention to this obvious distinction leads to endless confusion of thought and practical perplexity. If every term is to be reckoned reproachful, which is associated in the mind of him who uses it with some odious or contemptible idea, then, the title of *Catholic* will itself be such, when applied by Protestants to designate the church of Rome. *Every* term, in short, will be a term of reproach when used by one who disapproves the opinion, system, or party, implied by it. The Mahometans associate with the title of *Christian* every thing that is hateful or despicable; shall we then complain or be ashamed of being called Christians? "God forbid that we should glory, save in the cross of our Lord Jesus Christ." Mahometan, again, is a title which recalls to the Christian the idea of "disciple of an impostor: but the title itself does not imply Mahomet's being either a false or a true prophet; and *they* accordingly do not regard it as a reproachful title.

But the term *Christian* would be reproachful if applied by one *Mahometan* to another;

* Bishop Copleston's Sermon at Abergavenny, p. 23, 24.

because it expresses something which that other holds in abhorrence. So also the title of Mahometan would be a reproach if applied to a Christian; and Papist, again, for the same reason, is a term of reproach, if applied to one who professes himself a Protestant. An appellation, in short, is or is not reproachful, according to the professed tenets, *not of him who applies it*, but of him to whom it is applied. To be called a Papist, (i. e., "one who admits the pope's authority," is a reproach to him who does not, and none to him who does, profess that principle.

But we are told that the term is used by none but the adversaries of the Romanists, and therefore they have a right to complain of it. At this rate they may *make* any title they will a term of reproach, by simply refusing to apply it to themselves. And we may be assured they *will* do so with *every* title which *does not imply a reproach to us*. To call themselves distinctively Catholics, is (as *they* at least are well aware, whatever we may be) to call *us* heretics. Let them be admonished, that when they except against the name of Papists, and assume that of Catholics, declaiming at the same time against the cruelty of using reproachful language—let them be admonished, that the censure applies, not to us, but to themselves.

And let it not be thought that this is a trifling "question of words and names:" it was a wise maxim, laid down and skilfully acted on by some of the leaders of the French revolution, that "names are things." Great is the practical effect in all debate and controversy, of suffering to pass unnoticed and to become established, such terms as beg the question, and virtually imply a decision on one side. I remember to have met with a Romanist (by no means bigotted) of the middle class of society, with whom I had a good deal of discussion of the points wherein we differed. What seemed to dwell most on his mind was, the inconsistency, as he deemed it, of our professing belief in "the holy Catholic church;" when "yours," he said, "is *not* the Catholic church."

[B.]

Different persons will, of course, be chiefly struck by different faults, among those charged on the Romanists. Many, for instance, would place foremost one which I have not noticed under a distinct head, and to which they give the title of "self-righteousness." The word does not perhaps savour of the purest English;* but what they

mean is, a confident trust in the *merit* of our own good works, as sufficient to *earn* eternal happiness, and as entitling us to that as a just reward.

The Romish church, however, has not in reality ever set this forth as one of her distinct tenets. If any one will consult, what is of decisive authority in that church, the decrees of the council at Trent, he will perceive, that though they may perhaps have made an injudicious use of the word "merit," the abstract question between them and others (not Antinomians) is chiefly verbal. For they admit, and solemnly declare, that nothing we can do can be acceptable before God except for the sake of Jesus Christ; and that we are unable to perform good works except by his Spirit working in us: so that what is called a Christian's righteousness is, at the same time, the righteousness of Christ, although the Scriptures promise, repeatedly and plainly, that it will, through his goodness, not "lose its reward."

That part of their theory which is the most objectionable on this score is the doctrine, that from the pains of *Purgatory*, Christ has not redeemed us, but we are to be rescued either by penances done in this life, or by masses offered in our behalf after our death.

But I do think, that, in practice, the Romish system tends to foster the error in question; not so much, however, by the use of the words "merit," and "reward," as by the importance attached to the *actual performance* of a vast multitude of specific works, many of them arbitrarily prescribed, such as abstinence from particular meats on particular days, repetition of "Ave Marias" and "Pater-nosters"—pilgrimages—crossings, &c., which have a manifest tendency to absorb the attention in the *act* itself—to draw off the mind from the endeavour after inward purity—and to create the feeling so congenial to our nature, that we have been so far advancing in the performance of something *intrinsically* capable of forwarding our salvation.

It is worth remarking, that the great heathen moralist, who understood more of the character of Christian virtue than many Christians do, dwells strongly on the principle, that while, in the arts, *the thing produced* is what we chiefly look to, in moral action, on the contrary, the frame of mind of the *agent* is the principal point; virtuous *actions* being only the means, though the necessary means, of *making* him, and of *proving* him to be, (what is to be the ultimate object sought after,) an habitually good man.* But it is an easier task for man, such as he is by nature, to conform his outward actions to a certain precisely fixed *rule*, and to applaud himself for that conformity, than, by incessant vigilance and

* According to the analogy of the other similar compounds in our language, such as "self-love," "self-condemnation," "self-tormentor," &c. "self-righteousness" should signify, upright dealing in respect to one's self.

* See Arist. Eth. b. ii.

self-examination, to rectify and regulate the inward character.*

It is a great mistake, however, to imagine that Protestants, even those who are the forwardest in condemning this particular kind of spiritual pride, called by them "self-righteousness," are therefore exempt from the danger of spiritual pride altogether. On the contrary, one may find but too plain symptoms of the same disease, even in some who the most abhor and condemn all reliance on the merit of good works. For pride is too natural an inmate of the human heart to be effectually excluded by being merely "at one entrance quite shut out." There are some, as I have above remarked,† who substitute an unerring party for an unerring church, or renounce the shackles of papal infallibility, as it were in a spirit of rivalry, that they may become each a pope to himself. And these will commonly be found to have merely changed the form, not the substance, of spiritual pride. One may sometimes hear a man professing himself the chief of sinners—proclaiming his own righteousness to be filthy rags—calling himself a brand plucked from the burning—resting his confidence of salvation wholly on the atonement of his Redeemer, and on the imputation to himself of the righteous works performed by Christ‡—and acknowledging that he has received every thing from God's free and unmerited bounty; and thence fully trusting that he must have completely attained Christian humility; at least as far as he does completely adhere to his profession, that whatever he possesses is due to the free grace of God. On this ground we may conceive the Pharisee in the parable to have congratulated himself on his *humility* as well as his other virtues; since he exclaims, in pious gratitude, God, *I thank thee, that I am not as other men are!*" But the Pharisee, it will be answered, rested on his good works—his scrupulous fasting and paying of tithes. Is there then *no other* conceivable spiritual pride than precisely that of the Pharisee? no other subject of excessive self-confidence and self-congratulation? If there be, it is evident that we cannot, any more than the Pharisee, be exempted from the danger, by merely acknowledging (as he did) that all we have is the gift of God. And in fact, it may too often be found, that a Christian, who renounces the Romish tenets respecting good works, and who abhors the very name of "merit," as applied to himself or to other men, will have renounced boasting, only in words, and will be full of the most overweening confidence in his own gifts and graces. For there is a striking resemblance between the Romanist and the fanatical pietist, in their each craving after, (though from different quarters,) and each in consequence flattering himself as having attained

some such *definite and certain assurance*, the one from his church, the other from his feelings, as may finally supersede hesitation and self-distrust—destroy the true nature and value of faith—and deprive the present life of its character as a state of *discipline*. As the one accordingly relies in proud security on his unerring church, so the other will proclaim himself enlightened throughout, as to the whole Gospel scheme, by the Divine Spirit; and so far he is right, that the aid of the Holy Spirit is promised us to "help our infirmities," and that without this help sought and granted, the clearest intellectual powers will leave a man bewildered, or dissatisfied. But he who honestly avails himself of this promise, and is truly "led by the Spirit," will be filled with gratitude indeed for the past, and with cheering hope for the future, but with no arrogant self-confidence, or uncharitable disdain. Without entering into any minute discussion (for which this is not the place*) of the different kinds and degrees of spiritual assistance, it is evident that all such enlightening of the mind either is or is not of such a character as to amount to *inspiration*, and imply infallibility. If in any case a man is convinced that he has *not* any claim to this, he ought, in *some* way or other, to manifest that conviction, and show that he makes allowances for this difference: if he does reckon himself properly inspired, he ought at least not to censure the Romish church for the presumptuous *arrogance* of her claim, but honestly to join issue on the question, whether they or he are *justified* in such a claim: a question which, it appears to me, can only be settled by the performance of sensible miracles.

And I cannot but think the Romanists have the advantage in point of consistency over many modern fanatics, inasmuch as their church does acknowledge the reasonableness of such an appeal, and claim miraculous powers. But one may find in some Protestants, while they pretend to no such powers, and abjure all arrogant assumption, a decided pretension, if not always expressed in words, at least implied in the whole tenor of their language, to inspiration, properly so called. They state their own views of religion with no less oracular dogmatism than the Romanists;—they bestow no less unhesitating and unsparing censure on all who do not coincide in these views, or who do not, to the minutest tittle, conform to their phraseology in expressing them;—and they look down with the same pharisaical and self-sufficient contempt on every one who does not adopt the notions which they (as they often express themselves) have been taught by the Spirit of God. And if any one remains unconvinced by their arguments, or by their assertions instead of argument, or if he meet these with such objections as they are at a loss to answer, they

* See Essays V. and VIII. Second Series.

† Chap. IV. ‡ See Essay VI. Second Series.

* See Essay IX. Second Series.

will in general boldly and promptly resort to the cheap expedient of pronouncing him incapable of comprehending the subject, from being in an unregenerate state: for "the natural man receiveth not the things that are of God; and such, they conclude at once, must be the condition of any one who disallows, or, still more, who refutes, their opinions, which they are sure are the "things of God." Any, the slightest, departure from the standard of their (as it might be called, in analogy to their own phraseology) "self-infallibility," is regarded by them as a decisive proof of entire spiritual blindness.

But still, inasmuch as they abhor "self-righteousness," claiming no merit whatsoever for their own good works, and pretending *only* to the character of the peculiarly favoured and inspired people of God, they flatter themselves that they are quite safe from spiritual pride; and thus they complete their presumptuous confidence, by adding to the list of their other perfections, the perfect attainment of genuine Christian humility. Being utter strangers to self-distrust and humble vigilance, they feel, for this very reason, the more secure against any deficiency of these; and the very completeness of their spiritual pride makes them the more completely confident of being wholly free from it.

If such be, as I fear it is, but too true a picture of the language and tone of feeling which may not unfrequently be met with, even among those who not only condemn the arrogance of the Romish plea of merit, but are sedulous in warning Protestants against the like sin, this furnishes a strong, and afflicting, and awful instance of a delusion by which our spiritual enemy can obtrude upon us some vice, dressed up in the very garb of the opposite virtue, even at the very time when we are occupied in the most vehement reprobation of it: while we are, in one point, scrupulous to "strain off the gnat," and in another, ready to "swallow the camel."

Never will the sin of spiritual pride more easily beset us, than under the guise of a self-abhorring humility. And never will the preacher be more successful in making (apparent) converts, than when he is unconsciously flattering the evil propensities of man's corrupt nature, while he appears to repress them. "It is sometimes considered as a proof of the advantage to be obtained from the habit which I am here presuming to discourage, that such preaching generally proves attractive to the lower classes. This, however, may be accounted for, without furnishing any justification of the practice. For, first, the lower classes, unless they are truly religious, usually are gross sinners, and, therefore, are neither surprised nor shocked at being supposed so themselves, and at the same time feel a sort of pleasure which need not be encouraged, when they hear their superiors brought

down to the same level: and, secondly, it seems to furnish them with a sort of excuse for their sins, to find that they are so universal, and so much to be expected of human nature."* Nothing indeed is more likely to be popular, and less likely to be profitable, than to act the part of the Stoic philosopher to Damasippus; (Hor. Sat. iii. b. 2;) who assured him that he need not feel any shame at his own follies, at least as compared with those of other men,† since all except the true wise-men‡ were equally foolish and insane,|| though in various ways; and that he had only to enrol himself in this privileged and enlightened philosophical sect, adopt the maxims of his new school,§ and immediately look down with disdain on those he had been accustomed to look up to with a mixture of reverence, envy, despair, and dislike.¶

The whole of this admirable satire is well worth a re-perusal, with a view to the present subject, for the sake of the light it throws on the substantial identity, under the most different forms and names, of human nature in all ages and countries.

It ever must have been, and ever will be, a far more irksome task to human nature, to drink, drop by drop, the medicine, so bitter to the "natural man," of self-abasement, than to get rid of the potion in a single draught;—to weed out, one by one, deep-rooted habits, and gradually to retrace his steps by daily perseverance, than to leap at once to a secure eminence, from which he may look back, in the exultation of superiority, on those whose greater forwardness in the Christian course he had been used to regard with almost hopeless mortification.

Well therefore may we expect, that those who are not sedulously on their guard, will be often seduced by a temptation which addresses itself at once to the impatient indolence, to the jealousy, and to the pride, of the human heart.

To the topics I have touched on in the course of this work, I might have added, besides many others, some allusion to the re-introduction among some Protestants of *auricular confession*, though so far modified as

* Sumner, Apostolical Preaching, p. 133.

† Credo modo insanum; nihilo ut sapientior ille Qui te deridit. Sat. iii. b. ii. l. 51.

‡ Hæc populos, hæc magnos formula reges, Excepto sapiente, tenet. l. 45.

|| It should be remembered, that the *equality of all faults* was a favourite doctrine of the Stoics.

§ unde ego mira Descripti docilis præcepta hæc, tempore quo me

Solutus jussit sapientem pascere barbam, Atque a Fabricio non tristem ponte reverti. l. 34.

¶ amico Arma dedit, posthac ne compellarer inultus. l. 297

not to be made to a *priest*; by which alteration I conceive both the *good*, in some instances, and the *evil*, in many more of the Romish practice, is diminished. That good as well as evil—beneficial as well as pernicious effects—have been produced by auricular confession, I have not a doubt. And this perhaps has had its share in the wide diffusion, long continuance, and partial restoration of the practice. But the chief cause is, I am convinced, (as in the case of the other Romish practices,) that there is a natural craving in mankind for this unburdening of the conscience, by confession to a fellow-creature. The Romish system has taken advantage of this, by misinterpreting the scriptural recommendation, to “confess our sins one to another,” as a *requisition* of a *regular* and *complete* periodical confession, making a portion of Christian discipline. And the practice so established, whether with Romanists or Protestants, I am convinced does evil ten times oftener, and of ten thousand times greater magnitude, than good: nor can I but regard it as, practically, one of the very worst parts of Romanism. Indeed, my chief reason for not dwelling on it further is, that I *could not*, with propriety, exhibit it in its true colours, or describe what I not only believe, but I may say, know,* respecting its effects.

Enough however has been said on several points, and perhaps more than enough, for minds disposed to follow up a principle in its several applications, to show the necessity of unceasing vigilance, and, not indeed of often repeated thorough *reformations*, (which are always attended with more or less evil,) but, of such perpetual revision, renovation, purification, and progressive *improvement*, in every system, as shall supersede the necessity of great changes; such constant attention to keep every thing, as it were, in good *repair*, that there shall be no need of totally pulling down and rebuilding.

* See Dedication.

But there is an error common to many of those who in other respects vary infinitely in their views; to many, both of the adherents of the unreformed Romish church, with its long accumulated load of abuses; and of those who are fully satisfied with the system of some reformed church; and again of those who advocate further reform, from the most extravagant to the most moderate. The error, I mean, of conceiving a system, whether actually existing, or ideal, so framed, as to *keep itself in good order*;—one that either is, or may be, so wisely constituted as to remain perfect, or as near as is possible to perfection, without any call for incessantly watchful care on our part. This error, I say, is common to men of the most opposite views. Some attribute this character to the church of Rome, as founded by the apostles; or to some Protestant church, as reformed by Luther or Calvin; resigning themselves to tranquil security against all but external dangers, and apprehending none but sudden and violent innovations; forgetful of the wise remark of Bacon, that “Time is the greatest innovator; though his changes creep in so quietly as to escape notice.”* Others, on the contrary, see numberless defects, real or imaginary, in these churches, and wish for a total, or for a partial change: still flattering themselves, like their opponents, that a system once established on their principles will continue, without further care or vigilance, to answer all its purposes for ever;—in short, that the machine will go right, if undisturbed, without ever needing to be regulated, or to be wound up. Never let it be forgotten, then, that we are beset by the same truly chimerical hope, in human affairs, which has misled so many speculators in mechanics; the vain expectation of attaining the PERPETUAL MOTION.

* “Novator maximus, Tempus
quod novationes ita insinuat ut sensus fallant.”

THE END.



THE
KINGDOM OF CHRIST
DELINEATED,
IN TWO ESSAYS ON
OUR LORD'S OWN ACCOUNT OF HIS PERSON,
AND OF
THE NATURE OF HIS KINGDOM,
AND ON THE
CONSTITUTION, POWERS, AND MINISTRY
OF
A CHRISTIAN CHURCH, AS APPOINTED BY HIMSELF

BY RICHARD WHATELY, D. D.

ARCHBISHOP OF DUBLIN.

Πᾶσα φυτεία ἢ οὐκ ἐφύτευται ὁ πατήρ μου ὁ οὐράνιος ἐκζηθήσεται.—MATT. xv. 13.

FROM THE LAST LONDON EDITION, WITH ADDITIONS.

PHILADELPHIA:
JAMES M. CAMPBELL & CO., 98 CHESTNUT STREET.
NEW YORK:—SAXTON & MILES, 205 BROADWAY.

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TO THE CANDIDATES WHO RECEIVED

ORDINATION

AT CHRIST CHURCH, DUBLIN, NOVEMBER, MDCCCXL.

TO THE LORD BISHOP OF MEATH, WHOSE

CONSECRATION

TOOK PLACE IN THE SAME CHURCH, DECEMBER, MDCCCXL.

AND

TO THE BISHOPS AND CLERGY OF THE PROVINCE OF DUBLIN,

WHO ATTENDED THE TRIENNIAL

VISITATION

HELD IN AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, MDCCCXLI.

THIS VOLUME,

CONTAINING THE SUBSTANCE OF THE DISCOURSES DELIVERED

ON THOSE OCCASIONS, RESPECTIVELY,

IS INSCRIBED,

WITH EARNEST WISHES FOR THEIR PRESENT AND ETERNAL WELFARE,

BY THEIR SINCERE FRIEND AND FELLOW LABOURER,

THE AUTHOR.

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PREFACE.

THE following Essays contain the substance of some Discourses not originally designed for the Press, but which I was strongly urged to publish by several of the persons to whom the Volume is inscribed.*

I have endeavoured to throw the materials into a form more suited for private perusal than that of the Discourses originally delivered. I fear, however, that in consequence of frequent interruptions during the preparation of the work for the Press, some defects may be found in the arrangement and comparative development of the several topics, and other such imperfections in the compositions, which can only be effectually guarded against by means of a period of unbroken leisure beyond what I can ever reasonably expect.

But whatever may be thought of the Work as a Composition, I trust that, in respect of the *matter* of it, the reader will give me credit for being incapable of putting forth, on subjects so important, any views that have not been carefully considered.

In fact, among the subjects here treated of are some on which I have not only reflected much, but have written and published from time to time for above twelve years.

And it may not be impertinent here to remark, that in respect of some most important points now maintained, I may appeal (besides the arguments contained in the following pages) to the strongest of all external confirmations, the testimony of opponents. Not that I have ever written in a polemical form, or sought to provoke controversy; but by opponents, I mean those who have maintained, and who still maintain, opinions opposite to those I have put forth; but who have never, to the best of my knowledge, even attempted any refutation of the reasons I have adduced.

For instance, that the introduction into the Christian Religion of Sacrifices and Sacrificing Priests is utterly at variance with the whole System of the Gospel, and destructive of one of its most important characteristics; and, again, that the implicit deference due to the declarations and precepts of Holy Scripture, is due to *nothing else*, and that it is not humble piety, but profane presumption, either to attribute infallibility to the traditions or decision of any uninspired Man or Body of men, (whether Church, Council, Fathers, or by whatever other title designated,) or, still more, to acknowledge in these, *although fallible*, a right to fix absolutely the interpretation of Scripture, to be blended therewith, and to supersede all private judgment,—these are positions which I have put forth, from time to time, for many years past, in various forms of expression, and supported by a variety of arguments, in several different works, some of which have appeared in more than one edition. And though opposite views are maintained by many writers of the present day, several of them professed members of the Church of England, I have never seen even an attempted refutation of any of those arguments.

It cannot be alleged that they are not worth noticing: since whether intrinsically weak or strong, the reception they have met with from the Public indicates their having had some influence.

And again, if any one is averse to entering into controversy, and especially personal controversy, (a feeling with which I cordially sympathize,) this would not compel him to leave wholly unnoticed all the arguments that can be urged against his views. It would be absurd to speak as if there were no medium between, on the one hand, engaging in a controversy, and, on the other hand, passing over with-

* In the earlier part of the first Essay, I have been much indebted to a valuable Work which, for several years, I have been in the habit of recommending to divinity students,—“Wilson on the Interpretation of the New Testament,” [published by Parker, West Strand.] In the first edition this notice, though referred to in a foot note to § 6, (as if inserted,) was accidentally omitted in this place.

out any notice at all, every thing that ever has been, or may be, urged on the opposite side. Nothing is easier or more common, and I should add, nothing more advisable, than to notice in *general* terms the opinions or arguments opposed to one's own, and without reference to any particular book or author: as by saying, for instance, "Such and such a doctrine has been held;"—"this or that may be alleged;"—"some persons may object so and so," &c. In this way, not only personal controversy may be avoided, without undue neglect of what may be said on the opposite side, but also the advantage is gained (to the cause of truth, I mean) of confining the reader's attention to the real merits of the case, independently of the extraneous circumstances,* which ought not to influence the decision.

It is true, no one should be required to notice every minor objection,—every difficulty relative to points of detail,—that may be alleged against any principle or system he is contending for; since there may be even valid objections against each of two opposite conclusions.† But this does not affect the present case; the arguments I am alluding to having relation to *fundamental principles*. Whatever any one may think of the soundness of those arguments, no one can doubt that, if admitted, they go to prove that the system contended against is (not merely open to objections, but) radically wrong throughout; based on false assumptions, supported by none but utterly fallacious reasoning, and leading to the most pernicious consequences.

And these arguments, though it is not for me to say that they are unanswerable, have certainly been hitherto, as far as I know, wholly unanswered, even by those who continue to advocate opposite conclusions.

Should it be asked why they do not either abandon those conclusions, or else attempt a refutation of the reasons urged against them, *that* is evidently not a question for me, but for them, to answer. Else, an answer is not unlikely to occur to some minds, in the words of the homely proverb, "he that's convinced against his will, is of his own opinion still."

It is only, however, in reference to the subject-matter itself of the question under discussion—to the intrinsic soundness of the conclusions advocated—that the opinions and procedure of individuals can be worth the attention of the general reader. All that I wish to invite notice to is, the confirmation that is afforded to the conclusiveness of arguments to which no answer is attempted, even by those who continue to maintain doctrines at variance with them.

All that has been said in reference to the positions above alluded to (which are among those maintained in the second of these Essays) will apply equally to some of those maintained in the first Essay: for instance, that to attempt the propagation or support of Gospel truth by secular force, or by establishing in behalf of Christians, as such, a monopoly of civil rights, is utterly at variance with the true character of Christ's Kingdom, and with the teaching and practice of Himself and his Apostles;‡ and that to attribute to them any such design, is to impugn their character, not merely as inspired Messengers from Heaven, but even as sincere and upright men.

These conclusions have been maintained by arguments which have been as long before the Public § as the others above alluded to, and have remained equally unanswered.

If in these, or in any other points, I am in error, I trust I shall be found open to conviction whenever my errors shall be pointed out. In the mean time, I trust I shall not be thought to have been unprofitably employed, in endeavouring more fully to elucidate, and to confirm by additional arguments, what appear to me to be momentous truths, and in developing some of the most important of the practical conclusions which result from them.

In the present edition a few notes have been added in further illustration of the principles maintained; and here and there a sentence has been slightly altered in expression, in order to guard, as far as lies in myself, against all danger of misapprehension.

* *Ἐξ τῶν πράγματων*, Arist. Rhet.

† See Logic, b. iii. § 17.

‡ See a very interesting pamphlet on the present condition of the Vaudois. (Murray, Albemarle Street.)

§ Particularly in the Essay "On Persecution," (Third Series,) and in Appendix E. and F. to the Essays "On the Dangers," &c., (Fourth Series.)

ESSAY I.

ON CHRIST'S OWN ACCOUNT OF HIS PERSON, AND ON THE NATURE OF HIS KINGDOM,
AS SET FORTH AT HIS TWO TRIALS.

Οὐδὲ εὐρέθη ΔΟΛΟΣ ἐν τῇ στόματι αὐτοῦ.

§ 1. To any one who is convinced of the divine origin of the Christian Religion,—who is satisfied that what is called in Scripture “the Kingdom of Heaven” does really deserve that title,—and who is inquiring into the personal character of its Founder, and into the nature of that Kingdom which He proclaimed and established, the most obvious and natural course would seem to be, to appeal, in the first instance, to that Founder himself, and to consider what account He gave of his own character and that of his kingdom. For to believe Him sent from God, is to believe Him incapable of either deceiving or being deceived, as to these points. He must have understood both his own personal nature, and the principles of the religion He was divinely commissioned to introduce. Having a full reliance therefore both on his unerring knowledge, and his perfect veracity, our first inquiry should be, as I have said, (without any disparagement of other sources of instruction,) into the accounts He gave of Himself and his religion; both in the various discourses which He delivered and declarations which He made, on sundry occasions, and, most especially, on the great and final occasion of his being tried and condemned to death.

We collect from the sacred historians that He underwent *two* trials, before two distinct tribunals, and on charges totally different; that on the one occasion He was found guilty, and on the other, acquitted; and that ultimately He was put to death under the one Authority in compliance with the condemnation which had been pronounced by the other.

He was tried first before the Sanhedrim, (the Jewish Council,) “for blasphemy,” and pronounced “guilty of death.” Before the Roman governor, Pilate, (and probably before Herod also,) He was tried for rebellion, in setting up

pretensions subversive of the existing Government; and was pronounced not guilty. The Jewish rulers had the will, but not the power, to inflict capital punishment on Him; Pilate had the power, and not the will. But though he “found no fault in Him,” he was ultimately prevailed on by the Jews to inflict *their* sentence of death. “*We** have a law,” they urged, “and by our law He ought to die, because He made Himself the Son of God.”

Of this most interesting and important portion of the sacred narrative, many persons, I believe, have a somewhat indistinct and confused notion; partly from the brevity, scantiness, and indeed incompleteness, of each of the four narratives, when taken alone; each evangelist recording, it may be supposed, such circumstances, as he was the most struck with, and had seen or heard the most of: and partly, again, from the commonly prevailing practice of reading the Scripture-histories irregularly, and in detached fragments, taken indiscriminately and without any fixed object, out of different books.†

This indistinctness a reader of ordinary intelligence may I think very easily clear away, by attentively studying and *comparing together* all the four accounts that have come down to us: and he will then find that this portion of the history so examined, will throw great light on some of the most important points of Gospel truth;—on those two great questions

* Ἡμεῖς is expressed in the original.

† The whole of the *New Testament* is read in this irregular mode, in the Second Lessons appointed in our service; as these are appointed in reference to the day of the month only; and it is consequently a matter of chance which of them shall fall on Sunday. This is one of the imperfections which a Church-government, if we had one, would not fail to remedy. See Appendix to the Second Essay.

especially which were alluded to in the outset, as to the fundamental character of "the kingdom of Heaven," and the person of its Founder.

§ 2. When the Jewish Rulers and People were clamorously demanding the death of Jesus under sentence of the Roman Authorities, and Pilate in answer declared, that before his—the Roman—tribunal, no crime had been proved, saying, "Take ye Him and judge Him according to your law," his intention evidently was that no heavier penalty should be inflicted than the scourging which was the utmost that the Jewish Authorities were permitted to inflict. But they replied that the crime of which they had convicted Him was, by their law, *capital*, while yet they were restricted by the Romans from inflicting capital punishment; ("it is not lawful for us to put any man to death;") on which ground accordingly they called on the Governor to execute the capital sentence of *their* Court.

Their clamours prevailed, through Pilate's apprehension of a tumult,* and of himself incurring suspicions of disloyalty towards the Emperor; which they had endeavoured to awaken by crying out that "if he let this man go, he was not Cæsar's friend: whosoever maketh himself a king, speaketh against Cæsar." But this was only brought forward as a plea to influence Pilate. The trial before the Jewish Council had nothing to do with the Roman Emperor, but was for "blasphemy," because "He made Himself the Son of God."

It is important, therefore, to inquire,—since this phrase may conceivably bear more than one meaning,—in what sense it was understood by those who founded on it the sentence of death.

In a certain sense all mankind may be called children of God.† In a more espe-

* It seems to have been not unusual for the Roman Governors of Provinces to endeavour thus to prevent, or mitigate, or cut short, any tumult *not directed against the Roman power itself*, by yielding to the wishes of the populace, however unreasonable, or conniving at their disorders. A sort of compromise was thus made with the most turbulent and violent among them; who, provided they made no attempt to throw off the yoke of a foreign Power, were permitted to sacrifice a fellow citizen to their lawless fury. Thus Gallio at Corinth left the rioters to settle their own disputes as they would; (Acts xviii. ;) and the magistrates at Philippi readily and spontaneously gratified the populace by seconding and sanctioning their unjust violence. Pilate on this occasion did so, tardily and reluctantly.

† (Acts xvii.) . . "for we are also his children."

cial manner,—in a higher sense,—those are often called his children whom He has from time to time chosen to be his "peculiar People,"—to have his will revealed to them, and his offers of especial favour set before them. Such were the Israelites of old (to whom the title of Son is accordingly assigned by the Lord himself, Exod. iv. 22,) as being the chosen or "elect" people of God, called from among all the nations of the world to receive direct communications, and especial blessings from their Heavenly Father. And the like privilege of peculiar "Sonship," (only in a far higher degree,) was extended afterwards to all nations who should embrace the Gospel; "who aforetime" (says the Apostle Peter) "were not a People, but now are the People of God." And Paul uses like expressions continually in addressing his converts, whether they walked worthy of their high calling or not.

Yet again, still more especially, those who do avail themselves of the privileges offered to them, and "walk as Children of the light," are spoken of as, in another and a superior way, the "Sons" of Him whom they love and submit to as a Father: "as many," says Paul, "as are led by the Spirit of God, they are the Sons of God."

Those Patriarchs, and Prophets again, to whom of old God revealed Himself immediately, and made them the means of communication between Himself and other men,—his messengers to his People,—and endowed with miraculous powers as the credentials of a heavenly embassy,—to such men as having a peculiar kind of divine presence with them, we might conceive the title of Children of God to be applicable in a different sense, as distinguishing them from uninspired men.

Now it is a most important practical question whether Jesus, the Author and Finisher of our faith,—He to whom we are accustomed emphatically to apply the title of "*the* Son of God,"—was so designated, in the Angel's first announcement, and on so many occasions afterwards, merely as being an inspired messenger from heaven, or in some different and higher sense; and what that higher sense is.

§ 3. And first, that Jesus is spoken of in Scripture as the Son of God, in some different sense from any other person, is evident at once from the very circumstance of his being styled "the only begotten Son;" which title is particularly

dwelt on when He is speaking of Himself, (John iii.) This is a further stage in the revelation given; for the Angel had not told Mary that He should be "*the Son of God*," (though it is so rendered in our version) but only "*a Son of God*," *υἱός Θεοῦ*.

I need not multiply the citations of passages of which so many must be familiar to every one even tolerably well-read in the New-Testament. But there is one that is peculiarly worthy of attention, on account of the care which divine Providence then displayed in guarding the disciples against the mistake of supposing Jesus to be merely one—though the most eminent one—of the Prophets. In the transfiguration "on the Mount," three favoured Apostles beheld their Master surrounded with that dazzling supernatural light which had always been to the Israelites the sign of a divine manifestation, and which we find so often mentioned in the Old Testament as the Glory of the Lord—the Shechinah;—which appeared on Mount Sinai,—on the Tabernacle in the Wilderness,—in Solomon's Temple, &c.: and they beheld at the same time, in company with Him, two persons, each of whom had been seen in their lifetime accompanied by this outward mark of supernatural light; Moses, their great law-giver, whose "face shone when he came down from Mount Sinai, so that the Israelites could not fix their eyes on it, and Elias (Elijah), their most illustrious Prophet, who was seen borne away from the earth in that Shechinah appearing as a "chariot and horses of fire:" and now, these same two persons were seen along with Jesus. It might naturally have occurred to the three disciples (perhaps some such idea was indicated by the incoherent words which dropped from them)—the thought might have occurred to them,—were Moses and Elias also Emanuels?—were all three, manifestations of "God dwelling with his People?" and was Jesus merely the greatest of the three? To correct, as it should seem, any such notion, it was solemnly announced to them that their Master was a Being of a different character from the others: "there came a voice out of the cloud, saying, This is *my beloved Son*: hear *Him*." And on two other occasions we read of the same signs being given.

§ 4. No one can doubt then, that those who believed in Jesus at all, must have believed Him to be the Son of God in a far

different and superior sense from that in which any other could be so called. But what *was* the sense, it may be asked, in which they did understand the title? Did the people of that time and country understand that God was with Him, not only in some such way as He never was with any other man, but so as to permit and require *divine worship* to be addressed to God in Christ? Many passages by which this tenet is supported are commonly cited from the Evangelists and Apostles; but I wish at present to confine myself to the expression "the Son of God," and to inquire in what sense that *word* was understood at the time.

Waiving then all abstruse disquisition on the notions conveyed by such terms as "consubstantiality"—"personality,"—"hypostatic-union,"—"eternal filiation," and the like, (oftener I conceive debated about with eagerness than clearly understood,) let us confine ourselves to such views as we may presume the Apostles to have laid before the converts they were instructing; who were most of them plain unlearned persons, to whom such abstruse disquisitions as I have been alluding to must have been utterly unintelligible; but who, nevertheless, where called on,—all of them, of whatever age, sex, station, and degree of intellectual education,—to receive the Gospel, and to believe, and feel, and act, as that Gospel enjoined.

There is one great practical point clearly intelligible to all, thus far, at least, that they can understand what the question is that is under discussion, and which it is, and ever must have been, needful to bring before all Christians without exception: viz., whether there is that divine character in the Lord Jesus which entitles Him to our *adoration*:—whether He is the Son of God in such a sense as to authorize those who will worship none but the one God, to worship Jesus Christ; so that all men* should honour the Son even as they honour the Father."

Now there is a maxim relative to the right interpretation of any passage of Scripture, so obvious when stated, that it seems strange it should be so often overlooked; viz. to consider *in what sense the words were understood by the generality of the persons they were addressed to*; and to keep in mind that the *presumption* is in favour of that, as the true sense, unless reasons to the contrary shall appear.

Some are accustomed to consider what

sense such and such words can be brought to bear; or how *we* should be most naturally inclined to understand them: but it is evident that the point we have to consider, if we would understand aright what it is that God did design to reveal, is, the sense (as far as we can ascertain it) which the very hearers of Christ and his Apostles did *actually* attach to their words. For we may be sure that if this was, in any case, a *mis-taken* sense, a correction of the mistake (if it relate to any important practical point) will be found in some part of the Sacred Writings.

However strange therefore it may seem to any one that the phrase "Son of God" should have been so understood as it was at the time, and however capable of another sense it may appear to us, still, the sense which Jesus and his Apostles meant to convey, must have been that, whatever it was, in which they *knew that their hearers understood them*.

And what this meaning was, may I think be settled even by the testimony of his adversaries alone, as to the sense in which *they* understood Him. They charged Him, not only on his trial, but on many other occasions also, with "blasphemy," as "making Himself God,"—"making himself equal with God;" and threatened to "stone Him," according to the law of Moses against blasphemers; understanding blasphemy to comprehend the crime of enticing the People to worship any besides the one true God, Jehovah.*

Now if they had *misunderstood* his words, and had supposed his language to imply a claim to such divine honour as He did *not* really mean to claim, we may be sure that any one—I do not say merely, any inspired messenger from heaven, but—any man of common integrity, would at once have disavowed the imputation, and explained his real meaning. If any Christian ministers, in these days, or at any time, were to have used some expression which they found was understood,—either by friends or foes,—as implying a claim to divine worship, what would they not deserve, if they did not hasten to disclaim such a meaning?

And much more would this be requisite in the case of a person who foresaw (as Jesus must have done) that his followers *would* regard Him as divine,—*would* worship Him—if He did not expressly warn

them against it. Such a one would be doubly bound to make such explanations and such disavowals as should effectually guard his disciples against falling into the error—through any thing said or done by himself—of paying adoration to a Being not divine: even as the Apostle Peter warns the Centurion Cornelius against the adoration which he suspected that Cornelius designed to offer him; saying, "stand up, I myself also am a man." Jesus of course would have taken care to give a like warning, if He had been conscious of not having a claim to be considered as divine, and had at the same time been aware that the title of Son of God would be understood as implying that claim.

That the title *was* so understood, is the point to which I am now calling the reader's attention.

§ 5. On one occasion, when he had healed a cripple on the Sabbath-day, and had commanded him immediately "to take up his bed" (which was a work prohibited by the Jewish law) He vindicates himself against his opponents by saying "My Father worketh hitherto,* and I work;" or, as it might be rendered more clearly, according to our modern usage, "My father has been working up to this time;" (that is, ever since the creation, the operations of God have been going on throughout the universe, on all days alike;) and I work;" I claim the right to perform, and to authorize others to perform, whatever and whenever I see fit.† "Therefore the Jews" (says the Evangelist) "sought the more to kill Him, because He not only had broken the Sabbath, but said also that God was his [proper] Father; *making himself equal with God.*‡

On another occasion (John x. 33) when He had said "I and the Father are one," the Jews were about to stone Him for blasphemy, "because (said they) thou being a man makest thyself God." He defends Himself by alleging a passage of their Scripture in which the title of "God" is applied to those, "to whom the word of God came;" implying however at the same time

* Ἐργάζεται εἰς ἀγρίαν.

† I have treated more fully on this point, in an Essay entitled "Thoughts on the Sabbath."

‡ Our version, it is important to observe, does not give the full force of the passage as it stands in the Original. It should be rendered, "that God was his *own proper* (or *peculiar*) Father." (πατήρ ἰδίου.) This it seems was the sense in which (according to the Evangelist) He was understood by his hearers to call God his Father, and Himself "the Son of God."—See Wilson on the New Testament, referred to in the Preface.

a distinction between Himself and those persons, and his own superiority to them: "Say ye of Him" (He doth not say "to whom the word of God came"—but) "whom the Father hath anointed and sent into the world, thou blasphemest, because I said I am the Son of God?" This however did not necessarily imply any thing more than superiority, and divine mission; and accordingly we find the Jews enduring it; but when He goes on to say "that ye may know and believe that *the Father is in me and I in him*," we find them immediately seeking again to lay hands on him; and He withdraws from them.

But the most important record by far in respect of the point now before us is that which I originally proposed to notice,—the account of our Lord's trial and condemnation before the Jewish council. In order to have a clear view of this portion of the history, it is necessary to keep in mind, that when He was tried before the Roman Governor, it was (as I observed in the beginning) not for the same crime he was charged with before the Council of the Jews; but for seditious and treasonable designs against the Roman Emperor: "We found this fellow perverting the nation and forbidding to give tribute to Cæsar, saying that He Himself is Christ a King." "Whosoever maketh himself a King, speaketh against Cæsar." Now I need hardly remark that this was no crime under the Law of Moses; and would in fact have been a merit in the sight of most of the Jews. But what He was charged with before *them*, was blasphemy, according to the Law of Moses;* and of this they pronounced Him guilty, and sentenced Him to death; but not having power to inflict capital punishment, they prevailed on Pilate, who had acquitted Him of the charge of treason, to inflict their sentence: "We have a law, and by our law He ought to die, because He made Himself the Son of God."

In order to understand clearly the trial and condemnation of our Lord before the Jewish council (which is in many respects a most important part of Sacred history) we should study, as I have said, the accounts given of it by all four of the Evangelists. Each relates such circumstances as most struck his own mind; where one is abridged, another is more diffuse; each omits some things that are noticed by another; but no one can

be supposed to have recorded any thing that did *not* occur. All the four, therefore, should be compared together, in order to obtain a clear view of the transaction.

It seems to have been divinely appointed that Jesus should be convicted on no testimony but *his own*; perhaps in order to fulfil the more emphatically his declaration "No man taketh away my life, but I lay it down of myself." For the witnesses brought forward to misrepresent and distort his saying "Destroy this temple," and "*I will destroy*," could not make their evidence agree.

The High Priest then endeavoured, by examining Jesus Himself, to draw from Him an acknowledgment of his supposed guilt. He and the others appear to have asked Him *two* questions; which in the more abridged narrative of Matthew and Mark are compressed into one sentence; but which Luke has given distinctly as two. After having asked Him "Art thou the Christ?" they proceed to ask further "Art thou then the *Son of God*?"* and as soon as He had answered *this last* question in the affirmative (according to the Hebrew idiom "Ye say," "Thou hast said") immediately "the High Priest rent his clothes," saying, "He hath spoken blasphemy: ye have heard the blasphemy; what need we any further witnesses? for we ourselves have heard of his own mouth."

§ 6. Some readers, I believe, from not carefully studying and comparing together the accounts of the different Evangelists, are apt to take for granted that the crime for which our Lord was condemned was that of falsely pretending to be the Messiah or Christ. But whatever the Jews may have thought of *that* crime, they certainly could not have found it mentioned, and death denounced against it, in the Law of Moses. It could, at any rate, have been no crime, unless *proved* to be a false pretension; which was not even attempted. Nor could they have brought that offence (even if proved) under the head of *blasphemy*; unless they had been accustomed to expect the Messiah as a divine person. Then, indeed, the claim of being the Messiah, and the claim of divine honour, would have amounted to the same thing. But so far were they from having this expectation that (not to multiply proofs) they were completely at a loss to answer our Lord's question, how Da-

* See Deut. xiii. 7.

* See John xx. 31.

vid, if the Christ were to be David's son, could speak of him as a divine Being under the title of LORD. "If David then called Him Lord, how is He his son," is a question which they would have answered without a moment's hesitation, if they had expected that the Christ should be, though the Son of David after the flesh and as a human Being, yet, the Son of God in such a sense as to make him a Divine Being also.

Whatever good reasons then they might have found in prophecy for such expectation, it seems plain that they had it not.

And the same I believe is the case, generally speaking, with the Jews of the present day.* A learned modern Jew, who has expressly written that Jesus "falsely demanded faith in Himself as the true God of Israel," adds that "if a prophet, or even the *Messiah Himself*, had offered proof of his divine mission by miracles, but claimed divinity, he ought to be stoned to death;" conformably *i. e.* to the command in Deut. xiii. And the only Jew with whom I ever conversed on the subject appeared to hold the same doctrine; though he was at a loss when I asked him to reconcile it with the application of the title of Emmanuel.

The Jewish Council then could not, it appears, capitally convict our Lord, merely for professing to be the Christ, even though falsely: and accordingly we may observe that they did not even seek for any proof that his pretension *was* false. But as soon as He acknowledged Himself to be the "Son of the living God," they immediately pronounced him "guilty of death" for blasphemy; *i. e.* as seeking to lead the people (Deut. xiii.) to pay divine honour to another besides the true God. They convict him on his own testimony (having "heard of his own mouth") of the crime which they afterwards describe to Pilate. "We have a law, and by our law he ought to die, because he made himself the Son of God."

§ 7. No candid reader then can doubt, I think, that the Jews understood him to claim by that title a divine character. And He Himself must have *known* that they so understood him. As little can it be doubted therefore that they must have *rightly* understood him. For if he—condemned as he was on the evidence of his own words—had known that those words were understood differently from his real mean-

ing, and yet had not corrected the mistake, he would have been himself bearing false witness against Himself; since no one can suppose it makes any difference in point of veracity, whether a man says that which is untrue in *every* sense, or that which, though in a certain sense true, yet is false in the sense in which he knows it to be understood. It is mere waste of labour and learning and ingenuity to inquire what meaning such and such an expression is *capable* of bearing, in a case where we know, as we do here, what was the sense which was actually conveyed by it, to the hearers, and which the speaker must have been aware it did convey to them.

Jesus did therefore acknowledge the fact alleged against Him; viz.: that of claiming to be the Son of God in such a sense as to incur the penalty (supposing that claim unwarranted) of death for blaspheming, according to the law respecting those who should entice Israel to worship any other than the one true God. The whole question therefore of his being rightly or wrongfully condemned, turns on the justness of that claim:—on his actually having, or not having, that divine character which the Jews understood Him to assume. For if He were *not* such, and and yet called Himself the Son of God, knowing in what sense they understood the title, I really am at a loss to see on what ground we can find fault with the sentence they pronounced.

It does appear to me therefore—I say this without presuming to judge those who think differently, but to me it appears—that the whole question of Christ's divine mission, and consequently of the truth of Christianity, turns on the claim which He so plainly appears to have made to divine honour for Himself.

I am not one of those indeed who profess to understand and explain why it was necessary for man's salvation that God should have visited his People precisely in the way He did. On such points, as I dare not believe less, so I pretend not to understand more, than He has expressly revealed. If I had been taught in Scripture that God had thought fit to save the world, through the agency of some Angel, or some great Prophet, not possessing in himself a divine character, I could not have presumed to maintain the impossibility of that. But *this* does strike me as utterly impossible; that a heaven-sent messenger—the Saviour of the world,—should be a person who claimed a divine

* See Wilson on the New Testament, above referred to.

character that did *not* belong to Him; and who thus gave rise to, and permitted, and encouraged, a system of idolatry. This is an idea so revolting to all my notions of divine purity, and indeed of common morality, that I could never bring myself to receive as a divine revelation any religious system that contained it.

All the difficulties on the opposite side—and I do not deny that *every* religious persuasion has its difficulties—are as nothing in comparison of the difficulty of believing that Jesus (supposing Him neither an impostor nor a madman) could have made the declaration he did make at his trial, if He were conscious of having no just claim to divine honour.

§ 8. And the conclusion to which we are thus led, arises (it should be observed) out of the mere consideration of the title “Son of God,” or “only-begotten Son of God,” as applied to Jesus Christ; without taking into account any of the confirmations of the same conclusion (and there are very many) which may be drawn from other parts of the Sacred Writings, both of the Evangelists and Apostles—from many things that were said, and that were done, both by our Lord and by his Apostles.

There is indeed no one of these their recorded actions and expressions that may not be explained away by an ingenious critic, who should set himself to do so, and who should proceed like a legal advocate, examining every possible sense in which some law or precedent, that makes against his client, may be interpreted. But again, there is hardly one of these passages which can be thus explained away without violating the maxim above laid down; viz., that we should consider, not *any* interpretation whatever that such and such words can bear, but—what notion they conveyed, and must have been known to convey, to the hearers, at the time.* For if this were a mistaken notion,—an untrue sense,—it follows inevitably that Christ and his Apostles must have been *teachers* of falsehood, even though their words should be capable of a different and true signification.

Unless, therefore, we conceive them capable of knowingly promoting idolatry,—unless we can consider Jesus Himself as either an insane fanatic, or a deliberate impostor,—we must assign to him, the “Author and Finisher of our Faith,” the “only-begotten Son of God,” who is “one with the Father,” that divine character which

He and his Apostles so distinctly claimed for Him; and acknowledge that God truly “was in Christ, reconciling the World unto Himself.”

§ 9. Not less important, I conceive, are the lessons to be drawn from the second trial,—that before Pilate,—to which our Lord was subjected; provided this portion also of the sacred narrative be studied on the principle already laid down; that of interpreting his declarations with reference to the meaning they were meant to convey at the time, and to the very persons He was addressing.

The Jewish Council having found Jesus guilty of a capital crime, and being not permitted,* under the Roman laws, to inflict capital punishment, (for the stoning of Stephen appears to have been an irregular and tumultuous outbreak of popular fury,) immediately bring him before Pilate on a new and perfectly different charge. “The whole multitude of them arose and led Him unto Pilate: and they began to accuse Him, saying, We found this fellow perverting the nation, and forbidding to give tribute to Cæsar, saying that He Himself is Christ, a King.” For the crime of which He had been convicted before *them*, that of blasphemy, in seeking to draw aside the Jews to the worship of another besides the LORD Jehovah, though a capital crime under the Mosaic law, was none at all in the court of the Roman Governor; and again, the crime alleged in this latter court, treason against the Roman emperor, was no crime at all under the law of Moses.

Now, in studying the circumstances of this second trial, we ought, as has been above observed, to proceed by the same rule of interpretation as in respect of the former trial; viz., to understand our Lord’s expressions, not in any sense whatever they can be brought to bear, nor, necessarily, in the sense which to *us* may seem the most suitable, but in the sense, as far as we can ascertain it, in which He must have *known that He was understood* at the time.

When then He was charged before Pilate with “speaking against Cæsar” and “making Himself a King,” how does He defend Himself? As on a former occasion, when his adversaries had tried to *make* him commit the offence with which they now charged Him, of interfering with the secular government of Cæsar, He, so far from “forbidding to give tribute,” drew the line between

* See Sermon on the “Name Emmanuel.”

* OUR EDITION.

secular and spiritual government, saying, "Render unto Cæsar the things which be Cæsar's, and unto God the things which be God's," so, now, before Pilate, He asserts his claim to be a King, but declares that "his kingdom is not of this world," and that, accordingly, his servants were not allowed to fight for Him; and He further describes his kingly office to consist in "bearing witness of the truth." "Every one that is of the truth," said He, "heareth (*i. e.* obeyeth) my voice."*

The result was that Pilate acquitted Him; declaring publicly that he "found no fault at all in Him." It is plain, therefore, that he must have believed—or at least professed to believe—both that the declarations of Jesus were true, and that they amounted to a total disavowal of all interference with the secular government, by Himself, or his followers, as such.

Much ingenuity has been expended,—I must needs say, has been *wasted*,—in drawing out from our Lord's expressions before Pilate, every sense that his words can be found capable of bearing; while a man of little or no ingenuity, but of plain good sense and sincerity of purpose, seeking in simplicity to learn what Jesus really did mean, can hardly, I should think, fail of that meaning, if he does but keep in mind the *occasion* on which He was speaking, and the sense in which He must have known that his language would be understood. The occasion on which He spoke was when on his trial before a Roman governor, for

* He came to establish a Kingdom of Truth; that is, not a kingdom whose subjects should embrace on compulsion what is in itself true, and consequently should be adherents of truth by accident; but a kingdom whose subjects should have been admitted as such in consequence of their being "of the truth" that is, men honestly disposed to embrace, and "obey the truth," whatever it might be, that God should reveal: agreeably to what our Lord has elsewhere declared, that "if any man will do (*ἂν*, is willing to do) the will of my Father, he shall know the doctrine, &c."

Those who explain Christ's declaration of his having "come into the world to bear witness of the truth," in some sense in itself intelligible, but quite unconnected with the inquiry He was answering, as to his being "a King," seem to forget that what he said must have had not only *some* meaning, but some meaning *pertinent* to the occasion; and this they seem as much at a loss for as Pilate himself; who exclaimed, "What is truth?" not from being ignorant of the meaning of the word, but from perceiving no connexion between "truth" and the inquiry respecting the claim to regal office.—See *Essay I*, 2d series.

treason,—for a design to subvert, or in some way interfere with, the established government. To this charge, it is plain Pilate understood Him to plead *not guilty*; and gave credit to his plea. Pilate, therefore, must have taken the declaration that Christ's "kingdom is not of this world," as amounting to a renunciation of all secular coercion,—all forcible measures in behalf of his religion. And we cannot without imputing to our blessed Lord a fraudulent evasion, suppose Him to have really meant any thing different from the sense which he knew his words conveyed. Such is the conclusion which I cannot but think any man must come to who is not seeking, as in the interpretation of an Act of Parliament, for any sense most to his own purpose, that the words can be made to bear, however remote that may be from the known design of the Legislator; but who, with reverential love, is seeking with simplicity and in earnest to *learn* what is the description that Christ gave of his kingdom.

But the ingenuity which has been (as I said before) wasted in trying to explain our Lord's words in some other way, has been called forth by a desire to escape some of the *consequences* which follow from taking them in their simple and obvious sense. Those who are seeking not really to learn the true sense of our Lord's declarations, but to reconcile them with the conduct of some Christian States, and to justify the employment of secular force in behalf of Religion, are driven to some ingenious special-pleading on the words employed, in order to draw from them such a sense as may suit their own purpose.

And all this ingenuity is (as I said before) wasted; because even supposing it proved that the words which Jesus uttered are, in themselves, capable of bearing some other meaning, still, nothing is gained (supposing our object is, not to *evade*, but to *understand* Scripture) if that meaning be one which could not have been so understood at the time, or which would have been one utterly foreign to the occasion and irrelevant to the question that was to be tried.

§ 10. For instance, I have heard it said that our Lord's description of his kingdom as "not of this world" meant *merely* that He claimed to possess a spiritual dominion (as undoubtedly He did) over the souls of men, and to be the distributor of the rewards and judgments of the other

world. And such certainly is his claim : but the essential point, with a view to the trial then going on, was, that this was his *only* claim. He did not merely claim spiritual dominion, but he also *renounced* temporal. He declared not merely that his kingdom is of the *next* world ; but that it is *not* of *this* world.

In fact, the *mere* assertion of his spiritual dominion, and one extending beyond the grave, would have been, at that time, and in reference to the charge brought against Him, wholly irrelevant, and foreign to the question. He was charged with " speaking against Cæsar,"—with making Himself King in opposition to the Roman Emperor. The Jews expected (as Pilate could hardly have been ignorant) a Christ who should be a heaven-sent " King of the Jews," possessing both temporal and spiritual authority ; a kingdom, both of this world and of the next : for the great mass of the nation believed in a future state. Any man claiming to be such a king of the Jews, would evidently be an opponent of the Roman government. His *spiritual* pretensions, the Romans did not concern themselves about. It was the assumption of *temporal* power that threatened danger to the Empire ; and it was of this assumption that Jesus was accused : *did He not distinctly deny it ?* There was no question about the rewards and punishments of another world. The question was, whether He did or did not design to claim, for Himself, or his followers *as such*, any kind of secular empire :* could any words have disclaimed it more strongly than those He used ? And can any one in his senses seriously believe that when Jesus said, " My kingdom is not of this world," He meant to be understood as saying that his kingdom was not only of this world, but of the next world too.

No,—I have heard it said by some other expounders,—He did mean to disclaim all temporal dominion for *Himself personally* and *at that time* ; but that, hereafter, when " the kingdoms of this world should become kingdoms of the Lord," and when " kings should become nursing fathers" of his Church, when " the Church should be in its complete developement by being perfectly identified with the State,—then, all those Christians who should have attained power, should exercise that power in enforcing the profession of his Gospel, and in putting down idolatry, infidelity, heresy, dissent, and all

false religion. In short, at the time when Christ stood before Pilate, his kingdom was not of this world, " because" (I am citing the words of one of the most celebrated ancient divines) " that prophecy was not yet fulfilled, ' Be wise now, therefore, O ye kings, be learned, ye that are judges of the earth ; serve the Lord with fear ; ' " the rulers of the earth, he adds, were at that time opposed to the Gospel ; the Apostles and other early disciples were *unable* to compel men to conform to the true faith ; and *therefore* it was that the secular arm was not yet called to aid against the Church's enemies.

Now, without entering into the question whether our Lord's words could, in themselves, bear such a meaning, let us confine ourselves to the principle we set out with, and merely consider whether He could possibly have meant to be *so understood*. For this, we should observe, would clearly have been to *plead guilty to the charge*. It mattered nothing to the Roman Government whether it were Jesus *Himself*, or his *followers* that should revolt against Cæsar's power, and set up a rival kingdom. And therefore, when our Lord himself, and afterwards Paul and the other Apostles, *defended* themselves against the imputation of seditious designs, it is impossible they could have meant to be understood as merely disclaiming such designs *for the present*, and renouncing temporal dominion only for *themselves, personally*, but reserving for their followers, when these should have become strong enough, the right to establish by force a Christian political ascendancy, and to put down all other religions. To have defended themselves against their accusers by acknowledging the very designs which those accusers imputed to them, would have been downright insanity.

But such absurdities as would, in *any other subject*, revolt every man of common sense, are sometimes tolerated in the interpretations of Scripture, that are framed in order to serve a purpose. For instance, suppose some emissaries of the Pretender in the last century, or, in later times, of the French revolutionists, or of the Chartist, or any set of revolutionists of the present day, to go about the country proclaiming and disseminating their principles, and then to be arrested and brought to trial for sedition : can any one conceive them defending themselves against the charge, by pleading that they did not intend that *they themselves*, but that their *disciples*,

* See Appendix, Note (A.)

should obtain the government of the country, and enforce their principles; that they aimed at the possession and the monopoly of civil rights* and privileges, not for themselves, but for their *successors*; that they did not mean to take up arms till they should have collected a sufficient number of followers; and that they taught all men to yield obedience to the existing government *till* they should be strong enough to overthrow it? Who does not see at once that to urge such a plea would convince every one of their being madmen? And yet this is what must be imputed to Jesus and his disciples, by any one who can suppose that they *meant to be understood* by the Roman magistrates as merely disclaiming all interference with civil government, till they should become numerous enough to enforce the claim;—all resort to secular coercion in religious matters, till they should have strength to employ it effectually;—all political monopoly, till they should be in a condition to maintain it by a strong hand.

Jesus then, it is plain, when He said “My kingdom is not of this world,” could not have meant to be *understood* as implying that it *should* be so hereafter.

One of the modes in which it has been attempted to explain away the teaching of Christ and his Apostles, is by representing them as inculcating only the duty of *Subjects* towards Governors, and not meaning that the same principles should be applied in reference to the duty of *Governors* towards Subjects: so that though Christians were to “be subject, for conscience’ sake,” even to idolatrous rulers (as long as nothing at variance with Christian duty was enjoined) the right was reserved, it seems, to Christians, whenever they might obtain political power, to employ this in forcibly maintaining and propagating their own religion,† and securing to its professors a monopoly of civil rights. As if a citizen, of whatever persuasion, had not the same claim to the rights of a *citizen*, that a ruler, of whatever persuasion, has to the rights of a *ruler*! As if the Christian principles implied in “render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar’s” . . . “render

unto *all* their *due*,” were not equally applicable to the duties either of Subject or of Prince!

And supposing (what is inconceivable) that any such groundless and fanciful distinction had been in the mind of our Lord and his Apostles, and moreover that they had meant the Roman magistrates so to understand them, and also that those magistrates had given them credit for sincerity, still, after all, nothing is gained by these suppositions: since there could be no security against a Christian’s obtaining political power, or against a man’s embracing Christianity who was already in power. And if this power was to be exerted in propagating the Religion by those coercive means which a civil magistrate is enabled to employ, no one in his senses can doubt, that had Christ and his Apostles been understood as acknowledging this, they would have been *pleading guilty* to the charges brought against them.*

§ 11. But had He then some *hidden* meaning, which He did *not* intend to be understood at the time? Did He design to convey one sense to the Roman governor, and another to his own disciples?—to reserve for his followers in future times, that power to enforce the acknowledgment of his gospel, which He *pretended* to disclaim.

It seems almost too shocking even to ask such a question: and yet it is but too true, that such, in substance, (however glossed over in words) must be the meaning attributed to our blessed Lord by those who would reconcile his declarations before Pilate with that which they represent as the right and the duty of every Christian Governor. “The magistrate,” they say, (I am giving the very words that have been employed,) “who restrains, coerces, and punishes any one who opposes the true faith, obeys the command of God:” and they contend that a Christian Governor is not only authorized, but bound, to secure to the professors of the true faith a monopoly of political power and civil rights. Now, to reconcile such doctrines with the declarations of Christ and his Apostles, a meaning must be attributed to those declarations which it would have been madness for them to have *avowed* at the time;—in short, a *hidden* meaning.

It is recorded of an ancient king of Egypt—one of the Ptolemies—that he

* See Appendix, Note (A.)

† I know not how the oppression under which the Vaudois are now suffering (see the Pamphlet referred to in the Preface) can be objected to by Protestants who hold these principles, unless they renounce altogether the rule of doing as we would be done by.

* See Essays on the Dangers, &c. pp. 210-13.

employed a celebrated architect to build a magnificent Light House, for the benefit of shipping, and ordered an inscription in honour of himself to be engraved on it; the architect, it is said, though inwardly coveting the honour of such a record for *himself*, was obliged to comply; but made the inscription on a plaster resembling stone, but of perishable substance: in the course of years this crumbled away; and the next generation saw *another* inscription, recording the name, not of the King, but of the architect, which had been secretly engraved on the durable stone below.

Now, just such a device as this is attributed to our Lord and his Apostles by those who believe them to have designed that secular power should hereafter be called in to enforce the Christian Faith, though all such designs were *apparently* disavowed, in order to serve a present purpose. According to such interpreters, "My kingdom is not of this world" was only an inscription on the perishable plaster; the design of "coercing and punishing" by secular power all opponents of the true faith was, it seems, the engraving on the stone beneath. "Render unto Cæsar the things that be Cæsar's" was but the outward part of the inscription; the addition was an inner hidden engraving, directing that Christians, when become strong enough, should compel both Cæsar and his subjects,—all Rulers and all citizens—either to acknowledge the true faith, or to forfeit their civil rights. It was the *outside* inscription only that ran thus, "Submit yourselves to every ordinance of man; * * * the powers that be are ordained of God:" the secret characters on the *stone* said, "Take care as soon as possible to make every ordinance of man submit to *you*," and to provide that none but those of your own body shall *be* in authority; and that they shall use that authority in enforcing the profession of your religion.*

It might seem incredible, did we not know it to be the fact, that persons professing a deep reverence for Christ and his Apostles as heaven-sent messengers, should attribute to them this double-dealing;—should believe them to have secretly entertained and taught the very views of which their adversaries accused them, and which they uniformly disclaimed:

* Of this subject I have treated more fully in the "Essay on Persecution," 3d Series; and in Appendix E. and F. to "Essays on the Dangers," &c., 4th Series.

that the blessed Jesus Himself, who rebukes *hypocrisy* more strongly than perhaps any other sin, should be regarded by his professed followers as having pretended to disavow that which was his real design, and which He imparted to his Apostles; teaching *them* in like manner to keep the secret till they should be strong enough to assert the political supremacy of the Gospel, and to extirpate, or hold in subjection as vassals, all professors of false religions.

All this I say, might seem hardly credible, did not daily experience show us how easily (not only in this but in other cases also) even intelligent men are satisfied with the slightest pretences of argument—with the most extravagant conclusions—when they are seeking not really for *instruction* as to what they *ought* to do, but for a *justification* of what they are *inclined* to do. Such a bias of inclination is like the magnet which is said to have been once secretly placed near a ship's compass by a traitor who purposed to deliver the crew into the enemy's hands. All their diligence and skill in working the ship, and steering by this perverted compass, served only to further them on the wrong course.

Without presuming to pronounce judgment on the general moral character of others, I cannot forbear saying, for myself, that if I could believe Jesus to have been guilty of such subterfuges as I have been speaking of, I not only could not acknowledge Him as sent from God, but should reject Him with the *deepest moral indignation*.

How far this indignant disgust may have been excited in the breasts of some who have taken for granted, on the authority of learned and zealous divines, that the interpretation I have been reprobating is to be received, and who may in consequence have *rejected Christianity* with abhorrence, it is for those who maintain such an interpretation carefully to consider.

§ 12. It is in many respects important to observe and to keep in mind, to how great an extent both an obliquity of moral judgment, and a deficiency in the reasoning-powers, will often affect, on some *one or two particular points*, a man who may be, on the whole, and in other points, where his particular prejudices have not gained dominion, a person both morally and intellectually above the average. In the present case, for instance, one may find men of much intelligence

misled by a fallacy which in the ordinary concerns of life every person of common sense would see through at once.

Was it designed, they say, that Christians should never take any part in civil affairs;—should never be magistrates or legislators, and thus partake of political power? And if this is permitted, must they not, as civil magistrates, act on Christian principles? No doubt; but they would *cease* to act on Christian principles if they should employ the *coercive power* of civil magistrates *in the cause of Christianity*; if they should not only take a part in civil affairs, but claim as Christians, or as members of a particular Church, a *monopoly* of civil rights. It is this, and this only, that tends to make Christ's kingdom "a kingdom of this world."

Now this is a distinction which in all other cases is readily perceived by every man of common sense. For instance, there are many well-known Societies in this and in most other countries, which no one would call in any degree political Societies; such as Academies for the cultivation of mathematical and other sciences,—Agricultural Societies,—Antiquarian Societies, and the like; now it would be reckoned silly even to ask respecting any one of these Societies, whether the members of it were excluded from taking any part in civil affairs, and whether a magistrate or a legislator could be admitted as a member of it. Every one would see the absurdity of even entertaining any doubt on this point: and it would be reckoned no less silly to inquire whether the admission of such persons as members, constituted that Academy a political Society. It would at once be answered that the Society itself, and the members of it *as such*, had nothing to do with political, but only with scientific matters; and that though individual members of it might be also members of the legislature, the provinces of the two Societies, *as Societies*,—of a scientific association, and a political community,—are altogether distinct.

Now this is just the non-interference in political affairs which Christ and his Apostles professed, and taught, and carried into practice, in respect of the religion of the Gospel. As the Apostle Peter converted to the Faith Cornelius the *Centurion*, so likewise Paul, who avowed his practice of "witnessing both to small and *great*,"—converted Sergius Paulus the Roman Governor at Paphos, and Dionysius the Areopagite, a judge of the

highest court at Athens; and expressed his ardent wish to convert Agrippa, and also all "who heard him that day." Yet neither Peter nor Paul ever thought of desiring the Centurion—the Governor—the Judge and the King, to lay down their offices, and renounce all concern with secular business; nor did they ever dream that their holding such offices when Christians, would make Christ's a "kingdom of this world." They wished, and they openly endeavoured, to make "the kingdoms of this world the kingdoms of the Lord,"* and "kings the nursing-fathers of the Church," in the sense of making the *individuals* of every nation members of Christ;—of inducing kings and magistrates, and subjects too, to abstain from persecuting Christians, and to *become* Christians, and to act so as to induce others to follow their example.

It has been said that this passage respecting the "kingdoms of this world becoming the kingdoms of the Lord," describes the Christian Church in its perfection, and "My kingdom is not of this world," describes it in its infancy. But what Jesus and his Apostles taught on this point, belongs, and ever did, and ever will belong, to the Christian Church in *every* stage alike; namely, that the Christian is to act, in *all* the relations in life, in whatever circumstances he is placed, on Christian principles. And what were the principles they inculcated? "Render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's:" "Render unto *all* their due; tribute to whom tribute is due; custom, to whom custom; fear, to whom fear; honour, to whom honour;" "Submit yourselves to every ordinance of man, for the Lord's sake:" "Ye must needs be subject, not only for wrath, but also for conscience' sake," &c. Never was the Christian required to do less than conform to such principles; never will he be called on to do more.

If Sergius Paulus and other converted Roman governors had consulted Paul, whether they should use their *power as Roman governors* to put down Paganism by force, or if Dionysius, after having induced (suppose) the other judges of the Areopagus to embrace the Gospel, had proposed to the Apostle that that Court should sit in judgment on religious of-

* Some Millenarians understand this prophecy as referring to a temporal reign of Christ on earth. See "Scripture Revelations of a Future State." Lect. on Millennium.

fences, and inflict penalties on all persons opposing or rejecting the true Faith, or deprive them of civil rights,—if the Apostle Paul, I say, had been *thus* consulted, what answer, think you, he would have given? What answer *must* he have given, if we believe him sincere in his professions, and if we believe his great Master to have really meant exactly what He declared? The Apostle would surely have explained to such inquirers that Christ meant the reception of his Gospel to rest on sincere inward conviction, not on constrained outward profession, which is all that legal penalties *can* produce:—that their office as governors and judges, was to take cognizance of men's *overt acts*, and to punish and restrain crimes against the civil community; but that their duty as Christians was to regulate, and try to persuade others to regulate, the inward motives and dispositions of the heart, according to Gospel principles; and to keep themselves not from *crimes* merely, but from *sins* against God; and to “exercise themselves in having themselves a conscience void of offence, before God and man,” (Acts xxiv. 16,) not in seeking to force another to speak or act against his conscience. He would not have forbidden them to take a part (as it is most fit that the laity should) in the government of the Church, or to hold any ecclesiastical or spiritual office in it; or again, to retain their civil offices: but he would have deprecated with abhorrence their blending the two classes of offices together, and attempting to employ the power of *coercion* which essentially belongs to the civil magistrate, in the cause of Christ's religion. He would have told them to strive to convert and reclaim their neighbours from superstitious error, (even as he had converted *them*) by instruction and *persuasion*; never losing sight of their great Master's rule, of doing as they would be done by; not inflicting therefore on the unbeliever the persecution which they had disapproved when directed against Christians; but leaving to every man that liberty of conscience which they desired to enjoy themselves.

Such would have been the answer, I think we cannot doubt, which the Apostles would have given to such inquirers; and which, if Peter and Paul were now on earth, they *would* give to any like questions at this day. For such surely must be the decision of any one who is convinced that Jesus Himself was perfectly sincere in the declaration He

made at his trial, and that He “left us an example, that we should follow his steps, who did no sin, neither was *guile* found in his mouth.”

§ 13. Yet if the Apostle Paul, with these sentiments, were now on earth, would there not be some danger of his being accounted a *latitudinarian*—a person nearly indifferent about religious distinctions,—regarding one religion nearly as good as another;—ready to profess any,—and believing little or nothing of any? For such is the character often attributed to any one who disapproves of the employment of secular force in behalf of the true Faith, or the monopoly by its professors, of civil rights.

That there are persons indifferent about all religions, is true; and it is true that *some* of them are, from humanity of disposition, averse to persecution and coercion. For many persons,—perhaps most,—are tolerant or intolerant according to their respective *tempers*, and not according to their *principles*. But as far as principles are concerned, certainly the latitudinarian is the more likely to be intolerant, and the sincerely conscientious tolerant. A man who is careless about religious *sincerity*, may clearly see and appreciate the political convenience of religious *uniformity*; and if he has no religious scruples of his own, he will not be the more likely to be tender of the religious scruples of others: if he is ready himself to profess what he does not believe, he will see no reason why others should not do the same.

That man on the contrary whose own conscience is tender, and his sense of religion deep-felt and sincere, will be (so far) the more disposed to respect the conscience of another, and to avoid giving occasion to hypocritical professions. His own faith being founded on genuine conviction, he will seek for the genuine conviction of others, and not their forced conformity. He will remember that “the highest truth, if professed by one who believes it not in his heart, is, to him, a lie, and that he sins greatly by professing it. Let us try as much as we will, to convince our neighbours; but let us beware of influencing their conduct, when we fail in influencing their convictions. He who bribes or frightens his neighbours into doing an act which no good man would do for reward, or from fear, is tempting his neighbour to sin; he is assisting to lower and to harden his conscience;—to make

him act for the favour or from the fear of man, instead of for the favour and from the fear of God: and if this be a sin in him, it is a double sin in us to tempt him to it.”*

And above all, in proportion as any man has a right understanding of the Gospel, and a deep veneration for his great Master, and an earnest desire to tread in his steps, and a full confidence in his promises, in the same degree will he perceive that the employment of secular coercion in the cause of the Gospel is at variance with the true spirit of the Gospel; and that Christ's declarations are to be interpreted as He himself knew them to be understood, then, and are to be the guide of his followers, now.

And finally, such a man will be convinced that it implies a sinful distrust,—

a want of faith in Christ's wisdom, and goodness, and power,—to call in the aid of the arm of flesh of military or civil force,—in the cause of Him who declared that He *could* have called in the aid of “more than twelve legions of angels;” and who, when “all power was given unto Him in Heaven and in Earth,” sent forth his disciples—not to *subjugate*, or to coerce, but to “*teach* all nations;” and “sent them forth as sheep among the wolves,” forewarned of persecutions, and instructed to “bless them that cursed them,” to return “good for evil;” and to “endure all things,—hope all things,—believe all things,” for which He, their Master, had prepared them:—to believe *all* that He had taught,—to hope *all* that He had promised, and to endure and do *all* that He had commanded.

ESSAY II.

ON THE CONSTITUTION OF A CHRISTIAN CHURCH, ITS POWERS, AND MINISTRY.

Οὐ γὰρ ἑαυτοὺς κηρύσσομεν, ἀλλὰ Χριστὸν Ἰησοῦν Κύριον ἑαυτοῦς δέ, δούλους ὑμῶν διὰ Ἰησοῦν. 2 Cor. iv. 5.

§ 1. Of all who acknowledged Jesus of Nazareth as their Master, “the Author and Finisher of their faith,” there are scarcely any who do not agree in regarding Him as the Founder and perpetual Head of a religious *Society* also;—as having instituted and designed for permanent continuance, a Community or system of Communities, to which his Disciples here on earth were to belong. The religion He introduced was manifestly designed by Him,—and so understood by his immediate followers,—to be a *social* Religion. It was not merely a revelation of certain truths to be received, and of practical rules to be observed,—it was not a mere system of doctrines and precepts to be embraced by each individual independently of others; and in which his agreement or co-operation with any others would be accidental; as when several men have come

to the same conclusions in some Science, or have adopted the same system of Agriculture or of Medicine; but it was to be a *combination* of men who should be “members of the Body of Christ,”—living stones of one Spiritual Temple; “edifying” (*i. e.* building up) “one another in their Faith;”—and brethren of one holy Family.

This “Kingdom of Heaven,” as it is called, which the Lord Jesus established, was proclaimed (*i. e.* preached)† by his forerunner, John the Baptist, as “*at hand*.” And the same, in this respect, was the preaching of our Lord Himself,

* See Sermon IV., “On a Christian Place of Worship,” and also Dr. Hinds’ “Three Temples.”

† This word has come to be ordinarily applied to religious *instruction*; from which, however, it is always clearly distinguished in Scripture. It signifies, properly, to *announce* as a *herald*. Our Lord’s “*preaching* that the Kingdom of Heaven was at hand,” and his *teaching* the People, are always expressed by different words.

and of his Disciples,—first the Twelve, and afterwards the Seventy,—whom He sent out during his ministry on earth. The good tidings they were to proclaim, were only of the *approaching* Kingdom of Heaven; it was a joyful *expectation* only that they were commissioned to spread: it was a preparation of men's hearts for the coming of that Kingdom, that they were to teach.

But when the personal ministry of Christ came to a close, the Gospel they were thenceforward to preach was the good tidings of that Kingdom not *approaching* merely, but actually *begun*,—of the first Christian Community set on foot,—of a kingdom which their Master had “*appointed* unto them:” thenceforward, they were not merely to *announce* that kingdom, but to *establish* it, and invite all men to enrol themselves in it: they were not merely to make known, but to execute, their Master's design, of commencing that Society of which He is the Head, and which He has promised to be with “*always, even unto the end of the world.*”*

We find Him, accordingly, directing them not only to “go into all the world, and preach to every creature,”† but further, to “teach” (“make disciples of,” as in the margin of the Bible) “all nations;” admitting them as members of the Body of Disciples, by “baptizing them into‡ the name of the Father, and the Son, and the Holy Ghost.”

Of his design to establish what should be emphatically a Social Religion,—a “Fellowship” or “Communion of Saints,” there can be, I think, no doubt in the

mind of any reflecting reader of our sacred books. Besides our Lord's general promise of “coming unto, and dwelling in, *any man* who should love Him and keep his saying,” there is a distinct promise also of an especial presence in any *Assembly*—even of “two or three—gathered together in his name.” Besides the general promises made to prayer,—to the prayer of an individual “in the closet,”—there is a distinct promise also to those who shall “agree together touching something they shall ask.” And it is in conformity with his own institution that Christians have, ever since, celebrated what they designate as, emphatically, the *Communion*, by “meeting together to break bread,” in commemoration of his redemption of his People.

His design, in short, manifestly was to adapt his Religion to the *social* principles of man's nature;* and to bind his disciples, throughout all ages, to each other, by those ties of mutual attachment, sympathy, and co-operation, which in every human Community and Association, of whatever kind, are found so powerful.

§ 2. Obvious, and indeed trite, as the remark may appear, most persons are apt, I think, not sufficiently to consider what important conclusions result from it;—how much is implied in the constituting of a *Community*. It is worth while, therefore, to pause at this point, and inquire what are the inherent properties and universal character naturally and necessarily belonging to any regularly-constituted society, as such, for whatever purpose formed. For I think it will appear, on a very simple examination, that several points which have been denied or disregarded by some, and elaborately, but not always satisfactorily maintained by others, arise, as obvious consequences, out of the very intrinsic character,—the universal and necessary description of a regular *community*.

It seems to belong to the very essence of a Community, that it should have—1st, *Officers* of some kind; 2dly, *Rules* enforced by some kind of penalties; and 3dly, Some power of admitting and excluding persons as *Members*.

For, 1st, whatever may be the character, and whatever the proposed objects, of a regularly-constituted Community, Officers of some kind are essential to it. In whatever manner they may be appointed,—whether by hereditary succession, or by

* It is likely that the Doxology at the end of the Lord's Prayer, “Thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory,” (which all the soundest critics, I believe, are now agreed, does not exist in the best MSS. of the Gospels,) was adopted by the Disciples very soon after our Lord's departure from earth. At the time when He first taught the prayer to his Disciples, it would have been premature to speak of the heavenly kingdom in the present tense, as actually established. They were taught to pray for its coming as a thing future. At a later period, it was no less proper to allude to it as already existing; and the prayer for its “coming” would be, from the circumstances of the case, a prayer for its continued extension and firmer hold on men's hearts.

† See a Sermon by Dr. Dickinson, (now Bishop of Meath,) on our Lord's two charges to his disciples.

‡ “In the name,” is a manifest mistranslation, originating, apparently, with the Vulgate Latin, which has “in nomine.” The preposition, in the original, is not *in* but *eis*; “into” or “to.”

* See Bampton Lectures for the year 1822, Lect. I.

rotation,—or by election of any kind,—whatever be the number or titles of them, and whatever the distribution of their functions,—(all which are matters of detail,) Officers of some kind every Community *must* have. And these, or some of these, while acting in their proper capacity, *represent* the Community; and are, so far, invested with whatever powers and rights belong to it; so that their acts, their rights, their claims, are considered as those of the whole Body. We speak, *e. g.* indifferently of this or that having been done by the Athenians, the Romans, the Carthaginians; or by the Athenian, the Roman, or Carthaginian *Government or Rulers*.* And so also when we speak of the acts of some University, or of the *Governors* of that University, we are using two equivalent expressions.

2dly. It seems equally essential to every Community that it should have certain Regulations or By-laws, binding on its own members. And if it be not wholly subjected to the control, and regulated by the directions of some extraneous power, but is in any degree an *independent* Community, it must so far have power to enact, and abrogate,—to suspend, alter, and restore by-laws, for itself; namely, such regulations, extending to matters intrinsically indifferent, as are not at variance with the enactments of any superior authority. The enforcement also of the regulations of a Community by some kind of Penalties, is evidently implied by the very existence of Regulations. To say of any Community that its Laws are valid, and binding on its members, is to say that the violators of them may justly be visited with penalties: and to recognize Officers in any Community is to recognize as among its Laws, submission to those officers while in the exercise of their legitimate functions.

In the case of *Political* Communities, which is a peculiar one, inasmuch as they necessarily exercise an *absolutely-coercive* power,—the penalties must be determined according to the wisdom and justice of each Government, and can have no other limit. But in a *voluntary* Community, the *ultimate* Penalty must be expulsion; all others, short of this, being submitted to

as the *alternative*.* But in every Community, of whatever description (or in those under whose control it is placed) there must reside a power of enacting, enforcing, and remitting, the Penalties by which due submission to its laws and to its officers is to be secured.

3dly. Lastly, no less essential to a Community seems to be a power, lodged somewhere, of determining questions of Membership. Whatever may be the claims or qualifications on which that may depend,—nay, even whether the community be a voluntary Association, or (as is the case with political Communities) one claiming compulsory power,—and whatever may be its purpose—in all cases, the admission to it, or exclusion from it, of each individual, must be determined by some recognized authority.

Since therefore this point, and also those others above-mentioned, seem, naturally and necessarily, to belong to every regular Community,—since it must, in short, consist of regularly constituted *Members*, subject to certain *Rules*, and having certain *Officers*, it follows, that whoever directs or sanctions the establishment of a Community (as our Lord certainly did in respect of Christian Churches,) must be understood as thereby sanctioning those institutions which belong to the essence of a Community. To recognize a Community as actually having a legitimate existence, or as allowably to be formed, is to recognize it as having *Officers*,—as having *Regulations* enforced by certain Penalties, and as admitting or refusing to admit *Members*.

§ 3. All this, I say, seems to be implied by the very nature of the case. But, on purpose, as it should seem, to provide against any misapprehension or uncertainty, our Lord did not stop at the mere general sanction given by Him to the formation of a Christian Community, but He also particularized all the points I have been speaking of. He appointed or ordained the first *Officers*; He recognized the power of enacting and abrogating *Rules*; and He gave authority for the admitting of *Members*.

Such is the obvious sense of his directions to his Apostles: obvious, I mean, to them,—with such habits of thought and of expression as they had, and as He must have known them to have. He must have known well what meaning his words would convey to his own countrymen, at

* And it is to be observed that it makes no difference, as to this point, whether the Governors are *elected* by the governed, and in any degree restrained by them, or are hereditary and unlimited. In all cases, the *established and recognized* Rulers of any Community are considered as *representing* it.

that time. But some things which would appear plain and obvious to a Jew,—even an unlearned Jew,—in those days, may be such as to require some examination and careful reflection to enable *us*, of a distinct Age and Country, to apprehend them in the same sense. When however we do examine and reflect, we can hardly doubt, I think,—considering to whom, and at what time, He was speaking—that our Lord did sanction and enjoin the formation of a permanent religious Community or Communities, possessing all those powers which have been above alluded to. The power of “binding and loosing;”—*i. e.* enacting and enforcing, and of abrogating or suspending regulations for a Christian Society,—was recognized by his promise* of the *divine ratification* of those acts,—the “binding and loosing in heaven.” The “Keys of the Kingdom of Heaven,” denote the power of admitting persons Members of the Church, and excluding them from it. And the expression respecting the “remitting and retaining of sins,” if it is to be understood (as I think it is) as extending to any thing beyond the power of admitting members into Christ’s Church by “Baptism for remission of sins,” must relate to the enforcement or remission of *ecclesiastical* censures for offences against a Christian Community.

By attentive reflection on the two topics I have here suggested—namely, on the rights and powers essentially inherent in a Community, and consequently implied in the very institution of a Community, so far as they are not expressly excluded; and again on the declarations of our Lord, as they must have been understood by his Disciples,—by reflection, I say, on these two topics, we shall be enabled, I think, to simplify and clear up several questions which have been sometimes involved in much artificial obscurity and difficulty.

§ 4. And our view of the sense in which our Lord’s directions are to be understood will be the more clear and decided, if we reflect that all the circumstances which have been noticed as naturally pertaining to every Community, are to be found *in that religious Community in which the Disciples had been brought up*;—the Jewish Church, or (as it is called in the Old Testament) the Congregation, or Ecclesia,† of which each Synagogue was a branch.‡ It had regular

Officers;—the Elders or Presbyters, the Rulers of Synagogues, Ministers or Deacons, &c.—it had By-laws; being not only under the Levitical Law, but also having authority, within certain limits, of *making* regulations, and enforcing them by penalties (among others, that which we find alluded to in the New Testament, of excommunicating or “casting out of the Synagogue”): and it had power to admit Proselytes.

With all these points then, the Disciples of Jesus had long been familiar. And He spoke of them in terms with which they must have been well acquainted. For instance, the expression, “binding and loosing,”* was, and still is, perfectly familiar to the Jews, in the sense of enforcing and abrogating rules; or,—which amounts precisely to the same thing,—deciding as to the manner, and the extent, in which a previously existing law is to be considered as binding: as is done by our Judges in their recorded Decisions.

The Jewish Church was indeed subject, by divine authority, to the Levitical Law. But minute as were the directions of that Law, there were still many points of detail, connected with the observance of it, which required to be settled by some competent authority: such as, for instance, what was, or was not, to be regarded as “work” forbidden on the Sabbath:—what was to be considered as “servile work,” forbidden on certain other days;—and in what way the injunctions respecting their food, their garments, the sowing of their fields, and several other matters, were to be observed.†

In regard to regulations of this kind, our Lord recognizes the authority of the Jewish Rulers, as being so far successors of Moses; for He tells his hearers, “The Scribes and Pharisees sit in Moses’ seat; all, therefore, whatsoever they bid you observe, that observe, and do.” And though He adds a caution not to “do after their works, for they say, and do not,” He does not teach that their personal demerits, or even that gross abuse of their power, which he strongly repro-

* See Lightfoot on this subject, and also Dr. Wotton’s valuable work on the Mishna.

† Those who can procure or gain access to Dr. W. Wotton’s Selections from the Mishna, will find in it much curious and interesting information relative to these and several other particulars, which throws great light on many passages of the New Testament.

* See Appendix, Note (C). † Septuagint.

‡ See Vitrina on the Synagogue.

bates, could invalidate the legitimate exercise of that power. Indeed, since there is hardly any human government that has not, at some time or other, abused, more or less, the power entrusted to it, to deny on that ground all claims whatever to submission would be the very principle of anarchy.

The Jewish Rulers went beyond their proper province, when, instead of merely making such regulations as were necessary with a view to the due observance of the Mosaic Law, they superadded, on the authority of their supposed Tradition, commandments foreign to that Law; and, still more, evasions of the spirit of it.*

Jesus accordingly censures them severely, as "teaching for doctrines the commandments of men;" and again, as "making the Word of God of none effect, by their Tradition." But still He distinctly recognizes their legitimate authority in making such regulations as were necessarily left to their determination.

§ 5. And his disciples, therefore, who have *both* of these his declarations, could not have been at any loss to understand what He meant by giving to themselves and the succeeding Officers of a Christian Church, the power to "bind and loose." He charged them to "teach every one to observe all things whatsoever He had commanded them;" promising to be "with them always, even to the end of the world;" and He also gave them the power of "binding and loosing;" saying, "whatsoever ye shall bind on earth shall be bound in heaven;" (*i. e.* ratified by the divine sanction,) "and whatsoever ye shall loose on earth, shall be loosed in heaven."

They would of course understand by this, not that they, or any of their successors, could have authority to dispense with their Master's commandments—to add to or alter the terms of Gospel salvation—to teach them, in short, *not* to "observe what He had commanded them," but to enact, from time to time, to alter, to abrogate, or to restore, regulations respecting matters of detail, not expressly determined in Scripture, but which yet *must* be determined in some way or other, with a view to the good order of the Community, and the furtherance of its great objects.

So, also, we cannot suppose they would even suspect that they, or any mortal *man*, can have "power to forgive sins,"

as against God;—that a *man* could be authorized either to absolve the impenitent, or to shut out from divine mercy the penitent; or again, to read the heart, so as to distinguish between the two, without an express inspiration in each particular case.

And this express inspiration in particular cases, whatever may have been their original expectations, they must soon have learned they were *not* to look for. They were to use their best discretion, to exercise due caution, in guarding against the admission of "false brethren"—"deceitful workers"—hypocritical pretenders to Christian faith and purity; but they had not, universally at least, any supernatural safeguard against such hypocrisy.

The example of Simon Magus would alone show this, even if there were no others to be found. He was, we find, baptized along with the other Samaritans, (Acts viii. 13,) professing, as of course he must have done, sincere repentance and devotion to Christ: and yet the Apostles find him, after this, to be still "in the gall of bitterness and in the bond of iniquity." Acts viii. 21.

But still, the Gospel or good-tidings which they were authorized and enjoined to proclaim, being most especially tidings of "remission of sins" to all who should accept the invitation made to them by the preachers of that Gospel, they might properly be said to "remit" or "retain" according as they admitted to Baptism the attentive and professedly-penitent and believing hearers, and left out of the number of the subjects of Christ's kingdom those who neglected or opposed Him.* "Repent and be baptized every one of you *for the remission of sins*" is accordingly the kind of language in which they invite their hearers every where to join the Body of their Master's People; and yet it is certain the remission of sins was *conditional only*, and dependent on a condition of which they—the Apostles themselves—had no infallible knowledge; the

* Of course, if there had been a distinct divine appointment of such a sacrament as that of Penance, as it is called (including private Confession and priestly Absolution) we should have been bound to regard that in the same light as we do the sacraments of Baptism and of the Eucharist. Without presuming to set limits to the divine favour, we feel bound to resort to, and to administer these, as appointed means of grace. But if there had *not* been that divine appointment of these sacraments, a Church would have no more authority to confer on *them* a sacramental character, than on the pretended sacrament of Penance.

* See Wotton on the Mishna.

condition being, the real sincerity of that penitence and faith which the converts *appeared* and *professed* to have.*

§ 6. But although this is the only sense in which the Apostles, or of course any of their successors in the Christian ministry, can be empowered to "forgive sins" *as against God*; i. e. though they can only pronounce and proclaim *his* forgiveness of all those who come to Him through Christ, and assure each individual of his acceptance with God, *supposing* him to be one of "those who truly repent and unfeignedly believe," yet offences, *as against a Community*, may, it is plain, be pardoned, or pardon for them withheld, *by* that Community, or by those its officers who duly represent it.

Whether our Lord intended, in what He said of "remitting and retaining sins," to include (as seems to me a probable supposition) this power of inflicting or removing *ecclesiastical censures* for transgressions of the regulations of a Society, we may be perhaps not authorized positively to conclude; but at any rate, such a power is *inherent* necessarily in every Community, so far as not expressly reserved for some superior jurisdiction: *regulations* of some sort or other, and consequently *enforcement* of those regulations by some kind of penalties, being essential to a Community, and implied in the very nature of it.

But what leads to confusion of thought in some minds is, that the same action may often have two distinct characters, according to the light in which it is viewed; whether as a *sin*† against God, or as a *crime* in reference to the Community; and hence they are sometimes led to confound together the pardoning of the *crime*—the *offence* against the Community—with the pardoning of the *sin*. Now the regularly-appointed Ministers—the Officers of a Community may be authorized to enforce or remit penalties against the ecclesiastical offence, the crime in reference to the Community; and may pronounce an *absolute* and complete pardon of a particular offender, for a particular act, on his making the requisite submission and reparation, and appearing outwardly, as far as man can judge, a proper subject for such pardon; while the pardon of sin as against God must be *conditional* on that hearty inward repentance, of

which, in each case, God only, or those to whom He may impart the knowledge, can adequately judge.

When Paul says to the Corinthians in reference* to that member of their Church who had caused a scandal by his offence, "to whomsoever ye forgive any thing, I forgive it also," though I am far from saying that the offender's sin against God was *not* pardoned, it is quite plain *this* is not what the Apostle is here speaking of. He is speaking of a case in which they and he were not merely to *announce*, but to *bestow* forgiveness. They were to receive back the offender, who had scandalized the Society, into the bosom of that Society, on his professing with sincerity, or rather *apparent* sincerity (for of that alone they could be judges) his contrition. They would, of course—as believing those his professions—cherish a confident hope that his sin against God was pardoned. But doubtless they did not pretend either to an omniscient discernment of his sincerity, or to the power either of granting divine pardon to the impenitent, or of excluding from God's mercy the repentant sinner.

§ 7. Then again, with respect to the "Keys of the Kingdom of Heaven" which our Lord promised (Matt. xvi. 19.) to give to Peter,† the Apostles could not, I

* 2 Cor. ii. 10.

† There seems good reason to believe,—though it would be most unwarrantable to make it an article of faith,—that Peter really was the chief of the Apostles; not, certainly, in the sense of exercising any supremacy and absolute control over them,—as dictating to their consciences,—as finally deciding all cases of doubt—or as claiming any right to interfere in the Churches other Apostles had founded, (See Gal. ii. 7—9 and 11—14,) but as the chief in dignity; taking precedence of the rest, and acting as President, Chairman, or Speaker in the meetings. Peter, and James, and John, and sometimes Peter, and James,—always with Peter placed foremost, were certainly distinguished, as appears from numerous passages in the Gospels, from the rest of the Apostles. He was apparently the chief Spokesman on the day of Pentecost, when the *Jewish* Believers were first called on to unite themselves into a Church; and he was the chosen instrument in founding the first Church of the ("devout") *Gentiles*, opening the door of the Kingdom of Heaven to Cornelius and his friends.

I need hardly add, that to claim on that account for Peter's supposed *successors* such supreme jurisdiction over the whole Church-universal, as he himself neither exercised nor claimed, would be most extravagant. Moreover, since whatever pre-eminence he did possess, was confessedly not conferred on him *as* Bishop of Rome, his supposed successors in that See cannot, manifestly, have any claim to *that* pre-eminence; any more than

* See Speech of Bishop Stanley in the House of Lords, May 26, 1840.

† See Warburton's Div. Leg.

conceive, doubt that He was fulfilling that promise, to Peter and to the rest of them conjointly, when He "appointed unto them a Kingdom," and when, on the day of Pentecost, He began the building of His Church, and enabled them, with Peter as their leader and chief spokesman, to open a door for the entrance of about three thousand converts at once; who received daily accessions to their number. The Apostles, and those commissioned by them, had the office of granting admission into the Society from time to time, to such as they judged qualified.*

And that this Society or Church—was "that Kingdom of Heaven" of which the keys were committed to them, and which they had before proclaimed as "at hand," they could not doubt. They could not have been in any danger of cherishing any such presumptuous dream, as that they or any one else, except their divine Master, could have power to give or refuse admittance to the mansions of immortal bliss.

On the whole then, one who reads the Scriptures with attention and with candour will be at no loss, I conceive, to ascertain what was the sense, generally, in which our Lord's Disciples would understand his directions and injunctions. Besides what is implied, naturally and necessarily, in the very institution of a Community, we know also, what the instructions were which the Disciples had already been accustomed to receive from their Master, and what was the sense they had been used from childhood to attach to the expressions He employed. And as we may be sure, I think, how *they* would understand his words, so we may be equally sure that He would not have *failed to undeceive* them, had they mistaken his real meaning; which therefore, we cannot doubt, must have been that which these Disciples apprehended.

§ 8. As for the mode in which the Apostles and other early Christian Ministers carried into effect the directions they had received, we have indeed but a few, and those generally scanty and incidental,

the successors of King William the Third, in the office of Stadtholder, could claim the English throne. And to speak of a *succession* of men as being, each, a *foundation* on which the Church is built, is not only extravagant but unmeaning.

* *οὐκ ἀποκρίνεται*, rendered in our version "such as should be saved;" by which our Translators probably meant, according to the idiom of their day, (which is the true sense of the original,) "persons entering on the road of salvation."

notices in the sacred writers; but all the notices we do find, go to confirm—if confirmation could be wanted—what has been just said, as to the sense in which our Lord must have been understood—and consequently, in which He must have *meant* to be understood—by his Disciples.

And among the important facts which we can collect and fully ascertain from the sacred historians, scanty and irregular and imperfect as are their records of particulars, one of the most important is that *very scantiness* and incompleteness in the detail; that absence of any full and systematic description of the formation and regulation of Christian Communities, that has been just noticed. For we may plainly infer, from this very circumstance, the design of the Holy Spirit, that those details, concerning which no precise directions, accompanied with strict injunctions, are to be found in Scripture, were meant to be left to the regulation of each Church, in each Age and Country. On any point in which it was designed that all Christians should be, every where, and at all times, bound as strictly as the Jews were to the Levitical Law, we may fairly conclude they would have received directions no less precise, and descriptions no less minute, than had been afforded to the Jews.

It has often occurred to my mind that the generality of even studious readers are apt, for want of sufficient reflection, to fail of drawing such important inferences as they often might, from the *omissions* occurring in any work they are perusing;—from its *not* containing such and such things relative to the subject treated of. There are many cases in which the non-insertion of some particulars which, under other circumstances, we might have calculated on meeting with, in a certain book, will be hardly less instructive than the things we do meet with.

And this is much more especially the case when we are studying works which we believe to have been composed under divine guidance. For, in the case of mere human compositions, one may conceive an author to have left out some important circumstances, either through error of judgment, or inadvertency, or from having written merely for the use of a particular class of readers in his own time and country, without any thought of what might be necessary information for persons at a distance and in after ages; but we cannot, of course, attribute to any such causes omissions in the *inspired* Writers.

On no supposition whatever can we account for the omission, by all of them, of many points which they do omit, and of their scanty and slight mention of others, except by considering them as withheld by the express design and will (whether *communicated* to each of them or not) of their Heavenly Master, restraining them from committing to writing many things which, naturally, some or other of them, at least, would not have failed so to record.

I have set forth accordingly, in a distinct Treatise,* these views respecting the *Omissions* in the Sacred Books of the New Testament, and the important inferences thence to be deduced. We seek in vain there for many things which, humanly speaking, we should have most surely calculated on finding. "No such thing is to be found in our Scriptures as a Catechism, or regular *Elementary Introduction* to the Christian Religion; nor do they furnish us with any thing in the nature of a systematic Creed, set of Articles, Confession of Faith, or by whatever other name one may designate a regular, complete Compendium of Christian doctrines: nor, again, do they supply us with a Liturgy for ordinary Public Worship, or with Forms for administering the Sacraments, or for conferring Holy Orders; nor do they even give any precise *directions* as to these and other ecclesiastical matters;—any thing that at all corresponds to a Rubric, or set of Canons."

Now these omissions present, as I have, in that Treatise, endeavoured to show, a complete moral demonstration that the Apostles and their followers must have been *supernaturally withheld* from recording great part of the institutions, instructions, and regulations, which must, in point of fact, have proceeded from them; withheld, *on purpose* that other Churches, in other ages and regions, might not be led to consider themselves bound to adhere to several formularies, customs, and rules, that were of local and temporary appointment; but might be left to their own discretion in matters in which it seemed best to divine wisdom that they should be so left.†

§ 9. With respect to one class of those points that have been alluded to, it is probable that one cause—humanly speaking—why we find in the Sacred Books

less information concerning the Christian Ministry and the Constitution of Church Governments than we otherwise might have found, is that these institutions had less of *novelty* than some would at first sight suppose, and that many portions of them did not wholly originate with the Apostles. It appears highly probable—I might say morally certain*—that wherever a Jewish Synagogue existed that was brought,—the whole or the chief part of it,—to embrace the Gospel, the Apostles did not, there, so much *form* a Christian Church, (or Congregation; † Ecclesia,) as *make an existing Congregation Christian*; by introducing the Christian Sacraments and Worship, and establishing whatever regulations were requisite for the newly adopted faith; leaving the machinery (if I may so speak) of government unchanged; the Rulers of Synagogues, Elders, and other Officers (whether spiritual or ecclesiastical, or both) being already provided in the existing institutions. And it is likely, that several of the earliest Christian Churches did originate in this way; that is, that they were *converted synagogues*; which *became* Christian Churches as soon as the members, or the main part of the members, acknowledged Jesus as the Messiah.

The attempt to effect this conversion of a Jewish Synagogue into a Christian Church, seems always to have been made, in the first instance, in every place where there was any opening for it. Even after the call of the idolatrous Gentiles, it appears plainly to have been the practice of the Apostles Paul and Barnabas,‡ when

* See Lightfoot, Appendix, Note (C.)

† The word "*Congregation*," as it stands in our Version of the Old Testament, (and it is one of very frequent occurrence in the Books of Moses,) is found to correspond, in the Septuagint, which was familiar to the New Testament writers, to Ecclesia; the word which, in our version of these last, is always rendered—not "*Congregation*," but "*Church*." This, or its equivalent "*Kirk*," is probably no other than "*circle*;" i. e. Assembly, Ecclesia.

‡ These seem to be the first who were employed in converting the *idolatrous* Gentiles to Christianity,* and their first considerable harvest among these seems to have been at Antioch in Pisidia, as may be seen by any one who attentively reads the 13th chapter of Acts. Peter was sent to Cornelius, a "*devout*" Gentile,—one of those who had renounced idolatry and frequented the Synagogues. And these seem to have been regarded by him as in an especial manner his particular charge. His Epistles appear to have been addressed to them; as may be seen both by the general tenor of his ex-

* Essay VI., First Series. See Appendix, Note (D.)

† See Appendix, Note (D.)

* See Barrington's *Miscellanea Sacra*.

they came to any city in which there was a Synagogue, to go thither first and deliver their sacred message to the Jews and "devout (or proselyte) Gentiles;"—according to their own expression, (Acts xiii. 16,) to the "men of Israel and those that feared God:" adding, that it was necessary that the Word of God should first be preached to them."

And when they found a church in any of those cities in which (and such were, probably, a very large majority) there was no Jewish Synagogue that received the Gospel, it is likely they would still conform, in a great measure, to the same model.

But though, as has been said, the circumstance just mentioned was probably the cause—humanly speaking—why some particulars are not recorded in our existing Sacred Books, which otherwise we might have found there, still, it does seem to me perfectly incredible on any supposition but that of supernatural interference, that neither the Apostles nor any of their many followers should have committed to writing any of the multitude of particulars which we do *not* find in Scripture, and concerning which we are perfectly certain the Apostles did give instructions, relative to Church-Government, the Christian Ministry, and Public Worship. When we consider how large a portion of the churches and of the ministers were Gentiles, and strangers to the constitution of Jewish Synagogues, and also how much was introduced that was new and strange, even to Jewish Christians (as well as highly important)—the Christian Sacrament being wholly new, and the prayers in a great measure so—we may judge how great a number of particular directions must have been indispensably necessary for all; directions which it would have been natural, humanly speaking, for the Apostles or their attendants to have recorded in writing; and which, if it had not been done, would naturally have been so recorded by the persons to whom they were delivered. "Suppose we could make out the possibility or probability, of Paul's having left no Creed, Catechism, or Canons, why have we none from the pen of Luke, or of Mark? Suppose this also explained, why did not

pressions,* and especially in the opening address; which is not (as would appear from our Version) to the dispersed *Jews*, but to the "sojourners of the dispersion *παρασκήνω: διασπορά, e. e. the devout Gentiles living among the* "Dispersion"

John or Peter supply the deficiency? And why again did none of the numerous bishops and presbyters whom they ordained, undertake the work under their direction?"* "And that there is nothing in the Christian Religion considered in itself, that stands in the way of such a procedure, is plain from the number of works of this description which have appeared from the earliest times, (*after the age of inspiration*.) down to the present; from the writings entitled the 'Apostles' Creed,' and the 'Apostolical Constitution,' &c. (compositions of uncertain authors, and, amidst the variety of opinions respecting them, never regarded as Scripture) down to the modern Formularies and Confessions of Faith. Nor again can it be said that there was any thing in the *founders* of the religion, any more than in the religion itself, which, humanly speaking, should seem likely to preclude them from transmitting to us such compositions. On the contrary, the Apostles, and the rest of the earlier preachers of Christianity, were brought up Jews; accustomed in their earliest notions of religion, to refer to the Books of the Law, as containing precise statements of their Belief, and most minute directions as to religious worship and ceremonies. So that to give complete and regular instructions as to the character and the requisitions of the new religion as it would have been natural, for any one, was more especially to be expected of these men.†

We are left then, and indeed unavoidably led, to the conclusion, that in respect of these points the Apostles and their followers were, during the age of inspiration, supernaturally withheld from recording those circumstantial details which were not intended by divine Providence to be absolutely binding on all Churches, in every Age and Country, but were meant to be left to the discretion of each particular Church.‡

§ 10. The absence of such detailed descriptions and instructions as I have been adverting to, is the more striking when contrasted with the earnest and frequent inculcations we do meet with, of the great fundamental Gospel doctrines and moral duties, which are dwelt upon in so many passages, both generally, and in reference

* Essay on Omissions, p. 19.

† Essay on Omissions, pp. 7, 8.

‡ See some valuable remarks on this subject, in a pamphlet by Dean Hoare, entitled "Letters on the Tendency and Principles advocated in the 'Tracts for the Times.'"

to various classes of persons, and various occasions. Our sacred writers have not recorded their Creeds,—their Catechisms for the elementary instruction of converts,—their forms of Public Prayer and Psalmody,—or their modes of administering the Sacraments;—they have not even described the posture in which the Eucharist was received, or the use of leavened or unleavened bread; (two points on which, in after ages, bitter controversies were raised,) nor many other things which we are certain Paul (as well as the other Apostles) “set in order, when he came” to each Church.

But, on the other hand, it is plainly recorded that they did establish Churches wherever they introduced the Gospel; that they ordained elders in every city,” and the Apostles again delegated that office to others; that they did administer the rite of Baptism to their converts; and that they celebrated the communion of the Lord’s Supper. And besides the general principles of Christian Faith and Morality which they sedulously set forth, they have recorded the most earnest exhortations to avoid “confusion”* in their public worship; to do “all things decently and in order;” to “let all things be done to edifying;” and not for vain-glorious display; they inculcate the duty of Christians “assembling themselves together” for joint worship; they† record distinctly the solemn sanction given to a Christian Community; they inculcate‡ due reverence and obedience to those that “bear rule” in such a community, with censure of such as walk “disorderly” and “cause divisions;” and they dwell earnestly on the care with which Christian Ministers, both male and female, should be selected, and on the zeal, and discretion, and blameless life required in them, and on their solemn obligation to “exhort, rebuke, and admonish:” yet with all this, they do not record even the number of distinct orders of them, or the functions appropriated to each, or the degree, and kind, and mode of control they exercised in the Churches.

While the *principles*, in short, are clearly recognized, and strongly inculcated, which Christian Communities and individual members of them are to keep in mind and act upon, with a view to the great objects for which these Communities were established, the *precise modes*

in which these objects are, in each case, to be promoted, are left,—one can hardly doubt, studiously left—undefined.

§ 11. Many of the omissions I have alluded to, will appear even the more striking in proportion as we contemplate with the more minute attention each part of the sacred narrative. For instance, it is worth remarking that the matters concerning which the Apostle Paul’s Epistles do contain the most detailed directions, are most of them precisely those which every one perceives to have relation only to the times in which he wrote; such as the eating or abstaining from “meats offered to idols,” and the use and abuse of supernatural gifts. He was left, it should seem, *unrestrained* in recording—and hence he does record,—particular directions in *those cases where there was no danger* of those his directions being applied in *all Ages and Countries*, as binding on *every Church for ever*. Again, almost every attentive reader must have been struck with the circumstance, that there is no such description on record of the first appointment of the higher Orders of Christian Ministers as there is (in Acts vi.) of the ordination of the *inferior* Class, the Deacons. And this consideration alone would lead a reflecting mind to conclude, or at least strongly suspect, that the particular notice of this appointment of Deacons is *incidental* only, and that probably there would have been as little said of these, as of the Presbyters, but for the circumstance of the extraordinary effect produced by two of these Deacons, Stephen and Philip, as preachers: the narrative of their appointment being a natural, and almost necessary, introduction to that of two most important events, the great outbreak of persecution consequent on Stephen’s martyrdom (which seems to have led, through the dispersion of the Disciples, to the founding of the first purely Gentile Church, at Antioch,* and the conversion of Samaria.

But this conclusion is greatly strengthened, when, on a closer examination, we find reason to be convinced that these, so-called, first seven Deacons, who are usually assumed (for I never met with even any attempt at proof) to have been the first that ever held such an office, were, in reality, only the first Grecian†

* See Encyclop. Metrop. (Ecclesiastical History) on the designation of Christians first given to the Disciples at that place.

† Hellenist, or “Grecian,” is the term constantly used for the *Jews* who used the Greek

* 1 Cor. and 1 Tim. † Heb. x. 25.

‡ See Hebrews and Timothy.

Deacons, and that there were *Hebrew* Deacons before.

The following extract from an able Article in the *Encyclopædia Metropolitana* on Ecclesiastical History, will make this point, I think, perfectly clear.

"Meanwhile within the Church itself were displayed some slight symptoms of discontent, which deserve to be noticed particularly, on account of the measure to which they gave rise. The complaint is called 'a murmuring of the Grecians (or foreign Jews) against the Hebrews, (or native Jews,) because their widows were neglected in the daily ministration.' Who these widows probably were has already been suggested; and if the suggestion, that they were deaconesses, be admitted, the grounds of the complaint may be readily surmised. As the greater share of duty would at this time devolve on the Hebrew widows or deaconesses, they might have been paid more liberally, as their services seemed to require; and hence the discontent.

"This, it is true, supposes that the order of deacons and deaconesses already existed, and may seem at first to contradict the statement of St. Luke, that in consequence of this murmuring, deacons were appointed. It does not, however, really contradict it; for evidently some *dispensers* there must have been, and if so, either the Apostles must have officiated as deacons, or special deacons there must have been, by whatever name they went. That the Apostles did not officiate, is plain from the tenor of the narrative, which indicates that the appeal was made to them, and that they excused themselves from presiding personally at the 'ministration,' (as was probably desired by the discontented party,) alleging that it was incompatible with their proper duties. 'It is not reason that we should *leave the word of God*, and serve tables.' This very assertion, then, is proof certain that they did not officiate. Again, on reading over the names of the seven deacons, we find them all of the Grecian or Hellenistic party; Stephen, Philip, Prochorus, Nicanor, Timon, Parmenas, and Nicolas, the last of whom is expressly described as 'a proselyte of Antioch.' Now this surely would have produced, in turn, a murmuring of the Hebrews against the

Grecians, unless they had *already* had some in office interested in looking after their rights. With these presumptions in favour of a previous appointment of deacons, it would seem then, that these seven were *added* to the former number, because of the complaint.

"All that is thus far intimated of their office is, that they were employed in the daily distribution of the alms and the stipends due from the public fund. Whether, even at the first, their duties were limited to this department of *service*, may be reasonably doubted. Of this portion of their duties we are now informed; obviously, because to the unsatisfactory mode in which this had been hitherto performed it was owing, that the new appointment took place, and that the subject was noticed at all. It is, however, by no means improbable, that the young men who carried out the dead bodies of Ananias and Sapphira, and who are described as 'ready' in attendance, were of the same order; in other words, deacons by office, if not by name. What may serve to confirm this view of it is, the opposition between what would seem to have been their original title, and another order in the Church. They are called 'juniors' and 'young men,' (*νῦντες οἱ νεανίσκοι*,) terms so strongly opposed to presbyters or elders as to incline one at the first glance to consider them as expressive of the two orders of the ministry, the seniors and the juniors, (the *πρεσβύτεροι διάκονοι* and the *νῦντες οἱ διάκονοι*;) the two orders, in short, which at length received the fixed and perpetual titles of presbyters and deacons.

"Accordingly, there is no just ground for supposing, that when the same term deacon occurs in the Epistles of St. Paul, a different order of men is intended: first, because an office may preserve its original name long after the duties originally attached to it have been changed; and, secondly, because, whatever duties may have been added to the office of deacons, it is certain that the duty of attending to the poor was for several centuries attached to it. Even after the deacons ceased to hold the office of treasurers, and the Bishops began to receive the revenues of their respective sees, the distribution of that portion which was allotted to charity still passed through the hands of the deacons. Hence, in a still later period, the title of cardinal deacon; and hence, too, the appropriation of the term *diaconia* to those Churches wherein alms

used to be collected and distributed to the poor.

“Not that it is possible to point out, with any thing like precision, the course of duty which belonged to the primitive deacons. That it corresponded entirely with that of our present order of deacons is very unlikely, whatever analogy be allowed from their relative situation in the Church. As the Church during the greater part of the first century was a shifting, and progressive institution, their duties probably underwent continual change and modification. If we were to be guided, for instance, by the office in which we find the ‘young men,’ (νεανίσκοι,) engaged, when the dead bodies of Ananias and Sapphira were removed, we should say that they performed the business which in the present day would devolve on the inferior attendants of our churches. If, again, we were to judge of their character from the occasion on which we find them acting as stewards of the Church fund, a higher station would be doubtless assigned to them, but still, one not more nearly connected with the ministry of the word, nor approaching more to the sphere of duty which belongs to our deacons. On the other hand, the instances of Stephen and Philip prove, that the title was applied to those who were engaged in the higher departments of the ministry, although not in the highest.

“After all, it is most likely that the word deacon was originally applied, as its etymology suggests, to all the *ministers* of the Gospel establishment. But the Apostles having from the first a specific title, it more properly denoted any minister inferior to them,—any, however employed in the *service* of the Church. Between these, also, there soon obtained a distinction. If we suppose, then, that the *seniors*, or superior class, were distinguished by the obvious title of Elder deacons, (πρεσβύτεροι δίακονοι,) the generic and unappropriated term ‘*deacon*’ would devolve on the remaining class. And thus the present Order in the Church, to which that name is applied, may be truly asserted to be deacons in the apostolical and primitive sense of the word; and yet, nevertheless, much may be said about deacons, both in the New Testament and in the writings of the early fathers, which will not apply to them.”

If any one should be disposed to think it a question of small moment whether Stephen and his companions were or were not the first Deacons ever appointed let

him consider that, however unimportant in itself, it is one which throws much additional light on the subject now before us. We not only find few and scanty records of those details of the Church-government established by the Apostles, which, if they had designed to leave a model absolutely binding on all Christians for ever, we might have expected to find fully and clearly particularized, but also we find that a part even of what the inspired writers do record, is recorded incidentally only, for the elucidation of the rest of the narrative; and not in pursuance of any design to give a detailed statement of such particulars. Thus a further confirmation is furnished of the view that has been taken; viz., that it was the plan of the Sacred Writers to lay down clearly the *principles* on which Christian Churches were to be formed and governed, leaving the mode of application of those principles undetermined and discretionary.

§ 12. Now what did the Holy Spirit design us to learn from all this? In the first place “he that hath ears to hear” may draw from it, as has been already observed, a strong internal evidence of the genuineness and of the inspired character of our Sacred Books; inasmuch as they do not contain what would surely have been found in the works of men (whether impostors or sincere) left to themselves to record whatever seemed interesting and important.

And this point of evidence presents itself to the mind at once, before we have even begun to inquire into the particular object proposed in the omission; because we may be sure, in this case, that what did *not* come from Man must have come from God.*

But besides this we may fairly infer, I think, that what is *essential* is to be found clearly laid down in Scripture; and that those points which are either wholly passed over in silence, (when they are such that we are certain from the nature of the case, the Apostles must have given *some* directions relative to them,) or are slightly mentioned, imperfectly described, and incidentally alluded to, must belong to the class of things either altogether indifferent, or so far non-essential in their character that “it is not necessary (as our 34th Article expresses it) they should be in all places one and utterly alike;”—such in short that divine wisdom judged it best they should be left to the discre-

* See Appendix, Note (E.)

tion of each Church in each Age and Country,* and should be determined according to the *principles* which had been distinctly laid down by divine authority; while the *application* of those principles in particular cases was left (as is the case with our moral conduct also†) to the responsible judgment of Man.

It was designed in short that a Church should have (as our 34th Article expresses it) “authority to ordain, change, and abolish ceremonies and rites resting on Man’s authority only:” (this, be it observed, including things which may have been enjoined by the Apostles *to those among whom they were living*, and which, *to those persons*, had a divine authority; but which are not recorded by the sacred writers as enjoined *universally*) “so that all things be done to edifying:” but that “as no Church ought to decree any thing *against* Holy Writ, *so besides* the same ought it not to enforce the belief of any thing as necessary to salvation.”

§ 13. And we may also infer very clearly from an attentive and candid survey of the Sacred Writings, not only that some things were intended to be absolutely enjoined as essential, and others left to the discretion of the rulers of each Church, but also that some things, again, were absolutely *excluded*, as inconsistent with the character of a Christian Community.

It is very important therefore, and, to a diligent, and reflective, and unprejudiced reader, not difficult,—by observing that the Sacred Writers have omitted, and what they have mentioned, and in what manner they have mentioned each, to form in his mind distinctly the three classes just alluded to: viz., 1st, of things essential to Christianity, and *enjoined* as universally requisite; 2dly, those left to the *discretion* of the governors of each Church; and 3dly, those *excluded* as *inconsistent* with the character of the Gospel religion.

These last points are not least deserving of a careful examination; especially on account of the misconceptions relative to them, that have prevailed and still prevail, in a large portion of the Christian World. It would lead me too far from the subject now immediately under consideration, to enter into a full examination of all the features that are to be found in most religions except the Christian, and

which might have been expected to appear in that, supposing it of human origin; but which are expressly excluded from it. It may be worth while however to advert to a few of the most remarkable.

The Christian Religion, then, arose, be it remembered, among a People who not only looked for a temporal Deliverer and Prince in their Messiah, but who had been accustomed to the sanction of temporal rewards and judgments to the divine Law;*—whose Laws, in religious and in secular matters alike, claimed to be an immediate revelation from Heaven—whose civil Rulers were regarded as delegates from “the Lord their God, who was their king,” and were enjoined to punish with death, as a revolt from the Supreme Civil Authority,—as a crime of the character of high-treason,—any departure from the prescribed religion. It arose in a Nation regarding themselves as subjects of a “Kingdom of God” that *was*, emphatically, a kingdom of this world: and its most prominent character was its being “a Kingdom *not* of this world;” it was in all respects the very reverse in respect of the points just mentioned, of what *might* have been expected, humanly speaking, from Jewish individuals, and of what *was* expected by the Jewish Nation; and it may be added, of what many Christians have in every Age laboured to represent and to make it. While the mass of his own People were seeking “to take Jesus by force to make Him a king,” (a procedure which has been, virtually, imitated by a large proportion of his professed followers ever since) He Himself and his Apostles, uniformly and sedulously, both in their precepts, and in their conduct, rejected, as alien from the character of the Gospel, all employment of secular coercion in behalf of their religion,—all encroachments on “the things that be Cæsar’s;” and maintained the purely spiritual character of that “Kingdom of Heaven” which they proclaimed.

On this, every way most important point, I have treated at large in the first Essay in this volume, and also, in the Essay on Persecution, (3d Series,) and the Essays on the Dangers to Christianity, (4th Series.)

§ 14. Moreover the Gospel religion was introduced by men, and among men—whether Jews or Gentiles,—who had

* See Appendix, Note (F.)

† Essay on Abolition of Law. Second Series.

* See Essay I., 1st Series: “On the Peculiarities,” &c. And also Discourse “On National Blessings.”

never heard of or conceived such a thing as a religion without a Sacrificing *Priest*, without Altars for *Sacrifice*,—without *Sacrifices* themselves,—without either a *Temple*, or at least some High Place, Grove, or other sacred spot answering to a Temple;—some place, that is, in which the Deity worshipped was supposed more especially to dwell.*

The Apostles preached, for the first time—the first both to Jew and Gentile—a religion quite opposite in all these respects to all that had ever been heard of before:—a religion without any Sacrifice but that offered up by its Founder in his own person;—without any sacrificing Priest (Hierus)† except Him, the great and true High Priest,‡ and consequently with no Priest (in that sense) on Earth; except so far as every one of the worshippers was required to present himself as a “living Sacrifice, holy, acceptable to God;”§ and a religion without any Temple, except the collected Congregation of the Worshippers themselves.||

Let any one but contemplate the striking contrast between the confined—the local character—of the Mosaic system, and the character of boundless extension stamped on the Gospel of Christ. “In the place which the Lord shall choose” (says Moses**) “to set his Name therein, there shalt thou offer thy Sacrifices.” “The hour cometh” (says Jesus††) “when men shall neither on this mountain, nor yet at Jerusalem, worship the Father;” “whosoever two or three are gathered together in my name, there am I in the midst of them.”‡‡ “In his Temple” (says the Psalmist;§§ *i. e.* in his temple at Jerusalem) “doth every one speak of his glory;” “there will I” (Jehovah) “dwell, for I have a delight therein.” “Ye are the Temple” (says the Apostle Paul) “of the Holy Ghost, which dwelleth in you.”|||

Now all this is deserving of attentive

* Hence the name of Ναός from ναύω, “to dwell.” See Hinds’ “Three Temples.”

† See Discourse “On the Christian Priesthood,” appended to Bampton Lectures.

‡ Hebrews, ch. iv.

§ Rom. xii. This offering the Apostle calls *βυσίαν ζωαν*, “a living Sacrifice,” as distinguished from the *slain* animals offered up in other religions; and also *λογικὴ λατρεία*, “a reasonable (*i. e.* rational) service,” as opposed to the *irrational* animals slain on the altars.

|| I have treated of this point in one of a volume of Discourses delivered in Dublin.

** Deut. xii. †† John iv. ‡‡ Matt. xviii.

§§ Ps. xxix. || 1 Cor. iii.

reflection, both as important in reference to a right knowledge of the true character of the religion of the Gospel, and also as furnishing a strong internal evidence as to its origin. For not only is it inconceivable that any impostor or enthusiast would have ever *devised* or dreamed of any thing both so strange, and so unacceptable, as must have seemed, in those days, a religion without Priest, Altar, Sacrifice, or Temple, (in the sense in which men had always been accustomed to them;) but also it is no less incredible that any persons, unaided by miraculous powers, should have *succeeded*—as the Apostles did—in propagating such a religion.

But what is most to our present purpose to remark is, that the Sacred Writers did not *omit* the mention of these things, and leave it to the discretion of each Church to introduce them or not; but they plainly appear to have distinctly *excluded* them. It is not that they made little or no mention of Temples, Sacrifices, and sacrificing Priests; they mention them and allude to them, perpetually; as existing, in the ordinary sense of the terms, among the Jews, and also among the Pagans; and again, they also perpetually mention and allude to them in reference to the religion of the Gospel, invariably, and manifestly, *in a different sense*. Jesus Christ, as the Christian Priest, and Christian Sacrifice,—Christians themselves as “living Sacrifices,”—the sacrifice of beneficence to the Poor,*—the Temple composed of the Christian Worshippers themselves; who are exhorted to “build up” (or edify, οἰκοδομεῖν) one another, as “living stones”† of the Temple of the Holy Ghost;—all these are spoken of and alluded to continually; while, in the primary and customary sense, the same terms are perpetually used by the same writers, in reference to the Jewish and to the Pagan religions, and never to the Christian.

I cannot well conceive any proof more complete than is here afforded, that Christ and his Apostles intended distinctly to exclude and forbid, as inconsistent with his religion, those things which I have been speaking of. It being the natural and inherent office of any Community to make by-laws for its own regulation, *where not restricted by some higher Authority*, these points are precisely those which come under that restriction; being distinctly ex-

* “To do good and to distribute, forget not, for with such sacrifices, (*βυσίαις*) God is well pleased.”

† 1 Peter ii. 5, &c.

cluded by the Founder and Supreme Governor of the Universal Church, is inconsistent with the character of his religion.

It is not a little remarkable, therefore,—though in other matters also experience shows the liability of men to maintain at once opposite errors,—that the very persons who are for restricting within the narrowest limits,—or rather, indeed, annulling altogether,—the natural right of a Community to make and alter by-laws in matters not determined by a superior authority, and who deny that any Church is at liberty to depart, even in matters left wholly undecided in Scripture, from the supposed,—or even conjectured—practice of the Apostles, these very persons are found advocating the introduction into Christianity of practices and institutions not only unauthorized, but plainly excluded, by its inspired promulgators;—such as Sacrifices and sacrificing Priests; thus, at once, denying the rights which do belong to a Christian Community, and asserting those which do not; at once fettering the Church by a supposed obligation to conform strictly to some supposed precedents of antiquity, and boldly casting off the obligation to adhere to the plainest injunctions of God's written word. "Full well do ye reject the commandment of God, that ye may keep your own tradition.*"

§ 15. Among the things excluded from the Christian system, we are fully authorized to include all subjection of the Christian World, permanently, and from generation to generation, to some one Spiritual Ruler (whether an individual man or a Church) the delegate, representative and vicegerent of Christ; whose authority should be binding on the conscience of all, and decisive on every point of faith. Jesus Himself, who told his Disciples that it was "expedient for them that He should go away, that He might send them another Comforter, who should abide with them for ever," could not possibly have failed, had such been his design, to refer them to the man, or Body of men, who should, in perpetual succession, be the depository of this divine consolation and supremacy. And it is wholly incredible that He Himself should be perpetually spoken of and alluded to as the Head of his Church, without any reference to any supreme Head on Earth, as fully representing Him and bearing universal rule in his name,—whether Peter

or any other Apostle, or any successor of one of these,—this, I say, is utterly incredible, supposing the Apostles or their Master had really designed that there should be for the universal Church any institution answering to the oracle of God under the Old Dispensation, at the Tabernacle or the Temple.

The Apostle Paul, in speaking of miracles as "the signs of an Apostle," evidently implies that no one not possessing such miraculous gifts as his,* much less, without possessing any at all,—could be entitled to be regarded as even on a level with the Apostles; yet he does not, by virtue of that his high office, claim for himself, or allow to Peter or any other, supreme rule over all the Churches.† And while he claims and exercises the right to decide authoritatively on points of faith and of practice on which he had received express revelations, he does not leave his converts any injunction to apply, hereafter, when he shall be removed from them, to the Bishop, or Rulers of any other Church, for such decisions; or to any kind of permanent living Oracle to dictate to all Christians in all Ages. Nor does he even ever hint at any subjection of one Church to another, singly, or to any number of others collectively;—to that of Jerusalem, for instance, or of Rome; or to any kind of general Council.

It appears plainly from the sacred narrative, that though the many Churches which the Apostles founded were branches of one *Spiritual* Brotherhood, of which the Lord Jesus Christ is the Heavenly Head,—though there was "one Lord, one Faith, one Baptism," for all of them, yet they were each a distinct, independent community *on Earth*, united by the common principles on which they were founded, and by their mutual agreement, affection and respect; but not having any one recognized Head on Earth, or acknowledging any sovereignty of one of these Societies over others.‡

And as for—so-called—General Councils, we find not even any mention of them, or allusion to any such expedient. The pretended first Council, at Jerusalem,

* 1 Cor. xiv. 18. † Gal. ii. 7—9.

‡ Generally speaking, the Apostles appear to have established a distinct Church in each considerable city; so that there were several even in a single Province; as for instance, in Macedonia, those of Philippi, Thessalonica, Berea, Amphipolis, &c.; and the like in the Province of Achaia and elsewhere.

* Mark vii. 9.

does seem to me* a most extraordinary chimera, without any warrant whatever from Sacred History. We find in the narrative, that certain persons, coming from Jerusalem to Antioch, endeavoured to impose on the Gentile converts the yoke of the Mosaic Law; pretending—as appears plainly from the context†—to have the sanction of the Apostles for this. Nothing could be more natural than the step which was thereupon taken—to send a deputation to Jerusalem, to inquire whether these pretensions were well founded. The Apostles, in the midst of an Assembly of the Elders (or Clergy, as they would now be called) of Jerusalem, decided that no such burden ought to be imposed, and that their pretended sanction had not been given. The Church at Jerusalem, even independently of the Apostles, had of course power to decide this last point; *i. e.* to declare the fact whether they had or had not given the pretended sanction: and the Apostles, confessedly, had plenary power to declare the will of the Lord Jesus. And the deputation, accordingly, retired satisfied. There is no hint, throughout, of any summons to the several Churches in Judea and Galilee, in Samaria, Cyprus, Cyrene, &c., to send deputations, as to a general Council; nor any assumption of a right in the Church of Jerusalem, as such, to govern the rest, or to decide on points of faith.

It is worth remarking also, that, as if on purpose to guard against the assumption, which might, not unnaturally, have taken place, of some supremacy—such as no Church was designed to enjoy,—on the part of Jerusalem, the fountain-head of the religion, it was by the *special appointment* of the Holy Spirit that Saul and Barnabas were *ordained* to the very highest office, the Apostleship, *not* by the hands of the other Apostles, or of any person at Jerusalem, but by the *Elders of Antioch*. This would have been the less remarkable had *no human* ordination at all taken place, but merely a special immediate appointment of them by divine revelation. But the command given was, “separate me . . . let them go.”‡ Some reason for such a procedure there must have been; and it does seem probable that it was designed for the very purpose (among others) of impressing on men’s

minds the independence and equality of the several Churches on Earth.

On the whole, then, considering in addition to all these circumstances, the number and the variety of the Epistles of Paul, (to say nothing of those of the other Apostles,) and the deep anxiety he manifests for the continuance of his converts in the right faith, and his earnest warnings of them* against the dangers to their faith, which he foresaw; and considering also the incalculable importance of such an institution (supposing it to exist) as a permanent living Oracle and supreme Ruler of the Church, on Earth; and the necessity of pointing it out so clearly that no one could possibly, except through wilful blindness and obstinacy, be in any doubt as to the place and persons whom the Lord should have thus “chosen to cause his name to dwell” therein—especially, as a plain reference to this infallible judge, guide, and governor, would have been so obvious, easy, short, and decisive a mode of guarding against the doubts, errors, and dissensions which he so anxiously apprehended; considering, I say, all this, it does seem to me a perfect moral impossibility, that Paul and the other sacred writers should have written, as they have done, without any mention or allusion to any thing of the kind, if it had been a part (and it must have been a most *essential* part, if it were any) of the Christian System. They do not merely omit all reference to any supreme and infallible Head and Oracle of the Universal Church, —to any Man or Body as the representative and Vicegerent of Christ, but they omit it in such a manner, and under such circumstances, as plainly to amount to an exclusion.

It may be added that the circumstance of our Lord’s having *deferred* the Commencement of his Church till after his own *departure* in bodily person from the Earth, seems to have been designed as a further safeguard against the motion I have been alluding to. Had He publicly presided in bodily person subsequently to the completion of the Redemption by his death, over a Church in Jerusalem or elsewhere, there would have been more plausibility in the claim to *supremacy* which might have been set up and admitted, on behalf of that Church, and of his own successors in the Government of it. His previously withdrawing, made it

* See Burnet on Article 21. † Acts. xv. 24.

‡ Acts xiii. 2, 3.

* Acts xx.

the more easily to be understood that He was to remain the spiritual Head in Heaven, of the spiritual Church universal; and consequently of all particular Churches, equally, in all parts of the world.

§ 16. This therefore, and the other points just mentioned, must be regarded as *negatively* characteristic of the Christian religion, no less than it is positively characterized by those truths and those enactments which the inspired Writers lay down as essential. Their prohibitions in the one case are as plain as their injunctions in the other.

There is not indeed any systematic enumeration of the several points that are excluded as inconsistent with the character of the religion; answering to the prohibition of Idolatry in the Decalogue, the enumeration of forbidden meats, and other such enactments of the Levitical Law. But the same may be said no less of the affirmative directions also that are to be found in the New Testament. The fundamental doctrines and the great moral principles of the Gospel are there taught,—for wise reasons no doubt, and which I think we may in part perceive,* not in creeds or other regular formularies, but incidentally, irregularly, and often by oblique allusions; less striking indeed at first sight than distinct enunciations and enactments, but often even the more decisive and satisfactory from that very circumstance; because the Apostles frequently allude to some truth as not only essential, but indisputably admitted, and familiarly *known* to be essential by those they were addressing.†

On the whole then, I cannot but think an attentive and candid inquirer, who brings to the study of Scripture no extraordinary learning or acuteness, but an unprejudiced and docile mind, may ascertain with reasonable certainty, that there are points—and what those points are—which are insisted on by our sacred writers as *essential*; and again, which are excluded as *inconsistent* with the religion they taught; and again that there are many other points,—some of them such that the Apostles cannot but have practically decided them in one way or another *on particular occasions*, (such as the mode of administering the Eucharist, and many others) respecting which they have not *recorded* their de-

cisions, or made any *general* enactment to be observed in all Ages and Countries.

And the inference seems to be inevitable, that they *purposely* left these points to be decided in each Age and Country according to the discretion of the several Churches, by a careful *application* of the *principles* laid down by Christ and his Apostles.

§ 17. At variance with what has been now said, and also at variance with each other, are some opinions which are to be found among different classes of Christians, in these, as well as in former times. The opposite errors (as they appear to me to be) of those opinions may in many instances be traced, I conceive, in great measure, to the same cause; to the neglect, namely, of the distinction—obvious as it is to any tolerably attentive reader—which has been just noticed, between those things, on the one hand, which are either plainly declared and strictly *enjoined*, or distinctly *excluded*, by the Sacred Writers, and on the other hand, those on which they give no distinct decision, injunction, or prohibition; and which I have thence concluded they meant to place under the jurisdiction of each Church. To the neglect of this distinction, and again, to a want of due consideration of the character, offices, and rights of a Christian Community, may be attributed, in a great degree, the prevalence of errors the most opposite to each other.

There are persons, it is well known, who from not finding in Scripture precise directions, and strict commands, as to the constitution and regulation of a Christian Church,—the several Orders of Christian Ministers,—the distinct functions of each,—and other such details, have adopted the conclusion, or at least seem to lean, more or less, towards the conclusion,—that it is a matter entirely left to each individual's fancy or convenience to join one Christian Society, or another, or none at all;—to take upon himself, or confer on another, the ministerial office, or to repudiate altogether any Christian Ministry whatever:—to join, or withdraw from, any or every religious Assembly for joint Christian worship, according to the suggestion of his individual taste:—in short, (for this is what it really amounts to when plainly stated) to proceed as if the sanction manifestly given by our Lord and his Apostles to the establishment of Christian Communities, and consequently, to all the privileges and powers implied in the very nature of a Community, and also the in-

* See Appendix, Note (G.)

† See Rhetoric, 6th Edition, Part I. ch. 2, § 4.

culation in Scripture of the *principles* on which Christian Churches are to be conducted, were all to *go for nothing*, unless the application of these principles to each particular point of the details of Church government, can also be found no less plainly laid down in Scripture.

Now though I would not be understood as insinuating any thing against the *actual* morality of life of those who take such views, I cannot but remark, that their *mode of reasoning* does seem to me perfectly analogous to that of men who should set at nought all the moral principles of the Gospel, and account nothing a sin that is not expressly particularized as forbidden,—nothing a duty, that is not, in so many words, enjoined. Persons who entertain such lax notions as I have been alluding to, respecting Church enactments, should be exhorted to reflect carefully on the obvious and self-evident, but often-forgotten truth—the oftener forgotten, perhaps, in practice, from its *being* self-evident—that *right* and *duty* are reciprocal; and consequently that since a Church has a *right* (derived, as has been shown, both from the very nature of a Community, and from Christ's sanction) to *make* regulations, &c., not at variance with Scripture principles, it follows that *compliance* with such regulations must be a *duty* to the individual members of that Church.

On the other hand, there are some who, in their abhorrence and dread of principles and practices subversive of all good order, and tending to anarchy and to every kind of extravagance, have thought,—or at least professed to think,—that we are bound to seek for a distinct authoritative sanction, in the Scriptures or *in some other ancient* writings*,—some *Tradition* in short—for each separate point which we would maintain. They assume that whatever doctrines or practices, whatever institutions, whatever regulations respecting Church government, we can conclude, either with certainty, or with any degree of probability, to have been either intro-

duced by the Apostles, or to have prevailed in their time, or in the time of their immediate successors, are to be considered as absolutely binding on all Christians for ever;—as a model from which no Church is at liberty to depart. And they make our membership of the Church of Christ, and our hopes of the Gospel salvation, depend on an exact adherence to every thing that is proved, or believed, or even suspected, to be an apostolical usage; and on our possessing what they call Apostolical Succession; that is, on our having a Ministry whose descent can be traced up, in an unbroken and undoubted chain, to the Apostles themselves, through men regularly ordained by them or their successors, according to the exact forms originally appointed. And all Christians (so called) who do not come under this description, are to be regarded either as outcasts from “the Household of Faith,” or at best as in a condition “analogous to that of the Samaritans of old” who worshipped on Mount Gerizim,* or as in “an intermediate state between Christianity and Heathenism,” and as “left to the uncovenanted mercies of God.”

§ 18. Those who on such grounds defend the Institutions and Ordinances, and vindicate the Apostolical Character, of our own (or indeed of any) Church—whether on their own sincere conviction, or as believing that such arguments are the best calculated to inspire the mass of mankind with becoming reverence, and to repress the evil of schism,—do seem to me, in proportion as they proceed on those principles, to be, in the same degree, removing our institutions from a foundation on a rock, to place them on sand. Instead of a clearly-intelligible, well-established, and *accessible* proof of divine sanction for the claims of our Church, they would substitute one that is not only obscure, disputable, and out of the reach of the mass of mankind, but even self-contradictory, subversive of our own and every Church's claims, and leading to the very evils of doubt, and schismatical division, which it is desired to guard against.

The Rock on which I am persuaded our Reformers intended, and rightly intended, to rest the Ordinances of our Church, is, the warrant to be found in the Holy Scriptures written by, or under the direction of those to whom our Lord had entrusted the duty of “teaching men to observe all things whatsoever He had

* By “ancient” some persons understand what belongs to the first *three* centuries of the Christian era; some, the first four; some, seven; so arbitrary and uncertain is the standard by which some would persuade us to try questions, on which they, at the same time, teach us to believe our Christian Faith and Christian Hope are staked!

“Scire velim, pretium chartis quotus arroget annus:

Est vetus atque probus, centum qui perficit annos.
Quid? qui deperit minor uno mense vel anno,
Inter quos referendus erit? veteresne?” * * *

Horace, Epist. I. b. 2.

* John iv.

commanded them.” For in those Scriptures we find a divine sanction clearly given to a regular Christian Community, a Church; which is, according to the definition in our 19th Article,* “a congregation (*i.e.* Society or Community; Ecclesia,) of faithful men,† in the which the pure Word of God is preached, and the Sacraments duly administered according to Christ’s ordinance, in all those things which of necessity are requisite to the same.” Now since, from the very nature of the case, every Society must have officers appointed in some way or other, and every Society that is to be *permanent*, a perpetual *succession* of Officers, in whatever manner kept up, and must have also a power of enacting, abrogating and enforcing on its own members, such regulations or by-laws as are not opposed to some higher authority, it follows inevitably (as I have above observed) that any one who sanctions a Society, gives, in so doing, his sanction to those essentials of a Society, its Government,—its Officers,—its Regulations. Accordingly, even if our Lord had *not* expressly said any thing about “binding and loosing,” still the very circumstance of his sanctioning a Christian Community would necessarily have implied his sanction of the Institutions, Ministers, and Government of a Christian Church, so long as nothing is introduced at variance with the positive enactments, and the fundamental principles laid down by Himself and his Apostles.

§ 19. This, which I have called a foundation on a rock, is evidently that on which (as has been just observed) our Reformers designed to place our Church.

* In our Article as it stands in the *English*, it is “*The visible Church of Christ is*,” &c.; but there can be no doubt, I think, that the more correct version from the Latin (the *Latin* Articles appear to have been the original, and the *English* a translation—in some few places, a careless translation—from the Latin) would have been “*A visible Church*,” &c. The Latin “*Ecclesia Christi visibilis*” would indeed answer to either phrase, the want of an *article* definite or indefinite in that language rendering it liable to such ambiguity. But the context plainly shows that the writer is not speaking of the Universal Church, but of particular Churches, such as the “Churches of Jerusalem, Alexandria and Rome.” The *English* translator probably either erred from momentary inattention, or (more likely) understood by “*Ecclesia*,” and by “*the Church*,” the particular Church whose Articles were before him,—the Church of England.

† *I. e.* believers in Christ;—*fideles*;—*πιστοι*.

While they strongly deny to any Church the power to “ordain any thing contrary to God’s Word,” or to require as essential to salvation, belief in any thing not resting on scriptural authority, they claim the power for each Church of ordaining and altering “rites and ceremonies,” “so that all things be done to edifying,” and nothing “contrary to God’s Word.” They claim on that ground for our own Church a recognition of that power in respect of the Forms of Public Service; on the ground, that is, (Art. 36) that these “contain nothing that is in itself superstitious and ungodly.”

And they rest the claims of Ministers, not on some supposed sacramental virtue transmitted from hand to hand in unbroken succession from the Apostles, in a chain, of which if any one link be even doubtful, a distressing uncertainty is thrown over all Christian Ordinances, Sacraments, and Church privileges for ever; but, on the fact of those Ministers being the *regularly appointed officers of a regular Christian Community*. “It is not lawful (says the 23d Article) for any man to take upon him the office of public preaching, or ministering the sacraments in the congregation, before he be *lawfully called and sent* to execute the same.—And those we ought to judge lawfully called and sent, which be chosen and called to this work by men who have public authority given unto them in the Congregation, to call and send Ministers into the Lord’s Vineyard.”*

Those who are not satisfied with the foundation thus laid,—and which, as I have endeavoured to show, is the very foundation which Christ and his Apostles have prepared for us,—who seek to take higher ground, as the phrase is, and maintain what are called according to the modern fashion “Church principles,” or “Church-of-England principles,” are in fact subverting the principles both of our own Church in particular, and of every Christian Church that claims the inherent rights belonging to a Community, and confirmed by the sanction of God’s Word as contained in the Holy Scriptures. It is advancing, but not in the right road,—it is advancing not in sound learning but error,—not in faith, but in superstitious credulity, to seek for some higher and better ground on which to rest our doctrines and institutions than

* See § 23.

that on which they were placed by "the Author and Finisher of our Faith."*

On this point I will take the liberty of inserting an extract from a Charge (not published) which was delivered a year ago; because I wish to point out, that the views I am taking, whether sound or unsound—and this I sincerely wish to be decided according to the reasons adduced—are at least not hastily but deliberately adopted, and have undergone no change in that interval.

"When I speak of unceasing progress,—of continual improvement in all that pertains to the Christian life,—as what we ought to aim at, both in ourselves, and in those with whom we have influence, it may perhaps be proper to add, that this does not imply any attempt 'to be wise above that which is written,'—any expectation of a new and additional revelation, or of the discovery of new doctrines,—any pretensions to inspiration,—or hopes of a fresh outpouring of that, or of any other miraculous gifts. It seemed needful to make this remark, because such hopes have been cherished,—such pretensions put forth,—from time to time, in various ages of the Church, and not least in the present.

"I have coupled together these two things,—miraculous gifts, and a new revelation, because I conceive them to be in reality inseparable. Miracles are the only sufficient credentials on which any one can reasonably demand assent to doctrines not clearly revealed (*to the under-*

standing of his hearers) in Scripture. The promulgation of new articles of faith, or of articles which, though not avowedly new, are yet not obviously contained in Scripture, is most presumptuous, unless so authenticated. And again, pretensions to miraculous powers such as those of Moses and the Prophets,—of Christ and the Apostles, seem to imply some such object to be furthered by them. At any rate, those who shall have thus established their claim to be considered as messengers from Heaven, *may* evidently demand assent to whatever they may in that character promulgate. If any persons therefore pretend to such a mark of divine commission as the gift of tongues, or any such power, no one who admits their pretensions can consistently withhold assent from any thing they may declare themselves commissioned to teach.

"And, again, if any persons claim for any traditions of the Church, an authority, either paramount to Scripture, or equal to Scripture, or concurrent with it,—or, which comes to the very same thing, *decisive as to the interpretation of Scripture*,*—taking on themselves to decide what *is* 'the Church,' and *what* tradition is to be thus received,—these persons are plainly called on to establish by miraculous evidence the claims they advance. And if they make their appeal not to miracles wrought by themselves, but to those which originally formed the evidence of the Gospel, they are bound to show by some decisive proof, that that evidence can fairly be brought to bear upon and authenticate their pretension;—that they are, by Christ's decree, the rightful depositaries of the power they claim.

"But to such as reject and protest against all such groundless claims, an interminable field is still open for the application of all the faculties, intellectual and moral, with which God has endowed us, for the fuller understanding and development of the truths revealed in his written Word. To learn and to teach what is there to be found;—to develope more and more fully to your own minds and to those of your hearers, what the Evangelists and Apostles have conveyed to us, will be enough and more than enough to occupy even a longer life than any of us can expect.

"The Mosaic Dispensation was the

* It is curious to observe how very common it is for any Sect or Party to assume a title indicative of the very excellence in which they are especially deficient, or strongly condemnatory of the very errors with which they are especially chargeable. Thus, those who from time to time have designated themselves "Gnostics," *i. e.* persons "*knowing*" the Gospel, in a far superior degree to other professed Christians,—have been generally remarkable for their *want* of knowledge of the very first rudiments of evangelical truth. The phrase "Catholic" religion, (*i. e.* "Universal") is the most commonly in the mouths of those who are the most limited and *exclusive* in their views, and who seek to shut out the largest number of Christian communities from the Gospel covenant. "Schism," again, is by none more loudly reproached than by those who are not only the immediate authors of schism, but the advocates of principles tending to generate and perpetuate schisms without end. And "Church-principles,"—"High-church principles,"—"Church-of-England principles,"—are the favourite terms of those who go the furthest in subverting all these.

Obvious as this fallacy is, there is none more commonly successful in throwing men off their guard.

* See Appendix, Note (H.)

dawn of 'the day-spring from on high,' not yet arrived,—of a Sun only about to rise. It was a Revelation in itself imperfect. The Sun of the Gospel arose; 'the true Light, which lighteth every one that cometh into the world' appeared: but it was partially hidden, and is so, still, by a veil of clouds;—by prejudices of various kinds,—by the passions, and infirmities, and ignorance of mankind. We may advance, and we may lead others to advance, indefinitely, in the full developement of Gospel truth,—of the real character and meaning and design of Christ's religion; not by seeking to *superadd* something to the Gospel revelation; but by a more correct and fuller comprehension of it;—not by increasing, absolutely, the light of the noonday-sun, but by clearing away the mists which obscure our view of it. Christianity itself cannot be improved; but men's views, and estimate, and comprehension of Christianity, may be indefinitely improved.

"Vigilant discretion however is no less needful than zeal and perseverance, if we would really advance in the Christian course. The most active and patient traveller, if he be not also watchfully careful to keep in the right road, may, after having once diverged from it into some other track, be expending his energies in going further and further astray, while he fancies himself making progress in his journey.

"In various ways is the Christian, and not least, the Christian Minister, liable to this kind of self-deception. I am not now, you will observe, adverting chiefly to the danger of mistaking what is absolutely false, for true, or wrong for right; but rather to that of mistaking the real character of some description of truth or of valuable knowledge. We have to guard against mistake, for instance, as to what is or is not a part of the Christian-*Revelation*;—a truth *belonging* to the Gospel, and resting, properly, on divine authority. While advancing in the attainment of what may be in itself very valuable and important knowledge, we may be in fact going further and further in error, if we confound together the inspired and the uninspired,—the sacred text, with the human comment.

"There are persons (such as I have above alluded to) who in their zeal—in itself laudable—to advance towards a full comprehension of the Gospel revelation, have conceived that they are to seek for this by diligent research into the tenets and practices of what is called the Primitive

Church; *i. e.* the Christian world during the first three or first four Ages; and some have even gone so far as to represent the revelation of the Christian scheme contained in the New Testament as a mere imperfect and uncompleted outline, which was to be filled up by the Church in the succeeding three centuries;—as a mere beginning of that which the early Fathers were empowered and commissioned to finish; though on what grounds any kind of authority is claimed for the Church *then*, which does not equally belong to it at this day, or at any intermediate period, no one, as far as I know, has even attempted to make out.

"Now, to learn what has been said and done by eminent men in every Age of the Church, is of course interesting and valuable to a theological student. And a man of modesty and candour will not fail to pay great attention to their opinions, in whatever period they may have lived. He will also inquire with peculiar interest into the belief and the practices of those who had been instructed by the immediate disciples and other contemporaries of the Apostles themselves. But the mistake is, to assume, on the ground of presumptuous conjecture (for of proof, there is not even a shadow) that these men were infallible interpreters of the Apostles, and had received from them by tradition something not contained, or not plainly set forth, in their writings, but which yet were designed by those very Apostles as a necessary portion of Christianity.

"Not only are all these assumptions utterly groundless and unwarrantable, but, on the contrary, even if there is any thing which we can be morally certain *was* practised in the time of the Apostles, and with their sanction (as is the case for instance with the Agapæ or Love-feasts) we must yet consider it as not designed by them to be of universal and perpetual obligation, where they have not distinctly laid it down as such in their writings. By omitting, in any case, thus to record certain of their practices or directions, they have given us as clear an indication as we could have looked for, of their design to leave these to the free choice and decision of each Church in each Age and Country. And there seems every reason to think that it was on purpose to avoid misapprehensions of this kind, that they did leave unrecorded so much of what we cannot but be sure they must have practised, and said, and established, in the Churches under their own immediate care.

"And it should be remembered that what some persons consider as the *safe* side in respect of such points,—as the extreme of scrupulous and cautious veneration—is in truth the reverse. A wise and right-minded reverence for divine authority will render us doubly scrupulous of reckoning any thing as a divine precept or institution, without sufficient warrant. Yet, at the first glance, a readiness to bestow religious veneration, with or without good grounds (which is the very characteristic of superstition) is apt to be mistaken for a sign of pre-eminent piety. Besides those who hold the 'double doctrine'—the '*disciplina arcani*'—and concerning whom therefore it would be rash to pronounce whether any particular tenet taught by them is one which they inwardly believe, or is one of the exoteric instructions deemed expedient for the multitude,—besides these persons, there are, no doubt, men of sincere though mistaken piety, who, as has been just intimated, consider it as the safe side in all doubtful cases, to adhere with unhesitating confidence to every thing that *may possibly* have been introduced by the Apostles;—to make every thing an article of Christian faith that could have been implied in any thing they may have taught. But such persons would perceive, on more careful and sober reflection, that a rightly scrupulous piety consists, as has been said, in drawing the line as distinctly as we are able, between what is, and what is not *designed* by our divine Instructors as a portion of their authoritative precepts and directions. It is by this careful anxiety to *comply with their intention with respect to us*, that we are to manifest a true veneration for them.

"Any thing that does not fall within this rule, we may believe, but not as a part of the Christian *revelation*;—we may practise, but not as a portion of the *divine institutions essential to a Christian Church*, and binding on all men in all ages: not, in short, as something placed beyond the bounds of that '*binding and loosing*' power which belongs to *every church*, in reference to things neither enjoined in Scripture nor at variance with it. Otherwise, even though what we believe should be, really, and in itself, true, and though what we practise, should chance to be in fact what the Apostles did practise, we should not be honouring, but dishonouring God, by taking upon ourselves to give the sanction of his authority to that from which He has thought fit to withhold that

sanction. When the Apostle Paul gave his advice on matters respecting which he 'had no commandment from the Lord,' he of course thought that what he was recommending was good; but so far was he from presuming to put it forth as a divine command, that he expressly notified the contrary. Let us not think to manifest our pious humility by reversing the Apostle's procedure!

"I have thought it needful, in these times especially, to insert this caution against such mistaken efforts after advancement in Christian knowledge and practice; against the delusions of those who, while they exult in their imagined progress in the Christian course, are, in reality, straying into other paths, and following a bewildering meteor."

§ 20. Those whose "Church principles" lead them thus to remove from a firm foundation the institutions of a Christian Church, and especially of our own, and to place them on the sand, are moreover compelled, as it were with their own hands, to dig away even that very foundation of sand. For, in respect of our own Church, since it inculcates repeatedly and earnestly as a fundamental principle,* that nothing is to be insisted on as an essential point of faith, that is not taught in Scripture, any member of our Church who should *make* essentials of points confessedly *not* found in Scripture, and who should consequently make it a point of necessary faith to *believe* that these *are* essentials, must unavoidably be pronouncing condemnation, either on himself, or on the very Church he belongs to, and whose claims he is professing to fortify.

But moreover, not from our own Church only, but from the Universal Church,—from all the privileges and promises of the Gospel,—the principles I am condemning, go to exclude, if fairly followed out, the very persons who advocate them. For it is certain that our own institutions and practices (and the like may be said, I apprehend, of every other Church in the world) though not, we conceive, *at variance* with any Apostolical injunctions, or with any Gospel principle, are, in several points, not precisely coincident with those of the earliest Churches. The Agapæ for instance, or "Love-feasts," alluded to just above, have, in most Churches, been long discontinued. The "Widows" again, whom we find mention of in Paul's Epis-

* Besides the Articles, see, on this point, the Ordination Service.

ties, appear plainly to have been an Order of Deaconesses regularly appointed to particular functions in the earliest Churches: and their Deacons appear to have had an office considerably different from those of our Church.

Again, it seems plainly to have been at least the general, if not the universal, practice of the Apostles, to appoint over each separate Church a *single* individual as a chief Governor, under the title of "*Angel*" (i. e. *Messenger* or *Legate* from the Apostles) or "*BISHOP*," i. e. *Superintendent* or *Overseer*. A CHURCH and a DIOCESS seem to have been for a considerable time *co-extensive* and *identical*. And each Church or Diocese (and consequently each Superintendent) though connected with the rest by ties of Faith and Hope and Charity, seems to have been (as has been already observed) perfectly independent as far as regards any power of control.

The plan pursued by the Apostles seems to have been, as has been above remarked, to establish a great number of small (in comparison with modern Churches) distinct and independent Communities, each governed by its own single Bishop, consulting, no doubt, with his own Presbyters, and accustomed to act in concurrence with them, and occasionally conferring with the Brethren in other Churches, but owing no submission to the rulers of any other Church, or to any central common authority except the Apostles themselves. And other points of difference might be added.

Now to vindicate the institutions of our own, or of some other Church, on the Ground that they "are not in themselves superstitious or ungodly,"—that they are not at variance with Gospel principles, or with any divine injunction that was designed to be of universal obligation, is intelligible and reasonable. But to vindicate them on the ground of the exact conformity, which it is notorious they do not possess, to the most ancient models, and even to go beyond this, and condemn all Christians whose institutions and ordinances are not "one and utterly like" our own, on the ground of their departure from the Apostolical precedents, which no Church has exactly adhered to,—does seem,—to use no harsher expression,—not a little inconsistent and unreasonable. And yet one may not unfrequently hear members of Episcopalian Churches pronouncing severe condemnation on those of other Communions, and even exclud-

ing them from the Christian body, on the ground, not of their not being under the *best* form of Ecclesiastical Government,* but, of their wanting the very essentials of a Christian Church: viz., the very same distinct Orders in the Hierarchy that the Apostles appointed: and this, while the Episcopalian themselves have, universally, so far varied from the Apostolical institutions as to have in one Church several *Bishops*; each of whom consequently differs in the office he holds, in a most important point, from one of the primitive Bishops, as much as the Governor of any one of our Colonies does from a Sovereign Prince.

Now whether the several alterations, and departures from the original institutions, were or were not, in each instance, made on good grounds, in accordance with an altered state of society, is a question which cannot even be entertained by those who hold that no Church is competent to vary at all from the ancient model. Their principle would go to exclude at once from the pale of Christ's Church almost every Christian Body since the first two or three Centuries.

The edifice they overthrow crushes in its fall the blind champion who has broken its pillars.

§ 21. Waiving however what may be called a personal argument, and supposing that some mode could be devised of explaining away all the inconsistencies I have been adverting to, still, if the essentials of Christianity,—at least a considerable portion of them—are not to be found in Scripture, but in a supplementary Tradition, which is to be sought in the works of those early Fathers who were orthodox, the foundations of a Christian's Faith and Hope become *inaccessible* to nearly the whole of the Laity, and to much the greater part of the Clergy.

This, it may be said, is just as it should be; and as it must be: the unlearned being necessarily dependent on the learned, in respect of several most important points; since the great mass of Christians cannot be supposed capable of even reading the Scriptures in the original tongues;

* It is remarkable that there are *Presbyterians* also, who proceed on similar principles; who contend that originally the distinction between Bishops and Presbyters did not exist; and consequently (not that *Episcopacy* is not essential to a Church but) that Episcopal government is an *unwarrantable innovation*—a usurpation—a profane departure from the divine ordinances!

much less of examining ancient manuscripts.

Now this necessity I see no reason for admitting, if it be understood in the sense that the unlearned must needs take the word of the learned, and place implicit reliance* on the good faith of certain individuals selected by them as their spiritual guides. It is in their power, and is surely their duty, to ascertain how far the assertions of certain learned men are to be safely relied on.†

But when, in the case now before us, men come to consider and inquire what the foundation really is on which they are told (according to the principles I have been speaking of) to rest their own hopes of eternal life, and to pronounce condemnation on those who differ from them, it cannot be but that doubt and dissatisfaction, and perhaps disgust, and danger of ultimate infidelity, will beset them, in proportion as they are of a serious and reflective turn, and really

anxious to attain religious truth. For when referred to the works of the orthodox ancient Fathers, they find that a very large portion of these works is lost; or that some fragments, or reports of them by other writers, alone remain: they find again that what *has* come down to us is so vast in amount that a life is not sufficient for the attentive study of even the chief part of it;‡ they find these Authors by no means agreed, on all points, with each other, or with themselves; and that learned men again are not agreed in the interpretation of *them*; and still less agreed as to the orthodoxy of each, and the degree of weight due to his judgment on several points; nor even agreed by some centuries as to the degree of *antiquity*† that is to make the authority of each decisive, or more or less approaching to decisive.

Every thing in short pertaining to this appeal is obscure,—uncertain,—disputable—and actually disputed,—to such a degree, that even those who are not able to read the original authors may yet be perfectly competent to perceive how unstable a foundation they furnish. They can perceive that the mass of Christians are called on to believe and to do what is essential to Christianity, in implicit reliance on the *reports* of their respective pastors, as to what certain deep theological antiquarians have *reported to them*, respecting the *reports* given by certain ancient Fathers, of the *reports* current in their times, concerning apostolical usages and institutions! And yet, whoever departs in any degree from these, is to be regarded at best in an intermediate state between Christianity and Heathenism! Surely the tendency of this procedure must be to drive the doubting into confirmed (though perhaps secret) infidelity, and to fill with doubts the most sincerely pious, if they are anxiously desirous of attaining truth, and unhappily have sought it from such instructors.

* See Appendix, Note (I.)

† ‡ “It is manifest that the concurrent testimony, positive or negative, of several witnesses, when there can have been no concert, and especially when there is any rivalry or hostility between them, carries with it a weight independent of that which may belong to each of them considered separately. For though, in such a case, each of the witnesses should be even considered as wholly undeserving of credit, still the chances might be incalculable against their all agreeing in the *same* falsehood. It is in this kind of testimony that the generality of mankind believe in the motions of the earth, and of the heavenly bodies, &c. Their belief is not the result of their own observations and calculations; nor yet again of their implicit reliance on the skill and the good faith of any one or more astronomers; but it rests on the agreement of many independent and rival astronomers; who want neither the ability nor the will to detect and expose each other’s errors. It is on similar grounds, as Dr. Hinds has justly observed, that all men, except about two or three in a million, believe in the existence and in the genuineness of manuscripts of ancient books, such as the Scriptures. It is not that they have themselves examined these; or again, (as some represent) that they rely implicitly on the good faith of those who profess to have done so; but they rely on the *concurrent and uncontradicted* testimony of all who have made, or who *might make*, the examination; both unbelievers, and believers of various hostile sects; any one of whom would be sure to seize any opportunity to expose the forgeries or errors of his opponents.

“This observation is the more important, because many persons are liable to be startled and dismayed on its being pointed out to them that they have been believing something—as they are led to suppose—on very insufficient reasons; when the truth is perhaps that they have been misstating their reasons.”—*Rhetoric*, part I. ch. 2. § 4.

* ‡ Would not the ingenuous course be, for those who refer to the authority of “The Fathers,” to state distinctly, 1st, *which* of these ancient writers they mean; and, 2dly, whether they have *read* these? For, a very large proportion, even of the higher classes, are far from being aware of the voluminous character of the works thus vaguely referred to: and being accustomed, when any one refers to “The Scriptures,” to understand him as speaking of a well known book, which they presume he professes to have read, it is likely they should conclude, unless told to the contrary, that one who appeals to “The Fathers,” has himself read them.

† See Note, p. 114.

§ 22. But an attempt is usually made to silence all such doubts by a reference to the Catholic Church, or the "primitive" or the "ancient Catholic Church," as having authority to decide,—and as having in fact decided,—on the degree of regard due to the opinions and testimony of individual writers among the Fathers. And a mere reference such as this, accompanied with unhesitating assertion, is not unfrequently found to satisfy or silence those who might be disposed to doubt. And while questions are eagerly discussed as to the degree of deference due to the "decisions of the universal Church," some preliminary questions are often overlooked: such as,—when, and where did any one visible Community, comprising all Christians as its members, exist? Does it exist still? Is its authority the same as formerly? And again, who are its rulers and other officers, rightfully claiming to represent Him who is the acknowledged Head of the Universal (or Catholic) Church, Jesus Christ, and to act as his *Vicegerents* on Earth? For, it is plain that no society that has a *supreme Governor*, can perform any act, *as a Society*, and in its corporate capacity, *without* that supreme Governor, either in person, or represented by some one clearly deputed by him, and invested with his authority. And a Bishop, Presbyter, or other officer, of any particular Church, although he is a *member* of the Universal Christian Church, and also a *Christian Ecclesiastical Ruler*, is not a Ruler of the Universal Church; his jurisdiction not extending beyond his particular Diocese, Province, or Church: any more than a *European King* is King of Europe. Who then are to be recognized as Rulers of (not merely, in) the Universal Church? Where (on Earth) is its central supreme government, such as every single Community must have? Who is the accredited organ empowered to pronounce its decrees, in the name of the whole Community? And where are these decrees registered?

Yet many persons are accustomed to talk familiarly of the decisions of the Catholic Church, as if there were some accessible record of them, such as we have of the Acts of any Legislative Body; and "as if there existed some recognized functionaries, regularly authorized to govern and to represent that community, the Church of Christ; and answering to the king—senate—or other constituted authorities, in any secular community.

And yet no shadow of proof can be offered that the Church, in the above sense,—the Universal Church,—can possibly give any decision at all;—that it has any constituted authorities as the organs by which such decision could be framed or promulgated,—or, in short, that there is, or ever was, any *one community on earth*, recognized, or having any claim to be recognized, as the Universal Church, bearing rule over and comprehending all particular Churches.

"We are wont to speak of the foundation of the Church,—the authority of the Church,—the various characteristics of the Church,—and the like,—as if the Church were, originally at least, One Society in all respects. From the period in which the Gospel was planted beyond the precincts of Judæa, this manifestly ceased to be the case; and as Christian societies were formed among people more and more unconnected and dissimilar in character and circumstances, the difficulty of considering the Church as One Society increases. Still, from the habitual and unreflecting use of this phrase, "the Church," it is no uncommon case to confound the two notions; and occasionally to speak of the various societies of Christians as *one*, occasionally, as *distinct* bodies. The mischief which has been grafted on this inadvertency in the use of the term, has already been noticed; and it is no singular instance of the enormous practical results which may be traced to mere ambiguity of expression. The Church is undoubtedly *one*, and so is the Human race *one*; but not as a *Society*. It was from the first composed of distinct societies; which were called one, because formed on common principles. It is One Society only when considered as to its *future* existence. The circumstance of its having one common Head, (Christ,) one Spirit, one Father, are points of unity which no more make the Church One Society on earth, than the circumstance of all men having the same Creator, and being derived from the same Adam, renders the Human Race one Family. That Scripture often speaks of Christians generally under the term, "the Church," is true; but if we wish fully to understand the force of the term so applied, we need only call to mind the frequent analogous use of ordinary historical language when no such doubt occurs. Take, for example Thucydides' *History of the Peloponnesian War*. It contains an account of the transactions of two opposed parties, each

made up of many distinct communities; on the one side were Democracies, on the other Oligarchies. Yet precisely the same use is made by the historian of the terms "the Democracy" and "Oligarchy," as we find Scripture adopting with regard to the term "the Church." No one is misled by these so as to suppose the Community of Athens *one* with that of Coreyra, or the Theban with the Lacedæmonian. When the heathen writer speaks of "the Democracy of" or "in" the various democratical States, we naturally understand him to mean distinct Societies *formed on similar principles*; and so, doubtless, ought we to interpret the sacred writers when they, in like manner, make mention of the Church of, or in, Antioch, Rome, Ephesus, Corinth, &c.

"But there was also an especial reason why the term Church should have been often used by the sacred writers as if it applied to One Society. God's dispensation had hitherto been limited to a single society,—the Jewish People. Until the Gospel was preached, the Church of God was One Society. It therefore sometimes occurs with the force of a transfer from the objects of God's *former* dispensation, to those of his *present* dispensation. In like manner, as Christians are called "the Elect," their bodies "the Temple," and their Mediator "the High Priest;" so, their condition, as the objects of God's new dispensation, is designated by the term "the Church of Christ," and "the Church."

"The Church is *one*, then, not as consisting of One Society, but because the various societies, or Churches, were then modelled, and ought still to be so, on the same principles; and because they enjoy common privileges,—one Lord, one Spirit, one Baptism. Accordingly the Holy Ghost, through his agents the Apostles, has not left any detailed account of the formation of any Christian society; but He has very distinctly marked the great principles on which all were to be founded, whatever distinctions may exist amongst them. In short the foundation of the Church by the Apostles was not analogous to the work of Romulus, or Solon; it was not, properly, the foundation of Christian societies which occupied them, but the establishment of the principles on which Christians in all ages might form societies for themselves."—*Encyclopædia Metropolitana*. "Age of the Apostolical Fathers," p. 774.

"The above account is sufficiently

established even by the mere negative circumstance of the absence of all mention in the Sacred Writings of any *one* Society on earth, having a Government and officers of its own, and recognized as the Catholic or Universal Church: especially when it is considered that the frequent mention of the particular Churches at Jerusalem, Antioch, Rome, Corinth, &c.,—of the seven Churches in Asia,—and of 'the care of all the Churches' which Paul had founded, would have rendered unavoidable the notice of the One Church (had there been any such) which bore rule over all the rest, either as its subjects, or as provincial departments of it.

"This negative evidence, I say, would alone be fully sufficient, considering that the whole burden of proof lies on the side of those who set up such a claim. He who appeals to the alleged decisions of a certain Community, is clearly bound, in the first place, to prove its existence. But if we proceed to historical evidence, we find on examination, that there *never* was a time when the supremacy of any one Church was acknowledged by all, or nearly all Christians. And to say they *ought* to have done so, and that as many as have refused such submission are to be regarded as schismatics and rebels, is evidently to prejudice the question.

"The Universal Church, then, being *one*, in reference not to any one Government on earth, but only to our Divine Head, even Christ, ruling Christians by his Spirit, which spoke to them from time to time through the Apostles while these were living, and speaks still in the words of the Christian Scriptures, it follows that each Christian is bound (as far as Church authority extends) to submit to the ordinances and decisions,—not repugnant to Scripture, (see Art. xxxiv.) of the particular Church of which he is a member.

"If it were possible that all the Christians now in existence—suppose 250 millions—could assemble, either in person, or by deputation of their respective Clergy, in one place, to confer together: and that the votes, whether personal or by proxy, of 230 or 240 millions of these were to be at variance (as in many points they probably would be) with the decisions and practices of our own Church; we should be no more bound to acquiesce in and adopt the decision of that majority, even in matters which we do not regard as essential to the Christian Faith, than

we should be, to pass a law *for this realm*, because it was approved by the majority for the *human race*.”*

Many persons are accustomed to speak as if a *majority* had some natural inherent right to control and to represent the *whole* of any Assembly or Class of persons. We are told of this or that being “held by *most* of the early Fathers;”—of the opinions or practices of “the *greater part* of the members of the early Church;”—of the “decision of the *majority* of” such and such a Council, &c. No doubt, *when other points are equal*, the judgment of a greater number deserves more consideration than that of a less; but a majority has no such controlling or representing power, except by *express*, arbitrary regulation and enactment; and regulations as to this point differ in different cases. Thus, the *decision of a Jury*, in England, is their *unanimous* decision; in Scotland, that of *two-thirds*; a decision of the House of Peers is that of a majority of those who are (personally, or by Proxy) *present*;—of the House of Commons,—of a majority in a House of not less than *forty*; &c. And when there is *no* express enactment or agreement on this point, nothing can fairly be called an opinion or decision of such and such persons, except one in which they *all* concur. When they do not, we then look, not merely to the *numbers*, but also to the *characters* and circumstances of each party.

Many again are misled by the twofold ambiguity in the phrase “Authority of the Catholic (or Universal) Church;” both “Authority,” and “Church”† being often employed in more than one sense. Authority, in the sense, not of *power*,‡ but of a claim to *attention* and to deference, (more or less as the case may be,) belongs of course to the “Universal Church,” meaning thereby not any *single Society*, but Christians generally throughout all regions;—the “Christian World,” or (in

modern phraseology) “the Christian Public.” Whatever is, or has been, attested, or believed, or practised, by all of these, or by the greater part of them, or by several of those whom we may regard as the best and wisest among them,—is, of course, entitled to a degree of attentive and respectful consideration, greater or less according to the circumstances of each case.

It is in quite a different sense that we speak of the “Authority,” for instance, of Parliament; meaning, of an *Act of Parliament*, regularly passed according to the prescribed forms, and claiming (if not at variance with the divine laws) submission—compliance—*obedience*; quite independent of any *approbation* on our part.

And yet one may find it asserted, as a matter that admits of no doubt, and is to be taken for granted, as “generally admitted, except by those trained in a modern school, that any particular Church *owes obedience* to the Universal Church, of which it is a part.” Such assertions sometimes come from men of acknowledged learning; in reality far too learned not to be themselves well aware that there never *was*, since the days of the Apostles, any such Body *existing as could* claim, on the plea of being the recognized representative of the whole Christian World, this “obedience,” from each particular Church; and hence, these bold assertions will often succeed in overawing the timid, in deceiving the ignorant and inconsiderate, and in satisfying the indolent.

The temptation, doubtless, is very strong—especially for those who would maintain doctrines or practices that are, seemingly at least, at variance with Scripture—to make an appeal to a standard that is inaccessible to the mass of mankind, and that is in all respects so vague; to a vast and *indefinite* number of writers, extending over a very long and *indefinite* space of time;—and to avail oneself of the awe-inspiring force of sacred names, by exhorting men, in the apparent language of Scripture*—(for no such passage really exists) to “hear the Church!”

* Essays, 4th Series, pp. 166—171.

† See Appendix, Note (K.)

‡ It is worthy of remark that *Power* (or Authority in that sense) in reference to any particular act, or decision, does not admit of degrees. A man may indeed have more or less power than another: that is, he may have rightful power to do something which another cannot: but with respect to any specified act, he either has the power, or he has it not. On the other hand, “Authority” in the sense of a *claim to deference*, admits of infinite degrees.

* Our Lord directs his disciples, in the event of a dispute between two individuals, to refer the matter, in the last resort, to the decision of the Congregation, Assembly, or Church (Ecclesia); and that if any one *disobey* (or “refuse to hear,” as our translators render it) this, he is to be regarded “as a heathen,” &c., ἐὰν τις ἐκκλησίαν παρανομῇ. Those who adduce this passage, would, it may be presumed, have at least *preferred* bringing forward, if they could have found one, some passage of Scripture which does support their views.

§ 23. The readiness with which some persons acquiesce, at least profess to acquiesce, in supposed decisions of the Universal or Catholic Church, using the term in a sense in which it can even be proved that no such Community ever existed on Earth, and of General Councils, such as, in fact, never met, and of Traditions several of which are such as to need proof, first, how far they are genuine, and next, how far, if admitted to be genuine, they would be binding on all Christians,—this ready acquiescence, I say, is the more extraordinary, when we consider that many of the points which are attempted to be supported by an appeal to such authority, do, in fact, stand in no need of that support, but have a firm foundation in Scripture, by virtue of the powers plainly conferred by Christ Himself on Christian Communities.

Any forms, for instance, for Public Worship, and for the Ordaining of Christian Ministers, which “contain (as our Reformers maintain respecting those they sanctioned*) nothing that is in itself superstitious and contrary to God’s Word,” are plainly binding, by Christ’s own sanction, on the members of the Church that appoints them.

But some, it should seem, are not satisfied with a *justification* of their own ordinances and institutions, unless they can find a plea for condemning all those who differ from them. And this plea they seek, not by endeavouring to show the superior expediency, with a view to decency, good order, and edification of the enactments they would defend, but by maintaining the obligatory character of supposed apostolical traditions; and then they are driven, as I have said, to shift our own institutions from the foundation on a rock, to place them on sand.

When one sees persons not content with the advantages they enjoy, unless they can exclude others, and in the attempt to do so, “falling into the midst of the pit they have digged for another,” it is hardly possible to avoid recalling to one’s mind the case of Haman, and the result of his jealousy of Mordecai.

Some persons have endeavoured, from time to time, to represent our Reformers as appealing to the practice of what is called the Primitive Church, and to the writings of the early Fathers, as the principal,—or as one principal—ground on

which they rest the vindication of their own decisions; and as taking for their authoritative standard of rectitude and truth in religious matters, not Scripture alone, but Scripture combined and “blended with Tradition.”

And it is very true that they do (as it was perfectly natural they should, engaged as they were in controversy with the Romanists) frequently refer to the records which their opponents appealed to, in order to show that the very authorities these last were accustomed to rely on, are in fact opposed to them. They point out the proofs extant that many doctrines and practices which *had been made to rest on supposed ancient tradition*, were in fact comparatively modern innovations; and they vindicate themselves from the charge of *innovation* in some points by referring to ancient precedents. All this is perfectly natural and perfectly justifiable. But it is quite a different thing from acknowledging a decisive authority in early precedents, and in Tradition, either alone, or “blended with Scripture.”* If any man is charged with introducing an *unscriptural novelty*, and he shows first that it is *scriptural*, and then, (by reference to the opinions of those who lived long ago) that it is *no novelty*, it is most unreasonable to infer that Scripture authority would have no weight with him unless backed by the opinions of fallible men.

No one would reason thus absurdly in any other case. For instance, when some bill is brought into one of the Houses of Parliament, and it is represented by its opponents as of a *novel* and unheard-of character, it is common, and natural, and allowable, for its advocates to cite instances of similar Acts formerly passed. Now, how absurd it would be thought for any one thence to infer that those who use such arguments must mean to imply that Parliament has no power to pass an

* The maxim of “*abundans cautela nocet nemini*” is by no means a safe one if applied without limitation. See Logic, b. ii. ch. 5, § 6.)

It is sometimes imprudent (and some of our Divines have, I think, committed this imprudence) to attempt to “make assurance doubly sure” by bringing forward confirmatory reasons, which, though in themselves perfectly fair, may be interpreted unfairly, by representing them as an acknowledged *indispensable* foundation;—by assuming, for instance, that an appeal to such and such of the ancient Fathers or Councils, in confirmation of some doctrine or practice, is to be understood as an admission that it would fall to the ground if *not* so confirmed.

Act unless it can be shown that similar Acts have been passed formerly!

If any Bishop of the present day should be convinced that such and such Theologians,—ancient and modern—had given correct and useful expositions of certain parts of Scripture, he could not but wish that the Clergy he ordained should give similar expositions; and he would probably recommend to their attentive perusal the works of those theologians. Now how monstrous it would be to represent him, on such grounds, as making those works a *standard of faith conjointly* with Scripture!

Of a like character is the very reference have now been making to the documents put forth by those Reformers themselves. I certainly believe them to be in accordance with the principles above laid down as scriptural and reasonable; but I protest (and so probably would they) against “blending with Scripture” the writings of the Reformers, to constitute jointly a rule of faith binding on every Christian’s conscience. If any one is convinced that the doctrines and practices and institutions of our Church are unscriptural, he is bound in conscience to leave it.

Our Reformers believed, no doubt, that their institutions were, on the whole, similar to those of the earliest Churches; perhaps they may have believed this similarity to be greater than it really is; but what is the *ground* on which they rested the claim of these institutions to respectful acquiescence? On the ground of their “not being in themselves superstitious, and ungodly, and *contrary to God’s Word*,”—on the ground of the “power of each particular Church to ordain and abrogate or alter” (though not wantonly and inconsiderately) Church-rites and ceremonies, provided nothing be done contrary to Scripture. So also, they believed, no doubt, that the doctrines they taught, and which they commissioned others to teach, were such as had been taught by many early Fathers; and thinking this, they could not but wish that the teaching of the Clergy should coincide with that of those Fathers: but what was the *rule* laid down,—the standard fixed on, for ascertaining what should be taught as a part of the Christian Religion? It was Holy Scripture; not Scripture and Tradition, jointly and “blended together,” but the Written Word of God; nothing being allowed to be taught as an Article of faith that could not thence be proved. Again, they doubtless believed that there

were early precedents for the form of Church-government they maintained,—for the different Orders of the Ministry, and for the mode of appointing each. They believed, no doubt, as a fact, that the Apostles ordained Ministers, and these others, and so on in succession, down to the then-existing period. But what was the basis on which they deliberately chose to rest their system? On the declared principle that “those and those only are to be accounted as lawfully appointed Ministers who are called and sent out by *those who have authority* in the Congregation” (or Church) “to call and send labourers into the Lord’s vineyard:” and though themselves deliberately adhering to episcopal Ordination, they refrain, both in the Article on the “Church” and in that on “ministering in the Church” from specifying Episcopacy and episcopal Ordination as among the essentials.

§ 24. Some *individuals* among the Reformers have in some places used language which may be understood as implying a more strict obligation to conform to ancient precedents than is acknowledged in the Articles. But the Articles being deliberately and *jointly* drawn up for the very purpose of precisely determining what it was designed should be determined respecting the points they treat of, and in order to supply to the Anglican Church their Confession of Faith on those points, it seems impossible that any man of ingenuous mind can appeal from the Articles, Liturgy, and Rubric, put forth as the authoritative *declarations of the Church*, to any other writings, whether by the same or by other authors.*

* Articles XIX. XX. XXIII. XXXIV. XXXVI.

“XIX. *Of the Church*.—The visible Church of Christ [“*ecclesia Christi visibilis est*,” &c. evidently *A visible Church of Christ is a congregation of faithful men, in the which the pure Word of God is preached, and the Sacraments be duly administered according to Christ’s ordinance in all those things that of necessity are requisite to the same.*

“As the Church of *Jerusalem, Alexandria and Antioch*, have erred; so also the Church of *Rome* hath erred, not only in their living and manner of Ceremonies, but also in matters of Faith.

“XX. *Of the Authority of the Church*.—The Church hath power to decree Rites and Ceremonies, and authority in Controversies of Faith: and yet it is not lawful for the Church to ordain any thing that is contrary to God’s Word written, neither may it so expound one place of Scripture, that it be repugnant to another. Wherefore, although the Church be a witness and a keeper of holy Writ, yet, as it ought not to decree any thing against the same, so besides the same ought it not

On the contrary, the very circumstances that opinions going far beyond what the Articles express, or in other respects considerably differing from them, did exist, and were *well known and current*, in the days of our reformers, gives even the *more* force to their *deliberate omissions* of these, and their distinct declaration of what they do mean to maintain. It was not hastily and unadvisedly that they based the doctrines of their Church on "the pure Word of God," and the claim of their Church to the character of a Christian Community, on its being a "Congregation of believers, in which that pure word is preached, and the Christian Sacraments duly administered."

Whatever therefore may have been the private opinion of any individuals among their number, they have declared plainly

to enforce any thing to be believed for necessity of Salvation.

"XXXIII. *Of Ministering in the Congregation.*—It is not lawful for any man to take upon him the office of public preaching, or ministering the Sacraments in the Congregation, before he be lawfully called and sent to execute the same. And those we ought to judge lawfully called and sent, which be chosen and called to this work by men who have public authority given unto them in the congregation, to call and send Ministers into the Lord's vineyard.

"XXXIV. *Of the Traditions of the Church.*—It is not necessary that Traditions and Ceremonies be in all places one, and utterly like; for at all times they have been divers, and may be changed according to the diversities of countries, times, and men's manners, so that nothing be ordained against God's Word. Whosoever through his private judgment, willingly and purposely, doth openly break the traditions and ceremonies of the Church, which be not repugnant to the Word of God, and be ordained and approved by common authority, ought to be rebuked openly, (that others may fear to do the like,) as he that offendeth against the common order of the church, and hurteth the authority of the Magistrate, and woundeth the consciences of the weak brethren.

"Every particular or national Church hath authority to ordain, change, and abolish, ceremonies or rites of the Church ordained only by man's authority, so that all things be done to edifying.

"XXXVI. *Of Consecration of Bishops and Ministers.*—The Book of Consecration of Archbishops and Bishops, and Ordering of Priests and Deacons, lately set forth in the time of Edward the Sixth, and confirmed at the same time by authority of Parliament, doth contain all things necessary to such consecration and Ordering: neither hath it any thing that of itself is superstitious and ungodly. And therefore whosoever are consecrated or ordered according to the Rites of that Book, since the second year of the forenamed King Edward unto this time, or hereafter shall be consecrated or ordered according to the same Rites; we decree all such to be rightly, orderly, and lawfully consecrated and ordered."

what it was they *agreed* in regarding as a safe and sufficient foundation, and as essential, and consequently requiring to be set forth and embodied in the Symbol or Creed of their Church.

But neither the Reformers of our Church, nor any other human being, could frame any expressions such as not to admit of being explained away, or the consequences of them somehow evaded, by an ingenious person who should resolutely set himself to the task. And accordingly our Church has been represented as resting her doctrines and her claims on Scripture and Tradition *jointly*, and "blended" together.

We have been told for instance of a person held up as a model of *pure Anglican Church principles*, that he "submitted to the decision of inspiration *wherever* it was to be found, whether in Scripture or Antiquity." And again we have been told that "Rome differs from us as to the *authority* which she ascribes to tradition: she regards it as *co-ordinate*, our divines as *sub-ordinate*; as to the *way in which it is to be employed*, she, as *independent* of Holy Scripture; ours, as *subservient* to, and blended with it: as to *its limits*, she supposes that the Church of Rome has the power of imposing new articles necessary to be believed for salvation; ours, that all such articles were comprised at first in the Creed, and that the Church has only the power of clearing, defining, and expounding these fixed articles."

Now whether the above description be a correct one as far as regards the tenets of the Church of Rome, I do not pretend to decide, nor does it belong to my present purpose to inquire: but the description of the tenets of the Anglican Church, is such as I feel bound to protest against. If indeed by "*us*" and "*our divines*" is to be understood certain individuals who profess adherence to the Church of England, the above description is, no doubt, very correct as far as relates to *THEM*: but if it be meant that such are the tenets of our Church itself as set forth in its authoritative Confession of Faith,—the Articles,—nothing can be more utterly unfounded, and indeed more opposite to the truth. Our Church not only does *not* "blend Scripture with Tradition," but takes the most scrupulous care to *distinguish* from every thing else the Holy Scriptures, as the sufficient and sole authoritative standard.

Our Reformers do not merely *omit* to ascribe to any Creed or other statement

of any doctrine, an *intrinsic* authority, or one derived from tradition, but in the Article on the three Creeds,* they *take care distinctly to assign the ground* on which those are to be retained; viz., that "they may be proved by Holy Writ."

§ 25. As for the distinction drawn between making Tradition on the one hand "an authority *co-ordinate with Scripture*," on the other hand "*subordinate and blended with Scripture*," I cannot but think it worse than nugatory.† The latter doctrine I have no scruple in pronouncing the worse of the two; because while it virtually comes to the same thing, it is more insidious, and less likely to alarm a mind full of devout reverence for Scripture.

When men are told of points of faith which they are to receive on the authority of Tradition alone, quite independently of any Scripture warrant, they are not unlikely to shrink from this with doubt or a disgust, which they are often relieved from at once, by a renunciation, in words, of such a claim, and by being assured that Scripture is the supreme Authority, and that Tradition is to be received as its handmaid only,—as not independent of it, but "*subordinate and blended with it*." And yet if any or every part of Scripture is to be interpreted according to a supposed authoritative Tradition, and from that interpretation there is to be *no appeal*, it is plain that, to all practical purposes, this comes to the same thing as an independent Tradition. For on this system, any thing may be made out of any thing.

* Nor, by the way, is it true that our Church has declared, in that, or in any other Article, "that all such Articles as are necessary to be believed for Salvation were comprised at first in the [Apostles'] Creed. This, in fact, is neither done, nor was intended to be done, by the framers of that Creed; if at least they held—as I doubt not they did—the doctrine of the Atonement: for this is not at all mentioned in the Apostles' Creed. The cause, I have no doubt, was that the doctrine had not in the earliest ages been *disputed*. But at any rate, the fact is certain, that the Creed does dwell on the reality of the historical transaction only, the actual death of Christ, without asserting *for whom* or *for what* He suffered death.

† It is not meant to be implied that all persons who take this view are, themselves, disposed to join the Romish Church, or to think little of the differences between that and their own. Distinctions may be felt as important by *one* person, which may appear to *others*, and may really be, utterly insignificant. The members, for instance, of the Russian branch, at least, of the Greek Church, are said to abhor *image-worship*, while they pay to *pictures* an adoration which Protestants would regard as equally superstitious.

The Jews may resort, whenever it suits their purpose, (and often do,) to an appeal to their Scriptures *INTERPRETED according to their tradition*, in behalf of any thing they are disposed to maintain. I remember conversing some years ago with an educated Jew on the subject of some of their observances, and remarking, in the course of the conversation, that their prohibition of eating butter and flesh at the same meal, rested, I supposed, not like several other prohibitions, on the Mosaic written Laws, but on Tradition alone. No, he assured me it was prohibited in the Law. I dare say my readers would be as much at a loss as I was, to guess where. He referred me to Exod. xxiii. 19.

In like manner, if any ordinary student of Scripture declares that he finds no warrant there for believing in the bodily presence of Christ in the Eucharist, and that he finds on the contrary our Lord Himself declaring that "it is' the *Spirit* that quickeneth," (giveth life;) "the *flesh profiteth nothing*," he is told that Tradition directs us to interpret literally the words "This is my Body," and that he must not presume to set up his "private judgment" against the interpretation, and this, when perhaps he is assured by the same person, on similar grounds, that "the whole Bible is one great Parable!"

If again he finds the Apostles ordaining Elders, (Presbyters,) and never alluding to any person, except Christ Himself, as bearing any such office in the Christian Church as that of the Levitical Priest, (Hiereus) he is told, on the authority of Tradition, which he must not dispute, that Presbyter means Hiereus, a sacrificing Priest. Mahomet's application to himself of the prophecy of Jesus, that He would "send another Paraclete" or Comforter, was received by his followers on similar grounds; that is, it was an interpretation which he chose to put on the words; and woe to him who should dispute it!

If again we find the whole tenor of Scripture opposed to invocation of Saints, and Image-worship, we may be told that there is a kind of invocation of Saints which the Scriptures, as interpreted by Tradition, allow and encourage. And so on, to an indefinite extent; just as effectually, and almost as easily, as if Tradition had been set up independent of Scripture, instead of being "blended with it."*

* See Powell on Tradition, § 14-17.

"Tradition" and "Church interpretation" are made, according to this system, subordinate to, and dependent on Scripture, much in the same way that some parasite plants are dependent on the trees that support them. The parasite at first clings to, and rests on the tree, which it gradually overspreads with its own foliage, till by little and little, it weakens and completely smothers it:

"Miraturque novas frondes, et non sua poma."

And it may be added that the insidious character of this system is still further increased, if the principle be laid down without following it out, at once, into all the most revolting consequences that may follow, and that have followed, from its adoption. For by this means a contrast is drawn between the most extravagant, and a far more moderate, system of falsehood and superstition; and it is insinuated that this favourable contrast is the result of the one being built on "co-ordinate" and the other on "subordinate" Tradition; the real difference being only that every usurped and arbitrary power, is usually *exercised with comparative leniency at first*, till it has been well established. Let but the *principle* which is common to both systems be established; and the one may be easily made to answer all the purposes of the other.

And all this time the advocates of this authoritative tradition may loudly proclaim that they require no assent to any thing but what "may be proved by Scripture;" that is, proved *to them*; and which, on the ground of *their* conviction, must be implicitly received by every man. It is most important,—when the expression is used of "referring to Scripture as the infallible standard," and requiring assent to such points of faith only as can be thence proved, to settle clearly, in the outset, the important question, "proved *to whom*?" If any man or Body of men refer us to Scripture, as the sole authoritative standard, meaning that we are not to be called on to believe any thing as a necessary point of faith, on their word, but only on *our own* conviction that it is scriptural, then they place our faith on the basis, not of human authority, but of divine. But if they call on us, as a point of conscience, to receive whatever is proved to *their* satisfaction from Scriptures, even though it may appear to us unscriptural, then, instead of releasing us from the usurped authority of Man taking the place of God, they are placing on us

two burdens instead of one. "You require us," we might reply, "to believe, first, that whatever you teach is *true*; and secondly, besides this, to believe also, that it is a truth *contained in Scripture*; and we are to *take your word* for both!"

§ 26. I can imagine persons urging, in reply to what has been said, the importance of giving the people religious instruction over and above the mere reading of Scripture—the utility of explanations and comments,—and the necessity of creeds and catechisms, &c.; and dwelling also on the reverence due to antiquity, and on the arrogance of disregarding the judgment of pious and learned men, especially of such as lived in or near the times of the Apostles.

It is almost superfluous to remark that nothing at variance with all this has been here advanced. The testimony of ancient writers as to the facts, that such and such doctrines or practices did or did not prevail in their own times, or that such and such a sense was, in their times, conveyed by certain passages of Scripture, may often be very valuable; provided we keep clear of the mistake of inferring, either that whatever is ancient is to be supposed apostolical, or even necessarily, *in accordance* with apostolical teaching; (as if errors had not crept in, even during the lifetime* of the Apostles,) or again, that every practice and regulation that really had the sanction of the Apostles (and which, therefore, must be concluded to have been the best, *at that time*) was designed by them,—when they abstained [see § 16] from recording it in writing,—to be of universal and eternal obligation;—in short, that they entrusted to *oral Tradition* any of the *essentials* of Christianity.† And, again, the opinions of any author, ancient or modern, are entitled to respectful consideration in proportion as he may have been a sensible, pious, and learned man: provided we draw the line distinctly between the works of divine messengers inspired from above, and those of fallible men.

But what is the object (unless it be to

* See Appendix, Note (L.)

† And yet one may find persons defending this view by alleging that we have the Scriptures themselves by Tradition. Any one may be believed to be serious in urging such an argument, if it is found that he places as much confidence in the genuineness of some account that has been transmitted from *mouth to mouth* by popular rumours from one end of the kingdom to another, as in a *letter* that has been transmitted over the same space. See Appendix, Note (K.)

mystify the readers, and draw off their attention from the real question) of dwelling on truths which are universally admitted,* not only in theory but in practice, by Christians of every denomination? Catechisms, oral or written,—expositions of Scripture—religious discourses or tracts, of some kind or other, &c., are in use, more or less, among all. The utility, and indeed necessity, of human instruction, both for young Christians and adults, has never, that I know of, been denied by any Christian Church or denomination. The only important distinction is between those who do, and those who do not, permit, and invite, and encourage their hearers to “search the Scriptures whether these things be so,” which they are taught by their pastors.

It is to be observed, however, that what I am speaking of is a reference to Scripture, as the *sole basis* of the articles of necessary faith,—the only *decisive authority*.

Some persons, while claiming reception for such and such confessions of faith, declare continually and with much earnestness, that they are teaching nothing but what is “*conformable* to Scripture,” “*agreeable* to Scripture,” &c. And the unwary are often misled by not attending to the important distinction between this,—between what is simply *agreeable* to Scripture,—and what is *derived from* Scripture,—*founded* on it, and claiming no other authority.

When it is said that the Old Testament and the New are *not at variance*, but *con-*

formable to each other, this is quite different from saying that either of them *derives all its authority* from the other. On the other hand, our Reformers do not maintain merely that the Creeds which they receive *are agreeable to Scripture*; but that they are to be received *because* they may be proved from Scripture.

The distinction, as I have above remarked, is apparent only, and not really important, between those who require the acceptance of what they teach, independently of Scripture, and those who do refer to Scripture as the ground of their *own* conviction, or at least as confirmatory of their teaching, but require *their* interpretations of Scripture to be implicitly received; denying to individuals the right and the duty* of judging ultimately for themselves. The real distinction is between those who do, and those who do not recognize this right and duty. For if a certain comment is to be received implicitly and without appeal, it not only is placed, practically, as far as relates to every thing except a mere question of *dignity*, on a level with Scripture,† but has also a strong—and as experience has abundantly proved,—an increasing tendency to supersede it. A regular and compact *system* of theology, professedly compiled from Scripture, or from “Scripture and Tradition blended together,”‡ if it be that which, after all, we must acquiesce in as infallible, whether it accord or not with what appears to *us* to be the sense of Scripture, being more compendious and methodical than the Sacred Books themselves, will naturally be preferred by the learner. And all study, properly so called, of the rest of Scripture,—(for on the above supposition, such a comment would be itself a part of Scripture, infallible and divinely inspired, as much as the rest)—all lively interest in

* It is no uncommon practice with some writers, to shelter (as in the present instance) some paradoxical tenet, when opposed, under the guise of a *truism*; and, when this has been admitted without suspicion, to unmask the battery as it were, and by a seemingly slight change, to convert a self-evident and insignificant truth into a dogma of fearful importance. Thus for instance, when we are sometimes told, with much solemn earnestness, of the importance of holding fast “the faith of the Holy Catholic Church,” this is explained as being “what has been held by *all* Christians, *always*, and *every where*.” [“quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus;”] and of course no one can think of denying that what has always been held *universally* by all Christians as a *part* of their faith, must be a part of the *universal* [or Catholic] faith. There “needs no ghost to tell us that;” as it is in fact only saying that “Catholic” means “Universal,” and that what is believed is believed. But when the wooden horse has been introduced, it is found to contain armed men concealed within it. “All Christians” is explained to mean “all the orthodox;” and the “orthodox” to be, those in agreement with the authors who are instructing us.

* See Dr. Hawkins on the Duty of Private Judgment.

† Among the Parliamentarians at the time of the Civil War, there were many,—at first a great majority,—who professed to obey the King’s commands, as *notified to them by Parliament*, and levied forces in the King’s name, against his person. If any one admitted Parliament to be the sole and authoritative interpreter and expounder of the regal commands, and this, without any check from any other power, it is plain that he virtually admitted the sovereignty of that Parliament, just as much as if he had recognized their formal deposition of the King. The parallelism of this case with the one before us is too obvious to need being dwelt on.

‡ See Essay (Third Series) on “Undue Reliance on Human Authority.”

the perusal,—would be nearly superseded by such an inspired compendium of doctrine; to which alone, as being far the most convenient for that purpose, habitual reference would be made in any question that might arise. Both would be regarded, indeed, as of divine authority; but the compendium, as the fused and purified metal; the other, as the *mine*, containing the crude ore.

§ 27. The uses are so important, and the abuses so dangerous, of the instruction which may be afforded by uninspired Christian teachers, that it may be worth while still farther to illustrate the subject by an analogy, homely perhaps and undignified, but which appears to me perfectly apposite, and fitted by its very familiarity to answer the better its purpose of affording explanation.

The utility of what is called paper currency is universally acknowledged and perceived. Without possessing any intrinsic value, it is a convenient representative of coins and ingots of the precious metals. And it possesses this character, from its being known or confidently believed, that those who issue it are ready, on demand, to exchange it for those precious metals. And the occurrence, from time to time, of this demand, and the constant liability to it, are the great *check* to an over issue of the paper money. But if paper money be made a legal tender and not convertible into gold and silver at the pleasure of the holder—if persons are required to receive it in payment, by an arbitrary decree of the Government, either that paper *shall* be considered as having an intrinsic value, or again, that it shall be considered as representing bullion, or land,* or some other intrinsically valuable commodity, the existence and amount of which, and the ability of Government to produce it, are to be believed, not by the test of any one's demanding and obtaining payment, but *on the word of the very government* that issues this inconvertible paper currency, then the consequences which ensue are well known. The precious metals gradually disappear, and a profusion of worthless paper alone remains.

Even so it is with human teaching in religion. It is highly useful, as long as the instructors refer the People to Scripture, exhorting and assisting them to “prove all things and hold fast that which

is right;”—as long as the Church “ordains nothing contrary to God’s word,”—nothing, in short, beyond what a Christian Community is authorized both by the essential character of a Community, and by Christ’s sanction, to enact; and requires nothing to be believed as a point of Christian faith “that may not be declared”* (i. e. satisfactorily proved) to be taken from Holy Scripture. But when a Church or any of its Pastors ceases to make this payment on demand—if I may so speak—of Scripture-proof,† and requires implicit faith, on human authority, in human dogmas or interpretations, all *check* is removed to the introduction of any conceivable amount of falsehood and superstition; till human inventions may have overlaid and disfigured Gospel truth, and Man’s usurped authority have gradually superseded divine: even as was the case with the rabbinical Jews, who continued to profess the most devout reverence for the Mosaic Law, even at the time when we are told that “in vain they worshipped God, teaching for doctrines the commandments of men.”‡

§ 28. It is worth remarking also that the persons who make this use of Tradition are often found distinctly advocating the deliberate suppression, in the instruction of the great mass of Christians, of a large portion of the Gospel doctrines which are the most earnestly set forth in Scripture; as a sort of esoteric mystery, of which ordinary believers are unworthy, and which should be “reserved” as a reward for a long course of pious submission. This system of “reserve” or “economy” is vindicated, by studiously confounding it with the *gradual* initiation of Christians in the knowledge of their religion, in proportion as they are “able to bear it;” i. e. able and willing to understand each point that is presented to their minds: and the necessity of gradual teaching,—of reading the first line of a passage before the second,—and the care requisite to avoid teaching any thing which, though true in itself, would be falsely understood by the hearers, is thus confounded with the system of withholding a portion of Gospel truth from those

* This was the case with the Assignats and Mandats of France.

* The Word “declared” is likely to mislead the English reader, from its being ordinarily used in the present day in a different sense. The Latin “*declarare*” of which it was evidently intended to be a translation, signifies “to make clear”—“to set forth plainly.”

† See Appendix, Note (M.)

‡ See Dr. Hawkins on Tradition.

able and willing to receive it;—the system of “shunning to set before men all the counsel of God,” and of having one kind of religion for the initiated few, and another for the mass of the Christian World. Very different was the Apostle Paul’s Gospel, which he assures us, if it was hid, was hid from them that are lost,” (men on the road to destruction, ἀπολλυμένων,) “whom the god of this world hath blinded.”

But the charge of teaching something different from what they inwardly believe, the advocates of this system repel, by alleging that all they do teach is agreeable to Scripture, although they withhold a part, and do not teach *all* that is to be found in Scripture: as if this did not as effectually constitute two different religions as if they had added on something of their own. For, by expunging or suppressing at pleasure, that which remains may become totally different from what the religion would have been if exhibited as a whole.

It has been remarked that every statue existed in the block of marble from which it was carved; and that the Sculptor merely *discloses* it, by removing the superfluous portions;—that the Medicean Venus, for instance, has not in it a single particle which did not originally exist exactly in the same relative position as now; the artist having *added* nothing, but merely *taken away*. Yet the statue is as widely different a thing from the original block, as if something *had* been added. What should we think of a man’s pleading that such an image is not contemplated in the commandment against *making* an image, because it is not “made,” as if it had been moulded, or cast, out of materials *brought together* for the purpose? Should any one scruple to worship a moulded, but not a sculptured image, his scruple would not be more absurdly misplaced, than if he should hold himself bound, in his teaching, not to *add on* to Scripture any thing he did *not* believe to be true, but allowed to suppress any portions of Gospel truth at his pleasure, and to exhibit to his People the remaining portions, as the whole system of their religion.

It may be added also, that as a Christian teacher is not authorized either to suppress any portion of the Gospel as unfit for those disposed and able to receive it, or to inculcate as an essential portion of it, any thing not revealed in Scripture, but dependent on Tradition,

whether alone or “blended with Scripture,” so, he ought not to insist on the acceptance, as essential, of any thing which, even though it may be satisfactorily proved from Scripture, yet it is so slightly hinted at there, that till attention has been called to it, and the arguments by which it is supported brought together, whole Churches for whole generations together may have studied Scripture without finding it. I do not say that nothing of this character *should be maintained*, and supported by arguments which may satisfactorily prove it; but it should not be *maintained as something necessary* to Salvation, unless it is *clearly* revealed to an ordinary reader of candid mind.

For instance, there are some who think that an intermediate state of consciousness,—and others, of unconsciousness,—between death and the resurrection,—may be proved from Scripture; but I cannot think it justifiable to represent *either* opinion as an essential article of faith.

Again, the call of the Gentiles to be partakers with the Jews of the privileges of God’s People, and the termination of the Mosaic dispensation, are contained, but not *clearly* revealed, in the Old Testament, and in the discourses of our Lord; these doctrines are not so *obviously* contained there, as to make them an essential part of the Jewish faith. This, therefore, was a case in which a *fresh and distinct declaration*, supported by miraculous evidence, was fairly to be expected: and *this was accordingly afforded*. A distinct miraculous revelation was made to the Apostle Peter as to this very point.*

§ 29. In saying that the essential doctrines of Christianity are to be found in Scripture, or may be satisfactorily proven from it, and that the enactments of any Church, with a view to good government, “decency and order,” derive a sufficient authority *from that very circumstance*, inasmuch as the Apostle commands us to “do all things decently and in order,” and our Heavenly Master has given power to “bind and loose” in respect to such regulations, I do not mean to imply that such reasons always *will*, in fact, prove satisfactory to careless and uncandid reasoners—to the fanciful, the wilful, and

* According to our Lord’s promise respecting the Holy Spirit:—He shall teach you all things, and bring all things to your remembrance,” &c.

the arrogant. But nothing is in reality gained by endeavouring to add force to sound reasons by the addition of unsound ones. To seek, when men will not listen to valid arguments, for some other arguments which they *will* listen to will, I am convinced, (to say nothing of its unfairness,) be found in the end to be unwise policy.

Yet I cannot but suspect that the principles I have been deprecating must have been sometimes maintained by persons not altogether blind to the inconsistent consequences they lead to, but actuated by a desire of impressing on the minds of the multitude not only an additional confidence in the doctrines of our Church, but also that reverence, which is so often found to be deficient, for Church institutions and enactments, and for regularly ordained Christian Ministers: and that they have been influenced by a dread of certain consequences as following from an adherence to what I have pointed out as the only sound and secure principles.*

For instance, it has been thought dangerous to acknowledge a power in any Body of uninspired men to depart in the smallest degree from the recorded precedents of the earliest Churches: including (be it remembered by the way) those existing after the times of the Apostles, and therefore consisting, themselves, of uninspired men. And a danger there certainly is; a danger of the mis-use of any power, privilege, or liberty, trusted to any one.

* For instance, the view taken (see *Thoughts on the Sabbath*) of the Lord's Day, as a Church festival observed in memory of Christ's resurrection on the first day of the week, and not in compliance with the Mosaic Law, I have seen objected to, on the ground that "men are apt not to pay so much deference to the enactments of the Church, as to express commands of Scripture." That is to say, although the Mosaic Law be *not* really binding on Christians (for, if it were, and the observance of the Lord's day were a part of it, *that* would supersede all need of other arguments) yet it is advisable to teach men that it *is*, in order that they may be the more ready to observe the Lord's Day. The Church therefore is to be represented,—and that to men who, by supposition, are disposed to *undervalue* Church authority,—as having taken the liberty to *alter* a divine commandment of acknowledged obligation, by changing the *seventh* day of the week to the *first* (besides alterations in the mode of observance) in compliance with a supposed tradition, that the Apostles sanctioned—which it is plain from Scripture they did not—this transference of the Sabbath. This is surely expecting an *unreasonable* deference for Church authority from men who, it is supposed, are unwilling to yield to it such a deference as is *reasonable*.

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The Christian course is beset by dangers. They are an essential part of our trial on Earth. We are required to be on our guard against them; but we must never expect, here below, to be exempt from them. And there is nothing necessarily gained by exchanging one danger for another; the danger of erring in our own judgment, for that of following imperfect, uncertain or corrupted traditions.

But to maintain the right of any Community—a Church among others—to establish, abrogate, or alter, regulations and institutions of any kind, is understood by some as amounting to an *approval* of every thing that either ever *has* been done, or conceivably *might* be done, by virtue of that claim; as if a sanction were thus given to perpetual changes, the most rash, uncalled for, and irrational. But what is left to men's *discretion*, is not therefore meant to be left to their *indiscretion*. To maintain that a power exists, is not to maintain either that it matters not how it is used, or again that it cannot possibly be abused.

The absurdity of such a mode of reasoning would be at once apparent in any other case. For instance, the Senate, Parliament, or other legislative Body of this or any other country, has clearly a *right* to pass or to reject any proposed law that is brought before it; and has an *equal right* to do the one or the other; now no one in his senses would understand by this, that it is *equally right* to do the one or the other:—that whatever is left to the legislator's decision, must be a matter of absolute indifference; and that whatever is to be determined by his *judgment*, may fairly be determined according to his *caprice*.

A Church,—and the same may be said of a State,—may so far abuse its power, and exceed the just limits of that power, as to make enactments which a man may be bound in conscience to disobey; as, for instance, if either an ecclesiastical or civil Government should command men (as the Roman Emperors did the early Christians) to join in acts of idolatrous worship; or (as was done towards the Saxon Clergy) to put away their wives. But this does not do away the truth of the general assertion that "the Powers that be are ordained of God;"—that both civil and ecclesiastical Governments have a right to make enactments that are *not* contrary to religion or morality.

And again; even these enactments,—such as a State or a Church does possess

a right to make,—it is not only conceivable, but highly probable, that there will be some which may appear to many persons, and perhaps with reason, to be not the very wisest and best. In such a case, a man is bound to do his best towards the alteration of those laws;* but he is not, in the mean time, exempted from obedience to laws which he may not fully approve.† For supposing his objections to any law to be well founded, still, as infallibility does not exist among men, all Professions and precepts relative to the duty of submission to Government would be nugatory, if that duty were to be suspended and remain in abeyance, till an unerring government should arise.

If any one, accordingly, is convinced that a certain Church is essentially unscriptural, he cannot with a sound conscience belong to its communion. But he may consistently adhere to it, even though he should be of opinion that in some non-essential points it has adopted regulations which are not the most expedient. He may still consistently hold these to be binding, as coming from a competent authority; though he may wish that they had been, or that they should be, settled otherwise.

§ 30. But as there are some persons who are too ready to separate from any religious Community on slight grounds, or even through mere caprice, to “heap up to themselves teachers, having itching ears,” it has been thought,—or at least maintained,—that the only way of affording complete satisfaction and repose to the scrupulous, and of repressing schism, is to uphold, under the title of “Church principles,” the doctrine that no one is a member of Christ’s Church, and an heir of the covenanted Gospel promises, who is not under a Ministry ordained by Bishops descended in an unbroken chain from the Apostles.

Now what is the degree of satisfactory assurance that is thus afforded to the scrupulous consciences of any members of an Episcopal Church? If a man consider it as highly *probable* that the *particular Minister* at whose hands he receives the sacred Ordinances is really thus apostolically descended, *this* is the very utmost point to which he can, with any semblance of reason, attain: and the more he reflects and inquires, the more cause for hesitation he will find. There is not

a Minister in all Christendom who is able to trace up with any approach to certainty his own spiritual pedigree. The sacramental virtue (for such it is, that is implied,—whether the term be used or not in the principle I have been speaking of) dependent on the imposition of hands, with a due observance of apostolical usages, by a Bishop, himself duly consecrated, after having been in like manner baptized into the Church, and ordained Deacon and Priest,—this sacramental virtue, if a single link of the chain be faulty, must, on the above principles, be utterly nullified ever after, in respect of all the links that hang on that one. For if a Bishop has not been duly consecrated, or had not been, previously, rightly ordained, his Ordinations are null; and so are the ministrations of those ordained by him; and their Ordination of others; (supposing any of the persons ordained by him to attain to the episcopal office) and so on, without end. The poisonous taint of informality, if it once creep in undetected, will spread the infection of nullity to an indefinite and irremediable extent.

And who can undertake to pronounce that during that long period usually designated as the Dark Ages, no such taint ever was introduced? Irregularities could not have been wholly excluded without a perpetual miracle; and that no such miraculous interference existed, we have even historical proof. Amidst the numerous corruptions of doctrine and of practice, and gross superstitions, that crept in, during those ages, we find recorded descriptions not only of the profound ignorance and profligacy of life, of many of the Clergy, but also of the grossest irregularities in respect of discipline and form. We read of Bishops consecrated when mere children;—of men officiating who barely knew their letters—of Prelates expelled, and others put into their places, by violence;—of illiterate and profligate laymen, and habitual drunkards, admitted to Holy Orders; and in short, of the prevalence of every kind of disorder, and reckless disregard of the decency which the Apostle enjoins. It is inconceivable that any one even moderately acquainted with history, can feel a certainty, or any approach to certainty, that, amidst all this confusion and corruption, every requisite form was, in every instance, strictly adhered to, by men, many of them openly profane and secular, unrestrained by public opinion, through the gross ignorance of the population

* See “Appeal in behalf of Church Government” (Houlston;) a very able pamphlet.

† See Sermon on Obedience to Laws.

among which they lived; and that no one not duly consecrated or ordained was admitted to sacred offices.

Even in later and more civilized and enlightened times, the probability of an irregularity, though very greatly diminished, is yet diminished only, and not absolutely destroyed. Even in the memory of persons living, there existed a Bishop concerning whom there was so much mystery and uncertainty prevailing as to when, where, and by whom he had been ordained, that doubts existed in the mind, of many persons whether he had ever been ordained at all. I do not say that there was good ground for the suspicion: but I speak of the fact, that it did prevail; and that the circumstances of the case were such as to make manifest the *possibility* of such an irregularity occurring under such circumstances.

Now, let any one proceed on the hypothesis that there are, suppose, but a hundred links connecting any particular minister with the Apostles, and let him even suppose that not above half of this number pass through such periods as admit of any possible irregularity; and then, placing at the lowest estimate the probability of defectiveness in respect of each of the remaining fifty, taken separately, let him consider what amount of probability will result from the *multiplying* of the whole together.* The ultimate consequence must be, that any one who sincerely believes that his claim to the benefits of the Gospel-Covenant depends on his own Minister's claim to the supposed sacramental virtue of true Ordination, and this again, on perfect Apostolical Succession as above described, must be involved, in proportion as he reads, and inquires, and reflects, and reasons on the subject, in the most distressing doubt and perplexity.

* Supposing it to be one hundred to one, in each separate case, in favour of the legitimacy and regularity of the transmission, and the links to amount to fifty, (or any other number) the probability of the unbroken continuity of the whole chain must be computed as 99-100 of 99-100 of 99-100, &c., to the end of the whole fifty. Of course, if different data are assumed, or a different system is adopted of computing the rate at which the uncertainty increases at each step, the ultimate result will be different as to the *degree* of uncertainty; but when once it is made apparent that a considerable and continually increasing uncertainty does exist, and that the result must be, in respect of any individual case, a matter of *chance*, it can be of no great consequence to ascertain precisely what the chances are on each side.

It is no wonder, therefore, that the advocates of this theory studiously disparage reasoning, deprecate all exercise of the mind in reflection, decry appeals to evidence, and lament that even the power of reading should be imparted to the People. It is not without cause that they dread and lament "an Age of too much light," and wish to involve religion in "a solemn and awful gloom."* It is not without cause that, having removed the Christian's confidence from a rock, to base it on sand, they forbid all prying curiosity to examine their foundation.

The fallacy, indeed, by which, according to the above principles, the Christian is taught to rest his own personal hopes of salvation on the individual claims to "Apostolical succession" of the particular Minister he is placed under, is one so gross that few are thoughtless enough to be deceived by it in any case where Religion is not concerned;—where, in short, a man has not been taught to make a virtue of uninquiring, unthinking acquiescence. For the fallacy consists in confounding together the unbroken Apostolical succession of a *Christian Ministry generally*, and the same succession, in an unbroken line, of *this or that individual Minister*. The existence of such an *Order of Men as Christian Ministers*, continuously from the time of the Apostles to this day, is perhaps as complete a moral certainty, as any historical fact can be; because (independently of the various incidental notices by historians, of such a class of persons) it is plain that if, at the present day, or a century ago, or ten centuries ago, a number of men had appeared in the world, professing (as our Clergy do now) to hold a recognized office in a Christian Church, to which they had been regularly appointed as successors to others, whose predecessors, in like manner, had held the same, and so on, from the time of the Apostles,—if, I say, such a pretence had been put forth by a set of men assuming an office which no one had ever heard of before,—it is plain that they would at once have been refuted and exposed. And as this will apply equally to each successive generation of Christian Ministers, till we come up to the time when the institution was confessedly new,—that is, to the time when Christian Ministers were appointed by the Apostles, who professed themselves eye-witnesses of the Resurrection,

* Κλέπτει δὲ τὴν νουτὸς ἀμείνω.

we have (as Leslie has remarked*) a standing Monument, in the Christian Ministry, of the fact of that event as having been proclaimed immediately after the time when it was said to have occurred. This therefore is fairly brought forward as an evidence of its truth.

But if each man's Christian hope is made to rest on his receiving the Christian Ordinances at the hands of a Minister to whom the sacramental virtue that gives efficacy to those Ordinances has been transmitted in unbroken succession from hand to hand, every thing must depend on *that particular Minister*: and his claim is by no means established from our merely establishing the uninterrupted existence of *such a class of men as Christian Ministers*. "You teach me," a man might say, "that my salvation depends on the possession by *you*—the *particular* Pastor under whom I am placed—of a certain qualification; and when I ask for the proof that you possess it, you prove to me that it is possessed *generally*, by a *certain class* of persons of whom you are one, and probably by a large majority of them!" How ridiculous it would be thought, if a man laying claim to the throne of some Country should attempt to establish it without producing and proving his own pedigree, merely by showing that that Country had *always been under hereditary regal government!*

§ 31. Then as to the danger of Schism, nothing can be more calculated to create or increase it, than to superadd to all the other sources of difference among Christians, those additional ones resulting from the theory we are considering. Besides all the divisions liable to arise relative to the essential *doctrines* of Scripture, and to the most important points in any *system* of Church-Government, Schisms, the most difficult to be remedied, may be created by that theory from *individual cases* of alleged irregularity.

A most remarkable instance of this is furnished in the celebrated schism of the Donatist, in Africa, in the beginning of the fourth century.† They differed in no point of doctrine or Church-discipline from their opponents, the Orthodox, (that is, the predominant party;) but were at issue with them on the question as to an alleged irregularity in the appointment of a certain Bishop; whose ordinations consequently of other Bishops and Presby-

ters, they inferred, were void; and hence the baptisms administered by those ministers were void, and their whole ministration profane; so that they rebaptized all who joined their party, (as I believe the Greek Church does, to this day,) and regarded their opponents in the light of Heathen. And this schism distracted the greater part of the Eastern portion of the Church for upwards of two hundred years.

And an attempt was made in the last century, by the Non-jurors, to introduce, in these realms, the everspreading canker of a similar schism. They denied the episcopal character of those who had succeeded the displaced prelates; and, consequently, regarded as invalid the Orders conferred by them; thus preparing the way for all the consequences resulting from the Donatist schism.

The sect died away before long, through a happy inconsistency on the part of its supporters; who admitted the claims of the substituted Bishops *on the death of their predecessors*; though it is hard to understand how those who were not true Bishops at first, could *become* such, through a subsequent event, without being reconsecrated: the Presbyters ordained by them becoming at the same time true Presbyters, though their Ordination *had been* invalid. It seems like maintaining that a woman, who during her husband's life-time marries another man, and has a family, becomes, on her real husband's death, the lawful wife of the other, and her children legitimate.

More recently still, an attempt was made of the same nature, on the occasion of the suppression (as it was called) of some of the Irish Bishoprics; that is, the *union* of them with others.* It has been publicly and distinctly declared that an effort was made to represent this measure as amounting to an "interruption of Apostolical succession:" though it is not very easy to say how this was to be made out, even on the above principles.†

* I do not mean to maintain that this was seriously believed by all those—some of them men of intelligence and learning—who put it forward. It may very likely have been one of their "*exoteric doctrines*," designed only for the Multitude. But, be this as it may, they evidently meant that it should be believed by others, if not by themselves.

† According to this view, the Apostolical succession must have been long since lost in some parts of England, and the greatest part of Ireland. For there were many such unions existing *before* the Act in question: such as Cork and Ross, Ferns and Leighlin, and several others.

* Short Method with Deists.

† See Waddington's Ecclesiastical History, &c.

In short, there is no imaginable limit to the schisms that may be introduced and kept up through the operation of these principles, advocated especially with a view to the repression of schism.

§ 32. Some have imagined however that since no rule is laid down in Scripture as to the number of persons requisite to form a Christian Community, or as to the mode in which any such Community is to be set on foot, it must follow that persons left to Scripture as their sole decisive authority, will be at liberty,—all, and any of them,—to form and dissolve religious Communities at their pleasure;—to join and withdraw from any Church, as freely as if it were a Club or other such institution; and to appoint themselves or others to any ministerial Office, as freely as the members of any Club elect Presidents, Secretaries, and other functionaries.

And it is true that this license has been assumed by weak and rash men; who have thus given occasion to persons of the class who “mistake reverse of wrong for right,” to aim at counteracting one error by advocating another. But so far are these anarchical consequences from being a just result of the principles here maintained, that I doubt whether, on any other subject besides Religion, a man would not be reckoned insane who should so reason.

To take the analogous case of civil government: hardly any one in his right mind would attempt a universal justification of rebellion, on the ground that men may be placed in circumstances which morally authorize them to do what, in totally *different* circumstances, *would* be rebellion.

Suppose, for instance, a number of emigrants, bound for some Colony, to be shipwrecked on a desert island, such as afforded them means of subsistence, but precluded all reasonable hope of their quitting it: or suppose them to have taken refuge there as fugitives from intolerable oppression, or from a conquering enemy; (no uncommon case in ancient times) or to be the sole survivors of a pestilence or earthquake which had destroyed the rest of the nation: no one would maintain that these shipwrecked emigrants or fugitives, were bound, or were permitted, to remain—themselves and their posterity—in a state of anarchy, on the ground of there being no one among them who could claim hereditary or other right to govern them. It would clearly be right,

and wise, and necessary, that they should regard themselves as constituted, by the very circumstance of their position, a civil Community; and should assemble to enact such laws, and appoint such magistrates, as they might judge most suitable to their circumstances. And obedience to those laws and governors, as soon as the Constitution was settled, would become a moral duty to all the members of the Community: and this, even though some of the enactments might appear, or might be, (though not at variance with the immutable laws of morality, yet) considerably short of perfection. The King, or other Magistrates thus appointed, would be legitimate rulers: and the laws framed by them, valid and binding. The precept of “submitting to every ordinance of man, for the Lord’s sake,” and of “rendering to all their due,” would apply in this case as completely as in respect of any Civil Community that exists.

And yet these men would have been doing what, in *ordinary circumstances*, would have been manifest rebellion. For if these same, or any other individuals, subjects of our own, or of any existing Government, were to take upon themselves to throw off their allegiance to it, *without* any such necessity, and were to pretend to constitute themselves an independent Sovereign State, and proceed to elect a King or Senate,—to frame a Constitution, and to enact laws, all resting on their own self-created authority, no one would doubt that, however wise in themselves those laws might be, and however personally well qualified the magistrates thus appointed,—they would not be legitimate governors, or valid laws: and those who had so attempted to establish them, would be manifest rebels.

A similar rule will apply to the case of ecclesiastical Communities. If any number of individuals,—not having the plea of an express revelation to the purpose, or again, of their deliberate conviction that the Church they separate from is fundamentally erroneous and unscriptural—take upon themselves to constitute a new Church, according to their own fancy, and to appoint themselves or others to ministerial offices, without having any recognized authority to do so, derived from the existing religious Community of which they were members, but merely on the ground of supposed personal qualifications, then however wise in them-

selves the institutions, and however, in themselves; fit, the persons appointed, there can be no more doubt that the guilt of Schism would be incurred in this case, than that the other, just mentioned, would be an act of rebellion.

Or again, if certain members, lay or clerical, of any Church, should think fit to meet together and constitute themselves a kind of Synod for deciding some question of orthodoxy, and should proceed to denounce publicly one of their brethren as a heretic, there can be no doubt that—whether his doctrines were right or wrong,—these, his self-appointed judges (whatever abhorrence of Schism they might express, and however strongly they might put forth their own claim to be emphatically the advocates of Church unity) would be altogether schismatical in their procedure. If the Apostle's censure of "those that cause divisions" does not apply to this case, it may fairly be asked what meaning his words can have.

On the other hand, men placed in the situation of the supposed shipwrecked emigrants or exiles above spoken of, would be as much authorized, and bound, to aim at the advantages of a Religious, as of a Civil Community; only with this difference, arising out of the essential characters of the two respectively; that they would not be authorized in the one case, as they would in the other, to resort to *secular coercion*.* Compliance with civil regulations may and must be *absolutely enforced*; but not so, the profession of a particular Creed, or conformity to a particular mode of Worship.

Another point of distinction between the formation of a Civil and Ecclesiastical Constitution arises out of this circumstance, that it was plainly the design of the Apostles that there should be as much as possible of *free intercommunion*, and facility of interchange of members, among Christians Churches. Consequently, when it is said, here and elsewhere, that each of these is bound to make such enactments respecting non-essentials, as its governors may judge best, it is not meant that they have to consider merely what would seem *in itself* best, and supposing *they* were the *only Christian Community* existing; but they must also take care to raise up no *unnecessary barrier* of separation between the members of their own and of other—essentially pure—Churches. Any

arrangements or institutions, &c., which would tend to check the free intercourse, and weaken the ties of brotherhood, among all Christ's followers throughout the world, should be as much as possible avoided.

This, however, is no exception to the general rule, but an application of it. For, those enactments which should tend to defeat, without necessity, one of the objects which the Apostles proposed, would (however good in themselves) evidently *not* be the best, for that very reason.

But it would be absurd to maintain that men placed in such a situation as has been here supposed, are to be shut out, generation after generation, from the Christian Ordinances, and the Gospel covenant. Their circumstances would constitute them (as many as could be brought to agree in the essentials of faith and Christian worship) a Christian Community; and would require them to do that which, if done *without* such necessity, would be schismatical. To make regulations for the Church thus constituted, and to appoint as its ministers the fittest persons that could be found among them, and to celebrate the Christian Rites, would be a proceeding not productive, as in the other case, of division, but of union. And it would be a compliance,—clearly pointed out to them by the Providence which had placed them in that situation,—with the manifest will of our Heavenly Master, that Christians should live in a religious Community, under such Officers and such Regulations as are essential to the existence of every Community.

To say that Christian ministers thus appointed would be, to all intents and purposes, real legitimate Christian ministers, and that the Ordinances of such a Church would be no less valid and efficacious (supposing always that they are not in themselves superstitious and unscriptural) than those of any other Church, is merely to say in other words, that it would be a real Christian Church; possessing, consequently, in common with *all Communities* of whatever kind, the essential rights of a Community to have Officers and By-laws; and possessing also, in common with all *Christian Communities*, (*i. e.* Churches) the especial sanction of our Lord, and his promise of ratifying ("binding in Heaven") its enactments.*

* See Appendix, Note (A.)

* See in Appendix, Note (N.) a quotation

It really does seem not only absurd, but even impious, to represent it as the Lord's will, that persons who are believers in his Gospel, should, in consequence of the circumstances in which his Providence has placed them, condemn themselves and their posterity to live as Heathens, instead of conforming as closely as those circumstances will allow, to the institutions and directions of Christ and his Apostles, by combining themselves into a Christian Society, regulated and conducted, in the best way they can, on Gospel principles. And if such a Society does enjoy the divine blessing and favour, it follows that its proceedings, its enactments, its officers, are legitimate and apostolical, as long as they are conformable to the principles which the Apostles have laid down and recorded for our use: even as those (of whatever race "after the flesh") who embraced and faithfully adhered to the Gospel, were called by the Apostle, "Abraham's seed,"* and "the Israel of God."†

The Ministers of such a Church as I have been supposing, would rightly claim "Apostolical succession," because they would *rightfully hold the same office* which the Apostles conferred on those "Elders whom they ordained in every City." And it is impossible for any one of sound mind, seriously to believe that the recognition of such claims in a case like the one here supposed, affords a fair precedent for men who should wantonly secede from the Church to which they had belonged, and take upon themselves to ordain Ministers and form a new and independent Church according to their own fancy.

§ 33. I have spoken of seceding from "the Church to which they had belonged," because, in each case the presumption† is in favour of *that*; not, necessarily, in favour of the Church to which a man's *ancestors* may formerly have belonged,§ or the one which can

boast the greatest *antiquity*, or, which is *established* by the Civil Government. The Church, whatever it is, in which each man was originally enrolled a member, has the first claim to his allegiance, supposing there is nothing in its doctrines or practice which he is convinced is unscriptural and wrong. He is of course bound, in deference to the higher authority of Christ and his Apostles, to renounce its communion, if he does feel such a conviction; but not from motives of mere fancy, or worldly advantage.

All separation, in short, must be *either a duty, or a sin*.*

And the Christian's obligation to submit to the (not unscriptural) Laws and Officers of his Church, being founded on the principles above explained, is independent of all considerations of the regularity or irregularity of the original formation of that Church; else, indeed, no one could be certain what were his duties as a member of a certain Church, without entering on long and difficult researches into ecclesiastical history: such as are far beyond the reach of ninety-nine persons in the hundred. A certain Church may, suppose, have originated in a rash separation from another Church, on insufficient grounds; but for an individual to separate from it *merely for that reason*, would

belonged to that; nor would such a reform confer on the Bishop of Rome any power over the Anglican Church.

* It may be necessary perhaps here to remind the reader that I am speaking of *separating from*, and *renouncing*, some Church: not of merely *joining* and becoming a member of some other. This latter does not imply the former, except when there is some *essential point of difference* between the two Churches. When there is none, a man's becoming a member of another Church on changing his residence,—as, for instance, a member of the Anglican Church, on going to reside in Scotland or America, where Churches essentially in agreement with ours exist—this is the very closest conformity to the principles and practice of the Apostles. In their days (and it would have been the same, always, and every where, had their principles been universally adhered to) a Christian of the Church of Corinth for instance, on taking up his abode, suppose, at Ephesus, where there was a Christian Church, differing perhaps in some non-essential customs and forms, but agreeing in essentials, was received into that Church as a brother; and this was so far from implying his *separation* from the former, that he would be received into the Ephesian Church only on letters of recommendation* from the Corinthian.

from an Appeal of Luther's in 1520, cited in D'Aubigné's "History of the Reformation."

* Rom. v. 16. † Gal. vi. 16.

‡ See Rhetoric, Part I. ch. 3, § 2.

§ Accordingly, if we suppose the case of the Romish Church reforming all its errors, and returning to the state of its greatest purity, although we should with joy "give the right hand of fellowship" to its members, it would be utterly unjustifiable for any member of our Church to throw off his allegiance to it and go over to the Church of Rome, on the ground of his *ancestors* having

* Ἐπιστολαὶ συστάται. See 2 Cor.

be not escaping but incurring the guilt of Schism.*

It may indeed often be very desirable to attempt the re-union of Christian Communities that had been separated on insufficient grounds: but no individual is justified in renouncing, from motives of mere taste or convenience, the communion of the Church he belongs to, if he can remain in it with a safe conscience.

As for the question, what are, and what are not, to be accounted essential points,—what will, and what will not, justify, and require, separation,—it would be foreign from the present purpose to discuss it. The differences between two Churches may appear essential, and non-essential, to two persons equally conscientious, and equally careful in forming a judgment. All I am insisting on is, that the matter is one which does call for that careful and conscientious judgment. A man should, deliberately, and with a sense of deep responsibility, make up his mind, as to what is, or is not, to the best of his judgment, essential, before he resolves on taking, or not taking, a step which must in every case be either a duty or a sin.

§ 34. It may be said however that it is superfluous to enter at all on the consideration of what *would* be allowable and right under some *supposed* circumstances, which are not our own; and to decide beforehand for some imaginary emergency that may never occur; at least never to ourselves.

It may be represented as an empty and speculative question to inquire whether our Ministry derive their authority from the Church, or the Church from them, as long as the rights *both* of the Church and its Ministers are but acknowledged. And if any one is satisfied both that our Ministers are ordained by persons descended in an unbroken series of Episcopal Ordination from the Apostles, and also that they are the regularly appointed and recognized Officers of a Christian Community constituted on Apostolical principles, it may be represented as impertinent to trouble him with questions as to *which* of these two things it is that gives them the rightful claim to that deference which, as it is, he is willing to pay to them.

It is in this way that the attempt is often made, and not seldom with success, to evade the discussion of important general

principles, and thus to secure an uninquiring acquiescence in false assumptions which will not stand the test of examination, and which when once admitted will lead to very important and very mischievous practical results. Why should we unsettle men's minds—one may hear it said—by speculations on any imaginary or impossible case, when they are satisfied as they are? As long as any one will but believe and do what he ought, what matters it whether his reasons for acquiescence are the most valid or not? And then, when, in this way, men's minds have been “settled” in false notions, some of them are likely to follow out a wrong principle into the pernicious consequences to which it fairly leads; and others again become most dangerously, and perhaps incurably, *unsettled*, when the sandy foundation they have been taught to build on happens to be washed away.

If, as has been above remarked, a man is taught that view of Apostolical succession which makes every thing depend on the unbroken series between the apostles and the *individual* minister from whom each man receives the Sacraments, or the individual bishop conferring Ordination,—a fact which never can be ascertained with certainty—and he is then presented with proofs, *not of this*, but of a different fact instead,—the Apostolical succession, *generally*, of the great Body of the ministers of his Church;—and if he is taught to acquiesce with consolatory confidence in the regulations and ordinances of the Church, not on such grounds as have been above laid down, but on the ground of their exact conformity to the model of the “ancient Church, which exact conformity is, in many cases, more than can be satisfactorily proved, and in some can be easily *disproved*, the result of the attempt so to settle men's minds, must be, with many, the most distressing doubt and perplexity. And others again, when taught to “blend with Scripture,” as a portion of Revelation, the traditions of the first three, or first four, or first seven, or fifteen centuries, may find it difficult to understand, when, and where, and why, they are to stop short abruptly in the application of the principles they have received: why, if one general Council is to be admitted as having divine authority to bind the conscience, and supersede private judgment, another is to be rejected by private judgment: and that too by the judgment of men who are not agreed with each other, or even themselves, whether the

* For some very sensible and valuable remarks on this subject, see Hinds' History of the Rise and Early Progress of Christianity, vol. ii. p. 42.

council of Trent, for instance, is to be regarded as the beginning of the Romish Apostacy, or as a promising omen of improvement in the Church of Rome. That man must be strangely constituted who can find consolatory security for his faith in such a guide;—who can derive satisfactory confidence from the oracles of a Proteus!

§ 35. Moreover, the supposed case of Christians deprived of regular succession of Episcopally ordained Ministers, and left to determine what course they ought, under such circumstances, to take, is *not* inconceivable, or impossible, or unprecedented; nor again, *even if it were*, would the consideration of such a question be necessarily an unprofitable speculation; because it will often happen that by putting a supposed case (even when such as could not possibly occur) we can the most easily and most clearly ascertain on what *principle* a person is acting. Thus when Plato* puts the impossible case of your possessing the ring of Gyges,† which, according to the legend, could make the bearer invisible, and demands how you would then act, he applies a kind of test, which *decomposes*, as the chemists say, the complex mass of motives that may influence a man, and calls on you to consider whether you abstain from bad actions through fear of the censure of the world, or from abhorrence of evil in itself.

So again—to take another instance—if any one is asked how men ought to act when living under a Government professing, and enforcing under penalties, a false religion, and requiring of its subjects idolatrous worship, and other practices contrary to Scripture, if he should object to the question, on the ground that there is no prospect of *his* being so circumstanced, and that he is living, and may calculate on continuing to live, under a Government

which inculcates a true religion, it would be justly inferred that he was conscious of something unsound in his principles, from his evading a test that goes to ascertain whether he regards religious truth and the command of God, as things to be adhered to at all events, or merely, when coinciding with the requisitions of Government.

So also, in the present case: when a Church possesses Ministers who are the regularly appointed officers of a Christian Community constituted on evangelical principles, and who are also ordained by persons descended in an unbroken series from those ordained by the Apostles, the two circumstances *coincide*, on which, according to the two different principles, respectively, above treated of, the legitimacy and apostolical commission of Christian Ministers may be made to depend. Now in order to judge fairly, and to state clearly the decision, *which* foundation we resolve to rest on, it is requisite to propose a case (even supposing—which is very far from being the fact—that it could not actually occur) in which these two circumstances do *not* come together; and then to pronounce which it is that we regard as essential.

§ 36. As a matter of fact, there can be no reasonable doubt that the Apostles did “ordain Elders in every city.” Even if there had been no record of their doing so, we might have inferred it from the very fact of their instituting Christian Societies; since every Society must have Officers; and the founder of a Society will naturally take upon him to nominate the first Officers; as well as to “set in order the rest” of the appointments.* And those Officers, acting in the name and on the behalf of the Community, would, of course, appoint others to succeed them; and so on, from generation to generation. As long as every thing went on correctly in each Church, and its doctrines and practices remained sound, there would be nothing to interrupt this orderly course of things. But whenever it happened that the Rulers of any Church departed from the Christian faith and practice which it is their business to preserve,—when, for instance, they corrupted their worship with superstitions, made a traffic of “indulgences,” and “taught for doctrines the commandments of men,” by “blending” human traditions with Scripture, and making them, either wholly or

* “Atque hoc loco, philosophi quidam, minime mali illi quidem, sed non satis acuti, fictam et commentitiam fabulam prolatam dicunt a Platone: quasi vero ille, aut fictum id esse, aut fieri potuisse defendat. Hæc est vis hujus annuli et hujus exempli, si nemo sciturus, nemo ne suspicaturus quidem sit, cum aliquid, divitiarum, potentie, dominationis libidinis, causa feceris,—si id diis hominibusque futurum sit semper ignotum, sisne facturus. Negant id fieri posse. Quanquam potest id quidem; sed quæro, quod negant posse, id si posset, quidnam facerent? Urgent rustice sane: negant enim posse, et in eo perstant. Hoc verbum quid valeat, non vident. Cum enim quærimus, si possint celare, quid facturi sint, non quærimus, possintne celare,” &c.—*Cic. de Off.* b. iii. c. 9.

† Rhetoric, p. i. c. 2, § 8.

* 1 Cor.

in part, the substitute, as a rule of faith, for the records of inspiration,—in any such case, it became the duty of all those who perceived the inroads of such errors, to aim at the reformation of them; and when all or any of the Spiritual Pastors of such a Church obstinately stood out against reform, to throw off their subjection to persons so abusing their sacred office, and, at all events, reform themselves as they best could. It is as plain a duty for men so circumstanced to obey their Heavenly Master, and forsake those who have apostatized from Him, as it would be for the loyal portion of a garrison of soldiers to revolt from a general who had turned traitor to his King, and was betraying the city into the enemy's hands. So far from being rebellious subjects in *thus* revolting, they would be guilty of rebellion if they did not.

In like manner, the very circumstances in which such a Body of reformers, as I have been alluding to, are placed, confer on them that independence which they would have been unjustifiable in assuming wantonly. The right is bestowed, and the duty imposed on them, of separation from the unreformed, which, under opposite circumstances, would have been schismatical. They are authorized, and bound, by the very nature of their situation, either to subsist as a distinct Community, or to join some other Church;* even as the vitality which Nature has conferred on the scion of a tree, enables it, *when cut off* from the parent stock, either to push forth fresh roots of its own, or to unite, as a graft, with the stock of some kindred tree.

It is for men so circumstanced to do their best according to their own deliberate judgment, to meet their difficulties, to supply their deficiencies, and to avail themselves of whatever advantages may lie within their reach. If they have among their number Christian Ministers of several Orders, or of one Order,—if they can obtain a supply of such from some other sound Church,—or if they can unite themselves to such a Church with advantage to the great ultimate ob-

jects for which Churches were originally instituted,—all these are advantages not to be lightly thrown away. But the unavoidable absence of any of these advantages, not only is not to be imputed to them as a matter of blame, but, by imposing the *necessity*, creates the *right*, and the *duty*, of supplying their deficiencies as they best can. Much as they may regret being driven to the alternative, they ought not to hesitate in their decision, when their choice lies between adherence to the human Governors of a Church, and to its divine Master;—between “the form of Godliness, and the power thereof;”—between the means and the end;—between unbroken apostolical succession of individuals, and uncorrupted Gospel principles.

§ 37. Persons so situated ought to be on their guard against two opposite mistakes: the one is, to underrate the privileges of a Christian Community, by holding themselves altogether debarred from the exercises of such powers as naturally and essentially belong to every Community; the other mistake is to imagine that whatever they have an undoubted *right* to do, they would necessarily be *right* in doing. In no other subject perhaps would such a confusion of thought be likely to arise, as is implied by the confounding together of things so different as these two. Although the legislature (as I have above remarked) has an undoubted right to pass, or to reject, any Bill, a man would be deemed insane who should thence infer that they are *equally right* in doing either the one or the other. So also the Governors of a Church are left, in respect of ordinances and regulations not prescribed or forbidden in Scripture, to their own judgment; but they are bound to act according to the *best* of their judgment. What is left to their discretion is not therefore left to their caprice; nor are they to regard every point that is not *absolutely essential*, as therefore *absolutely indifferent*.

They have an undoubted right, according to the principles I have been endeavouring to establish, to appoint such Orders of Christian Ministers, and to allot to each such functions, as they judge most conducive to the great ends of the Society; they may assign to the *whole*, or to a *portion* of these, the office of ordaining others as their successors; they may appoint *one* superintendent of the rest, or *several*; under the title of Patriarch, Archbishop, Bishop, Moderator, or any other that they may prefer; they may make the appoint-

* An instance of this was very recently afforded by the people of Zillerthal, in the Austrian dominions; who, being deliberately convinced of the errors of the Church in which they had been brought up, underwent, in consequence of their refusal of compliance, a long series of vexatious persecution, and ultimately forsook their home, and found refuge and freedom of conscience in the territory of Prussia.

ment of them for life, or for a limited period,—by election, or by rotation,—with a greater, or less extensive, jurisdiction; and they have a similar discretionary power with respect to Liturgies, Festivals, Ceremonies, and whatever else is left at large in the Scriptures.

Now to infer that all possible determinations of these and similar points would be equally expedient, and equally wise, and good, would be an absurdity so gross that in no other case, not connected with religion, would men need even to be warned against it. In fact, it would go to do away the very existence of any such attributes as “wisdom”—“prudence,”—“discretion,”—“judgment,” &c. altogether: for there is evidently no room for the exercise of them in matters *not* left to our *choice*, and in which the course we are to pursue is decided *for* us, and distinctly marked out, by a higher Authority; nor again is there any room for them in matters in which there is not a right and a wrong,—a better and a worse; and where the decision is a matter of total indifference; as in the choice between two similar sheets of paper to begin writing on, when both are lying within one’s reach. The *sole* province of prudent and cautious deliberation is in cases which are left to our decision, and in which we may make a *better* or a *worse* decision. And yet I should not wonder if some persons were to take for granted that any one who does not presume at once to exclude from the Gospel covenant all professed Christians who do not strictly conform to what we regard as the purest primitive practice, and to deny altogether the validity of all their Ordinances, must, as a matter of course, place *exactly* on a level a system founded on the most diligent, sober, and deliberate inquiry after ancient and well-tried models, and the most rash, ill-advised, and fanciful innovations that ever were devised by ignorance or presumption. As well might one infer from the Apostle’s declaration that “the Powers that be are ordained of God,” his complete approval of the Constitution of the Roman Empire, of its laws, and of the mode of appointing Emperors; or his total indifference as to the best or the worst system of civil Government. If all laws were equally good, or if wise laws and unwise were a matter of indifference, or if it did not rest with each Government to make either wise or unwise enactments, what room could there be for political *wisdom*?

The mistakes, however, which I have been alluding to, have been not unfrequently made in what relates to the powers possessed by Christian Communities, and the mode of exercising these powers. For instance, at the time of the great Reformation, some Bodies of Christians found themselves without any Bishop among their number; and formed what are called Presbyterian Churches. Some members accordingly of these Churches have felt themselves called upon in self-defence to decry Episcopacy, as a form of Government not instituted by the Apostles, and, *consequently*, as one which all Christians are *bound to reject*. Erroneous as, I am convinced, their premise was, they were, on the above principles, still more erroneous in drawing that conclusion from it. Others of them again lamented their want of Episcopacy; considering that form of government as *having* the apostolical sanction, and *consequently*, as *obligatory* and *indispensable* to be retained, when possible; but to them, *unattainable*, from the interruption of episcopal succession. And while some persons presume to exclude all Presbyterians from the pale of Christ’s universal Church—professing at the same time, in words, what they virtually nullify by their interpretations, that “Holy Scripture contains all things *necessary to salvation*,” others again compassionate and sympathize with the supposed *unavoidable* deficiency in the Presbyterian Churches.

Now that all these parties are mistaken in their views (though a mere mistake, when not accompanied with a want of charity, is not deserving of severe censure) must be evident to any one who embraces the principles which in the outset I endeavoured to establish. It follows from those principles, that the Bodies of Christians we have been speaking of, *had* full power to retain, or to restore, or to originate, whatever form of Church government they, in their deliberate and cautious judgment, might deem best for the time, and country, and persons, they had to deal with; whether exactly similar, or not, to those introduced by the Apostles; provided nothing were done contrary to Gospel precepts and principles. They were, therefore, perfectly at liberty to appoint Bishops, *even if they had none* that had joined in the reformation; or to discontinue the appointment, *even if they had*; whichever they were convinced was the most conducive, under existing circumstances, to the great ob-

jects of all Church government. And though their decision of this point ought to have been very greatly influenced by their belief as to what were the forms adopted by the Apostles (which must have been not only wise, but the very wisest, *for those times and persons*) they had no reason to hold themselves *absolutely bound* to adhere, always and every where, to those original models. Indeed, to so considerable a degree have all Churches judged themselves at liberty to depart from the exact model of the earliest institutions—especially (as I formerly remarked) in respect of that important change introduced,—whether wisely or unwisely,—by, I believe, all of what are called Episcopal Churches; that of having several bishops in one Church instead of making each Diocese, as appears to have been the apostolical system, an entire and distinct Church;—so considerable, I say, is the liberty in this respect, that has been assumed by all Churches, that those who speak of all Christians being strictly bound to conform in every point to the exact pattern of the primitive institutions, can hardly wonder if they find imputed to them either great want of knowledge, or of reflection, in themselves, or else, a design to take advantage of the ignorance or inattention of others.

§ 38. I have specified the want of “attentive reflection” in applying rightly in practice the knowledge men do possess as tending to foster erroneous notions, because it is probably both a more common and a more dangerous defect than mere want of sufficient *knowledge*. And it may be added, that it arises not so often from original deficiency in the mental powers, as from neglect to exercise them. There are many who inadvertently, and not a few who advisedly and designedly, resign themselves, in all matters pertaining to morals or religion, to the impressions produced on their imagination and feelings; and rather applaud than reproach themselves for not awaiting the decisions of calm judgment, or for allowing their judgment to be biassed. To such persons there is, it must be acknowledged, something very captivating and seductive in the notions I have been censuring; and not the less, from their being somewhat vague and dimly apprehended, incapable of abiding the test of sober examination, and invested with some of that “mysterious and solemn gloom,” which has been put forth expressly by some of

their advocates, as a recommendation. There is something to many minds awfully and mystically sublime in the idea of the “decisions of the Catholic Church,” and of “Catholic Councils, convened in the name of Christ, and whose deliberations are overruled, and their decrees authoritative,”—in the idea of the “Sacramental character of Ordination,” conferred by persons who have derived a mystical virtue from the successive imposition of hands up to the times of the Apostles;—and of the “priestly” character, (that of Hiereus) thus imparted, and the “Sacrifices” offered at an “altar;”—of a “primitive doctrine always to be found somewhere in the Catholic traditions,” &c.; especially when these matters are treated of in solemn and imposing language, of that peculiar kind of dazzling mistiness whose effect is to convey, *at first*, to ordinary readers, a striking impression, with an appearance of being perfectly intelligible at the first glance, but to become more obscure and doubtful at the *second* glance, and more and more so, the more attentively it is studied by a reader of clear understanding; so as to leave him utterly in doubt, at the last, which of several meanings it is meant to convey, or whether any at all.

The rule of “*omne ignotum pro mirifico*,” applies most emphatically to such doctrines treated of in such language. The very simplicity and plainness of the reasoning by which, in the foregoing pages, the divine authority of a Christian Church, and consequently of its regulations and its ministers, are deduced direct from the sanction given by Christ Himself as interpreted by his Apostles, is likely to be, to some minds, no recommendation, but the contrary.

And as men are of course less likely to exercise a clear and unbiassed judgment in respect of any theory which tends especially to exalt their own persons, and invest them with mysterious powers and awful dignity, the *Clergy* accordingly are under a peculiar temptation* to lean too favourably and with too little of rigorous examination, towards a system which confers the more elevation and grandeur on *them*, in proportion as it detracts from

* The minds of many persons among the Laity are so constituted as to make the same temptation very little less powerful to them, than to the Priesthood; for reasons set forth in the Essay (3d Series) on “Vicarious Religion.”

the claims of the entire Community. It is not the most flattering to them to be urged to say continually, not only in words, but by their conduct, "We preach not ourselves, but Christ Jesus the Lord, and us, your Servant, for Jesus' sake;"—to be taught that they are merely the Functionaries of the particular Church of which they are members,—that it is in that capacity only that they derive their station and power from Christ, by virtue of the sanction given by Him to Christian Communities;—that their authority therefore comes direct from the society so constituted, in whose name and behalf they act, as its representatives, just to that extent to which it has empowered and directed them to act. These views do indeed leave them a most awfully important and dignified office, as Servants in "the House of God,"—(the "Temple of the Holy Ghost,")—as Stewards (*i. e.* dispensers; *οἰκονόμοι*) of divine truth to his People, and as Messengers from Christ, (so far as they "set forth his true and lively word, and duly administer his Holy Sacraments,") as having been appointed conformably to his will. But although their title is thus placed on the secure basis of a clear divine sanction given, once for all, to *every* regularly-appointed Minister of any Christian Community constituted on Gospel principles, instead of being made to depend on a long chain, the soundness of many of whose links cannot be ascertained, yet this last is a system more flattering to human weakness; inasmuch as it represents the Priesthood as comparatively independent of each particular Church, and derives their Church's authority rather from them than theirs from it. And accordingly so strong is the prejudice in the minds of many persons in favour of this system, that to rest the claims of a Christian *Ministry* on the basis of the *divinely sanctioned* institution of a Christian *Church*, would appear to them to be making the Ministry altogether a *human* ordinance, though in truth, its claim to be a divine Ordinance rests on that very sanction: so completely do they lose sight of the whole character of a *Church*, and of a *Community*. I remember seeing a censure passed on some one who had presumed to appoint another as a Bishop; not on the ground (which would have been a very just one) of his having no authority from any Church to make the appointment, but on the ground of his not being *himself* a Bishop: for how—it

was urged—can a spring rise above the level of its source? how can an individual appoint another to an ecclesiastical office higher than he himself holds? How indeed,—it might have been added—can *any* individual, whether Bishop or not, appoint another to *any* office,—high or low—unless authorized by the Community to do so? For an individual to pretend to create another a King, or a Magistrate of any other description, or the humblest civil Functionary,—even though he were himself a King,—*without lawful authority from the Community to make such appointment*, would be regarded as a most extravagant and absurd assumption. On the other hand a *Community*, and consequently those acting under its sanction, *may* appoint a man to an office higher than is possessed by any of the individuals who perform that act; as is the case, for instance, in the election of a member of Parliament. And in the case of the supposed shipwrecked emigrants above adverted to, no reasonable man could doubt their right to elect one of their number as their King. But in the case of *ecclesiastical* Communities, many persons are found to advocate that fanciful and groundless system which goes to deprive *these* of all the rights which Christ's sanction of such a Community confers. For, according to this system, the sacramental virtue of Holy Orders, which is indispensable for all the Christian Ordinances and means of Grace, is inherent indefeasibly in each individual, who has derived it, in no degree from any particular Community, but solely from the Bishop whose hands were laid on him; who derived *his* power to administer this sacrament, altogether from Consecration by another Bishop—not necessarily a member of the same particular Church, but obtaining his power again from another; and so on, up to the apostolic times. On this system the Church is made a sort of appendage to the Priesthood; not the Ministry, to the Church.* A People separated from their

* That pernicious popular error, which confounds the Church with the *Clergy* (see note to § 33,) as if the Spiritual Community consisted only of its Officers, is partly kept up perhaps by men's neglecting to notice one peculiarity belonging to Christ's kingdom, at its first *establishment*: viz., that it did, then, consist of Ministers only; though it was by no means designed so to continue. *All* the Disciples who constituted the infant Church were those destined to be employed in various offices therein: so that an inattentive

Ministers by some incurable disagreement as to Christian doctrine, even supposing these last to have occasioned it by an utter apostasy from Gospel truth,—would be left (supposing they could not obtain other ministers qualified by the same kind of transmission of sacramental virtue) totally and finally shut out from the pale of Christ's universal Church, and from his "covenanted mercies;" while the Ministers, on the contrary, though they might be prohibited by civil authority, or prevented by physical force, from exercising their functions within a particular district, would still, even though anti-christian in doctrine and in life, retain their office and dignity unimpaired,—the sacramental virtue conferred on them by Ordination, and the consequent efficacy of their acts, undiminished.

§ 39. And this is not merely an inference fairly deducible from the principles of the system. I have even met with persons who acknowledged that, if a Bishop, of our own Church for instance, who had been, for some crime, removed and degraded by regular process, should think proper afterwards to ordain men Priests or Deacons, though he and they would be legally punishable, still his Ordinations would be valid, and these men consequently (however morally unfit) real Clergymen, capable of exercising the spiritual functions. This is to recognize a fearful power, and that, placed in the very worst hands, of producing and keeping up schism with something of an apparent divine sanction to give it strength.* For, on this principle, a Bishop of some other Church—the Roman Catholic for instance, or the Greek—who should have been ejected from his Diocese, might take upon him to ordain men according to the rites of *our* Church, and we should be bound to recognize his ordinations as valid.

I need hardly remark, that, according to the principles I have been endeavouring to maintain, a Bishop when removed from his Diocese, (whether for any crime, or otherwise) and not appointed to any other, though he may continue a member of the Episcopal Order, (unless regularly removed from it by competent authority,†) ceases altogether, ipso facto,

reader is liable to confound together what our Lord said to them as *Ministers*, and what as *Members*,—as Rulers of a Church, and as the Church itself.

* See above, § 32.

† For it is evident that as, in respect of Church

to be a Bishop, in respect of Episcopal functions; and has no more right to ordain, or to perform any other act, in the capacity of a Bishop, than a Layman would have: that is, till the same, or some other Christian Church shall think proper to receive him in that capacity.*

If indeed any Church should be so very unwise as to recognize as Clergymen persons ordained by a deprived Bishop, these would undoubtedly be Ministers of that Church; because that recognition would constitute them such; and a Christian Community has power (though in that case there would be a gross abuse of its power) to determine who shall be its Officers. But what I am contending against is, the notion of an inherent indefeasible sacramental virtue conveyed by the imposition of hands, and giving validity to the official acts, regular or irregular, of the persons possessing it. And this does seem to me a most pernicious as well as groundless tenet, tending to destroy the rightful authority of a Church, by unduly exalting the pretended privileges of its Functionaries.

On the same principle which has been now set forth in respect of Bishops, the acts of a Presbyter or Deacon, or other Minister of any Church, cease to be valid, as soon as ever the Christian Community in which he was appointed, withdraws its sanction from his acts. If another Church think fit to receive him as a Minister, they have an undoubted right to do so; and he then becomes a Minister of that Church. So he does also, when *not* expelled from the Society to which he originally belonged, supposing the Church to which he transfers himself *thinks fit to recognize* the Ordinations of the other; which they may do, or refuse to do, entirely at their own discretion. This is a point which every

regulations, the powers of "binding" and of "loosing" have; equally, the divine sanction, so, the power of any Christian Church to *admit* any one, either simply into the number of its *Members*, or into any particular *Order* or *Office*, implies a power to *remove* him from either, when the case shall be such as to call for his removal.

* For a Bishop, it should be observed, does not, in becoming such, enter on a new *Profession*, (as he did on taking orders) but only on a new description of *Office* in his profession. A person may indeed, as I have said, continue to belong to a certain *Order* of Clergy, though with suspended functions; but the important point to be insisted on is, that no *official acts* have any validity but what is *derived from the Community* to which, in each case, the Officer belongs.

Church has a full right to determine according to its own judgment.

And as for the individual himself who is regularly deprived by his Church, if, on becoming a Clergyman, he engaged (as is required by, I believe, most existing Churches) that he would follow *no other* profession,* of course he cannot absolve himself from that engagement; but must continue so far a Clergyman, though with suspended functions. Moreover a Church has a *right*,—though I think such a regulation a very unwise one,—to recognize as valid the acts of a degraded Minister; (while subjecting him nevertheless to penalties for performing such acts) or of a Layman.

Concerning several points of this class,—such as the validity of lay-baptism, or of baptism by heretics or schismatics, &c., questions have been often raised, which have been involved in much unnecessary perplexity, from its being common to mix up together what are in fact *several distinct questions*, though relating to the *same subject*. For instance, in respect of the validity of Lay-baptism, three important and perfectly distinct questions may be raised; no one of which is answered by the answering, either way, of the others: viz., 1st. What has a Church the *right* to determine as to this point? 2dly. What is the *wisest* and best determination it can make? and, 3dly. What *has* this or that particular Church *actually* determined? Now persons who are agreed concerning the answer to one of these questions, may yet differ concerning the others; and *vice versa*.†

§ 40. But to return to the consideration, generally, of the whole system of what is called “Catholic tradition,” &c., which I have been censuring; it is calculated, as has been said, to produce at the first glance a striking and imposing effect, and to recommend itself strongly to the imagination and the feelings of some persons: but will not stand the test of a close examination. The advocates of these doctrines, accordingly, either from a consciousness of this, or else from indistinctness in their own conception, often set them forth with

something of oracular obscurity and ambiguity, half concealed behind a veil, as it were, of mystery; as something of which the full import and complete proof were to be reserved for a chosen few. And when clear evidence is demanded of a sufficient foundation for the high pretensions put forth, and the implicit submission that is demanded, we are sometimes met by a rebuke of the “pride of human intellect,” and of the presumptuous expectation of having every thing that we are to believe made perfectly level to our understanding, and satisfactorily explained.

No one, it may be said, would believe in God, if he were to insist on first obtaining a clear and full comprehension of the nature and attributes of such a Being; an explanation,—such as no man of sense would think of giving, or of seeking,—of the divine attributes, brought down to the capacity of such a Being as Man. Nor would any one believe in the Christian Revelation, if he were to require, previously, to have a clear and full comprehension of the mysteries of the Incarnation, of the Redemption, of the Trinity, and of every thing else appertaining to the Gospel scheme. We must content ourselves, therefore, we are told, with faint, indistinct, and imperfect notions on religious subjects, unless we would incur deserved censure for want of faith.

How often and how successfully the fallacy here sketched out has been employed, is really wonderful, considering how totally different and entirely unconnected are the two things which are thus confounded together; the clear or indistinct notion of the *subject matter* itself,—of the fact or proposition—that is before us; and, the clear or indistinct *notion of the evidence* of it,—of the reasons for believing it. A moment’s reflection is sufficient for any one to perceive the difference between the two; and yet, in the loose language of careless or sophistical argument, they are continually confused together, and spoken of indiscriminately, as if they were the same thing.

Every one, whether possessing Christian faith or not, believes firmly,—and must believe,—and that, on the clearest evidence,—in the existence of many things concerning which he has but a very imperfect knowledge, and can form but indistinct and confused ideas of their nature; while to believe in whatever is proposed to us without any *clear proof* that it is *true*,—with an imperfect and indistinct apprehension of any *reason* for believing it,—

* It would be, I am convinced, very advantageous that this rule should be modified as regards *Deacons*. We might avail ourselves of the services of some very useful assistants, if we would admit to this subordinate office some who could not maintain themselves wholly, without resorting (as the Apostle Paul did) to some secular employment.

† See Appendix, Note (O.)

is usually regarded as a mark of credulous weakness. And on the other hand, some description, narrative, or statement, may be, in itself, perfectly clear and intelligible, and yet may be very doubtful as to its truth, or may be wholly undeserving of credit.

For instance, there is, I suppose, no one who seriously doubts the existence of something which we call Soul—or Mind—be it Substance or Attribute, material or immaterial—and of the mutual connexion between it and the Body. Yet how very faint and imperfect a notion it is that we can form of it, and of many of its phenomena that are of daily occurrence! The partial suspension of mental and bodily functions during Sleep,—the effects of opium and other drugs, on both body and mind; the influence again exercised by volition, and by various mental emotions, on the muscles, and on other parts of the bodily frame, and many other of these phenomena, have exercised for ages the ingenuity of the ablest men to find even any approximation towards but an imperfect explanation of them. Yet the *evidence on which we believe in the reality* of these and of many other things no less dimly and partially understood, is perfect.

On the other hand, the characters, transactions, &c., represented by dramatic writers, or described by historians, are often as *clearly intelligible* as it is possible for any thing to be; yet from the total want of evidence, or from the want of clear and decisive evidence, as to their *reality*, we regard them as either entire fictions, or mixtures of fable and truth, or as more or less likely to have actually existed.* The character and conduct of Lear, for instance, or Othello, of Hamlet, and Macbeth, are perfectly intelligible; though it is very doubtful how far the tales which suggested to Shakspeare the idea of most of his dramas had any foundation in fact, or were originally fictitious. Many, again, of the Orations recorded by the ancient Greek and Roman historians are as easily and plainly to be understood as any that are reported in our own times; but in what degree each of these is a faithful record of what was actually spoken, is a point on which we have, in some cases, a slight and imperfect evidence; and in others, none that deserves the name.

§ 41. In all subjects where religion is not concerned, no one of ordinary good

sense ever confounds together two things so dissimilar and unconnected as those I have been speaking of. But in what pertains to religion, the fallacy is, as I have said, often introduced. Yet Religion does not, in this respect, really differ from other subjects.

Our Saviour's character and his teaching were matter of wondering perplexity to all around Him; even in a far greater degree than after the establishment of his Kingdom, on his personal ministry being completed; both because the Jews were full of the expectation of a totally different kind of Deliverer, and because great part of his discourses were not even designed to be fully intelligible, at the time, to his own disciples; but to be explained afterwards by the occurrence of the events He alluded to. Some of his followers, accordingly, "went back and walked no more with him," on the occasion of one of those discourses. But the Apostles, who adhered to Him, did so, neither from having any clearer notions concerning his revelations (for we often find it recorded that "they understood not this saying," &c.) nor again, from being satisfied to believe without any clear proof of his high pretensions; but because they "believed, and were sure that He was the Christ, the Son of the living God," on such evidence as He had Himself appealed to: "the works that I do in my father's name, they bear witness of me." Dim, and indistinct, and imperfect as were still their notions (as, to a great degree, ours must be also) concerning "the Son of God," it was no indistinct or imperfect evidence on which they believed that He was so.

A converse case is that of the several false Christs who afterwards arose. "I am come," says our Lord, "in my Father's name," (with such manifestations of divine power as testified his coming from God) "and ye receive me not; if another shall come in his own name," (*viz.* requiring acceptance on his own bare word, without any miraculous credentials) "him ye will receive."* "Their teaching, their pretensions, and promises, were as clearly intelligible to the greater part of the Jews—because falling in with the prevailing belief and expectations,—as those of Jesus had been (even to his own disciples) obscure, perplexing, or unintelligible. Accordingly, vast multitudes fol-

* See Rhetoric, part i. c. 2, § 2. "On the plausible and the historically probable."

* See Sermon, on the "Name Emmanuel;" and also Cruden's Concordance on the word "Name."

lowed these pretenders, without requiring any clear and sufficient evidence of the *truth* of their pretensions: and they followed them to their own and their Country's ruin.

The very history of our own religion, therefore, supplies us here with an illustration of the distinction I have been speaking of. On the one side we have a revelation, itself dimly and partially understood, and doubtful, in great part, as to its meaning, but with clear evidence that it really came from God: on the other, a pretended revelation, containing, to those it was proposed to, no doubts or difficulties as to its sense and its design, but supported by no evidence that could satisfy an unprejudiced mind, bent on the attainment of truth.

§ 42. However plausible then the system I have been objecting to may appear to any one,—however imposing and mysteriously sublime,—however gratifying and consolatory to the feelings—let him not therefore neglect to inquire for the proofs by which its high pretensions are to be sustained; but rather examine with the more care the foundation on which so vast a superstructure is made to rest. Let no one be deterred from this by fierce denunciations against the presumptuousness of all inquiry, and all use of private judgment in religious matters; and by eulogies on the virtue of faith; remembering that the "*faith*" thus recommended is precisely that *want of faith* for which those Jews just mentioned were so severely condemned. They refused to listen to good evidence, and assented to that which was worthless.

And let no one allow himself to be persuaded that he is evincing an humble piety, acceptable to the "*jealous God*," in hastily giving credence to the pretensions to divine authority put forth in behalf of uninspired men, (not producing the miraculous "*Signs of an Apostle*") by those who are for blending "*Tradition with Scripture*," and "*following the dictates of inspiration wherever found, whether in Scripture or Antiquity*;" and who pronounce according to their own arbitrary choice, what are, and what are not, the general Councils whose "*deliberations were overruled by the Holy Spirit, and their decrees consequently authoritative*."

"If any of these entice thee secretly, saying, Let us go after other Gods, thou shalt not hearken unto him." And those who speak in the name of Jehovah, say-

ing, "Thus saith the Lord; when the Lord hath not spoken," are no more exempt from the guilt of enticing to idolatry, than the worshippers of Baal.

The more disposed any one is to submissive veneration, the greater the importance of guarding him against misdirected veneration;—against false piety; against reverencing as divine, what in reality is human. And the more awfully important any question is, the greater is the call for a rigid investigation of what may be urged on both sides; that the decision may be made on sound, rational, and scriptural grounds, and not according to the dictates of excited feelings and imagination.

And in these times especially, and in respect of this subject, men need to be warned against a mistake which at all times is not uncommon;—that of allowing themselves to be misled by names and professions, which are often—apparently by designed choice,—the most opposite to the things really intended. Thus, for instance, the term "*Apostolical*" is perpetually in the mouths of some who the most completely set at nought the principles which the Apostles have laid down for our guidance in the inspired writings; and who virtually nullify these by blending with them the traditions of uninspired men. None more loudly censure the "*pride of human intellect*," and inculcate "*pious humility*," than those who are guilty of the profane presumption of exalting fallible Man to a level with God's inspired messengers, and of deciding how far they shall impart, or "*reserve*," the truths which God has revealed.* The evils of "*schism*" again, are especially dwelt on by some who maintain principles the tendency of which has been shown to be to generate and perpetuate schism. To satisfy and "*settle men's minds*," is the profession of some whose principles lead (as has been above remarked) in proportion as each man has the most tender conscience, and the greatest anxiety about religious truth, to perplex and torment him with incurable doubts and scruples. "*Church-principles*" is a favourite phrase with some who are, in fact, lowering the just dignity and impairing the divinely-conferred rights of a Church. And none more loudly profess devoted and submissive admiration for the Anglican Church, than many of those who are emphatically

* See Appendix, Note (P.)

opposed, in some of the most important points, to the principles on which our Reformers proceeded, and the spirit which actuated them throughout.

If any one is deliberately convinced that those their fundamental principles are erroneous, and that they rested the doctrines and institutions of our Church on a wrong basis, he deserves credit at least for honest consistency in leaving its communion.

§ 43. But to me it does appear, that—without attributing to them an infallibility which they expressly disclaim—we may justly give our Reformers credit for such sound views, and such resolute adherence to evangelical truth, combined with such moderation and discretion, as were—considering the difficult circumstances they were placed in,—truly wonderful; and such as are, in all times, and not least in the present, well worthy of imitation. It was their “wisdom to keep the mean” (as is expressed in the preface to the Book of Common Prayer) “between the two extremes, of too much stiffness in refusing, and too much easiness in admitting, any variation.” It was their wisdom also to “keep the mean” between the claims—never conflicting, except when misunderstood—of Scripture and of a Church. It was their wisdom to keep the mean between a slavish bondage to ancient precedents on the one hand, and a wanton and arrogant disregard of them, on the other. It was their wisdom—their pious and Christian wisdom—to keep the mean between rash and uncharitable judgment of other Churches, and equally rash carelessness, or fondness for innovation, in the regulations of their own. They conformed as closely as, in their judgment, circumstances would warrant, to the examples of the earliest Churches, without for an instant abandoning the rightful claims of their own, and without arrogantly pronouncing censure on those whose circumstances had led *them* to depart farther from those ancient precedents. Their “Faith” they drew from the Scriptures; their “Hope” they based on the Scriptures; their “Charity” they learned from the Scriptures.

A member of the Anglican Church,—I mean, a sincere and thoroughly consistent member of it—ought to feel a full conviction—and surely there are good grounds for that conviction,—both that the reforms they introduced were no more than were loudly called for by a regard for Gospel

truth, and that the Church as constituted by them does possess, in its regulations and its officers, “Apostolical succession,” in the sense in which it is essential that a Christian Community *should* possess it; viz.:—it being a regularly constituted Christian Society, framed in accordance with the fundamental principles taught us by the Apostles and their great Master.

Successors, in the Apostolic office, the Apostles have none. As *witnesses* of the *Resurrection*,—as *Dispensers* of *miraculous* gifts,—as inspired *Oracles* of divine *Revelation*,—they have no successors. But as *Members*,—as *Ministers*,—as *Governors*—of Christian Communities, their successors are the regularly admitted Members,—the lawfully ordained Ministers,—the regular and recognized Governors,—of a regularly subsisting Christian Church; especially of a Church which, conforming in fundamentals,—as I am persuaded ours does,—to Gospel principles, claims and exercises no rights beyond those which have the clear sanction of our great Master, as being essentially implied in the very character of a Community.

May the members of a Church which our Reformers cleansed of so much corruption, and placed on its true basis, have the grace to profit by their example, and follow out their fundamental principles; labouring to be apostolical “not in mere words and names but in deed and truth;” actuated by the same spirit which was found in those great and good men, so far as they decreed what is agreeable to God’s word, and to the “pure and peaceable wisdom that is from above.” And especially may all who profess Church principles be careful to guard themselves and others against the two most prevailing errors of these days;—the two kinds of encroachments on the legitimate rights of a Church; on the one side by presumptuous and self-sufficient irregularities, and defiance of lawful authority; and by the pretensions of supposed “Antiquity” and “Tradition,” on the other; that they may be enabled, under the divine blessing, to carry into effect more and more fully, and to bring to completion “all the holy desires, all the good counsels, and all the just works” of our Reformers, and of all other our predecessors, as many as have endeavoured, in simplicity and truth, to conform to the instructions of our divine Master and his Apostles.

APPENDIX.

NOTE (A.) Pp. 71, 18, 63.

I HAVE said, "*secular empire*" and a "*monopoly of civil privileges and powers,*" because the rule does not apply to such as are purely *ecclesiastical*. The government of the *Church* (except as far as relates to temporalities, which are clearly the property of the Nation) *ought* to be monopolized by members of that Church. It is an unseemly, and in many respects mischievous, anomaly, that, in purely religious matters any authority should be possessed (as is the case in this country) by those who are not members of the religious community. [See "Appeal on behalf of Church-government," a valuable and well-written pamphlet. Houlston and Co.]

It is true that the *greatest* evils that *might* arise from such an anomaly,—vexatious and oppressive interference in matters that affect the conscience—do *not* arise in this country. No greater evil does result in practice than that (no small one however) of leaving the Church virtually *without any* legislative Government. But even if this were a less evil than it is, it would not be the less true as a principle, that none ought to have any share in the government (except—as I have said—in respect of secular matters) of a Church, who are not members of it.

There are some however who, from want of the habit of attentive reflection, are with difficulty brought to perceive the unsoundness of any false principle, except when it is fully developed in practice, and produces, *actually*, all the ill effects that it can consistently lead to. They cannot perceive which way a wind is blowing unless it blows a perfect gale. They not merely know a tree only by its fruits, but, except when it is actually bearing its fruits and when it has brought them to the full perfection of poisonous maturity, they do not recognize the tree.

This defect may often be observed in men's judgments on another point also,—the employment of secular coercion in religious matters, with a view either to compel men to conform to the faith and mode of worship prescribed by the Civil government, or to give more or less of political ascendancy, and monopoly of civil rights and power, to those of a particular persuasion. To burn dissenters under the title of heretics,—or to put them to a less cruel death;—or to banish, or fine and imprison them,—or to exclude from all, or from some, of the rights

of citizens, and reduce, more or less, to the condition of vassals or Helots, those who do not profess the religion which the State, as such, enjoins,—these are widely different indeed, in respect of the *actual amount* of evil inflicted, or of good denied to individuals; but the *principle* is in all these cases the same; viz.: the assumed right of the Secular Government, as such, to interfere with men's conscience, and consequently (when the Government calls itself Christian) to make Christ's kingdom, so far, "*a kingdom of this world.*" One of the causes that have contributed to the prevalence of this error, is, a mistaken view of the nature of that *supremacy* which is possessed by a *political Community*.

The office of a Political Society or State, —to afford *protection* (as all admit it is bound to do) to the citizens, necessarily implies a *coercive* power over *all* of them; and thence over other Societies of which any of them may be members. Hence the political Society must be (in respect of power) the "*highest*;" and the Secular Government—the person or persons in whom that power is vested, being as it were the *centre of gravity* in which the whole physical force of the Community is collected, and acts,—must be, in this sense, "*Supreme*" or "*Sovereign*;" (*κύριον*, according to the ancient Greek Philosophers) as not being *responsible* or *subject* to any other.

Much confusion of thought, and practical error has thence arisen in some minds; especially since, in any question that may arise whether the State (the Political Society) have gone beyond its proper province, it must *itself* be, in practice, the judge; there being no higher authority, on earth, to appeal to. It can do nothing (humanly speaking) *unlawful*, since it has the power to make and absolutely enforce laws.

It has been supposed, for instance, that since the Political Society is the *highest* (which in a certain sense it is) it must have for its ends the *highest objects*;—that it ought to propose to itself, not, like any other kind of Society, some *particular* good, but, *human good, generally*;—the welfare, in all respects, of the citizens;—and that since every human good is therefore equally within the province of the Secular Government, the *greatest* good,—the moral welfare of the citizens, and the salvation of their souls,—must be especially its care: and hence follows the right, and the duty, of

putting down heresy by the civil sword; since if it would be unjustifiable for the Magistrate to tolerate the circulation of counterfeit money, much more, that of false doctrine. And the *moral* as well as *religious* welfare of the citizens being entrusted to his care, he must take upon himself to determine both what is *true Religion*, and also what is *morally right*; according to the doctrine of Hobbes in his "*Leviathan*."

I have no doubt that many advocates of the principle in question do not *mean* to advocate either religious persecution or Hobbism: but I am speaking of the logical connexion of these consequences with that principle.

All this perplexity and error might be escaped by merely recollecting that the Political Society has, like any other, its own appropriate objects; and that any other desirable objects which it may be enabled, incidentally, to promote, more effectually than could otherwise be done, and without interfering with its main objects, are yet (however intrinsically important) only secondary and subordinate; and that it is "*Sovereign*" only in this sense, that its proper and main object is one which necessarily implies the exercise of *coercive power*. In fact, the very circumstance which gives to the Political Community that kind of sovereignty which it does possess, is exactly what places beyond its own proper province the very noblest and highest objects of all. Pure *Morality* as existing in the motives and not in mere outward acts, and sincere belief in a true *Religion*, are precisely what cannot be produced, directly and immediately, by the coercive power of the Civil Magistrate.

NOTE (B.) P. 24.

"THAT no society can exist without some rules, and without some means of enforcing obedience to those rules, is obvious. When therefore it is asked, whether Christ or the Holy Spirit left any ecclesiastical laws, or vested any where power to enforce those laws? if the question is put with a view to ascertain whether Church government be of divine origin, it is idle; inasmuch as the very institution of the ecclesiastical society, the Church, implies the design that rules should be established, and means provided to enforce them.

"But another object may be intended by the question. It may be put with the view of ascertaining what those rules are whereby this society is designed to be governed. For, it may be said, and plausibly enough, that granting the intention of the Church's Founder to have laws established to be ever so apparent, how are we to know *what kind of government* he intended?

"On one point the inquirer must satisfy himself. If, from the nature of the Church,

and from existing circumstances, the members were already possessed of the means of acquiring this knowledge, in that case neither Christ nor the Holy Spirit would be likely to leave any code of ecclesiastical laws, on precisely the same principle, as no code of ethics was left.

"Now, is there any thing in the nature of the Church to guide us, as to what are ecclesiastical offences? Undoubtedly there is. In every society there must be such a principle; and by reference to it in each, are formed laws for the government of each. Every society recognizes peculiar offences, arising out of, and depending solely on, the peculiar nature of the society; so that, in proportion as this latter is understood, the former are defined. Much mischievous confusion in some instances arises from a want of attention to this connexion; and the attention is frequently diverted from it by the accidental circumstance, that the same act often becomes an offence against many societies. Thus, theft is at once an offence against the supreme Ruler of the universe,—against the political body to which the thief is attached,—against some certain class of society, perhaps, in which he moves, and so on. The act being one, it is only by reflection that we are enabled to separate the different views which render it in each case an offence, and in each of a different magnitude. Again, what becomes a crime because violating the principle of one society, may be none in another; if, namely, it does not interfere with the object proposed in the formation and preservation of that other society. Thus, the violation of the academical rules of our Universities does not render the offending member amenable to the laws of the land. Thus, too, the very conduct which recommends a smuggler or a robber to his confederacy, becomes an offence against the political body with which he is associated.

"In order, therefore, to ascertain what are inherent offences or crimes in any society, it is necessary that we should know with what object or objects such society is formed. If information of this kind then be found in the sacred record, respecting the Christian society, ecclesiastical law by revelation was no more to be expected, than a code of ethics to tell men what their own consciences were already constituted by God to declare.

"It is certain, however, that if the question need not be answered in the affirmative, in order either to establish the divine origin of ecclesiastical government, or to determine what offences come under its cognizance, there is yet a third object which may be proposed in urging it. What *punishments* are authorized, in order to check those offences? Ought not these to have been specified? and, not having been specified, does the nature of the case here also supersede the necessity of a revelation, and enable us to know what coercion is, and what is not, agreeable to the Divine will? The inquiry, too, seems to be the more reasonable, because

in looking to the methods by which various societies are upheld, we find the punishment even in similar societies by no means the same. Military discipline, for instance, in different countries, and at different periods, has been enforced by penalties unlike in degree and in kind. In different countries and ages, the social tie between the master and the slave has been differently maintained. All this is true, but still, in looking at the question so, we take only a partial view, and lose one important feature in the establishment of coercion,—the right.

“Now, this right is either inherent in the society, or conventional, or both, as is the case in most confederate bodies. When the right is limited to what the society exercises as inherent and indispensable,—inherent in its nature, and indispensable to its existence,—the extreme punishment is, *exclusion*; and the various degrees and modifications of punishment are only degrees and modifications of exclusion. When the right is conventional also, (as far as it is so,) the punishment is determined by arbitrary enactment, proceeding from some authority acknowledged by all parties, (whether that authority be lodged in the parties themselves, or in competent representatives, or in other delegated persons,) and therefore styled conventional. Few societies have ever existed without a large portion of these latter. Hence the anomaly above alluded to, and hence too the vulgar impression, that all punishments are arbitrary, and depend solely on the caprice and judgment of the government. What is popularly and emphatically termed *society*, affords a good instance of the first; that is, of a social union regulated and maintained only by a right inherent. In this, excessive ill-manners and the gross display of ungentlemanly feelings are punished by absolute exclusion. According as the offence is less, the party offending is for a time excluded from some select *portion* of good society, or from certain meetings and the like, in which more particularly the spirit and genuine character of gentility are to be cherished. All its lawful and appropriate punishments are a system of exclusion, in various shapes and degrees.”—*Encyclopædia Metropolitana*, (Historical Division,) vol. ii. pp. 744, 745.

NOTE (C.) P. 25, 29.

“HEREUPON doth the Apostle lay a divine directory before him, concerning their manner of praying, choosing and ordaining of ministers, approving deacons, admitting widows, and regulating the people that nothing could be wanting to the healthy temper of that church, if they receive and embrace these applications; in the most of which prescriptions, he useth exceeding much of their synagogue-language, that he may be the better understood; and reflecteth upon

divers of their own laws and customs, that what he prescribeth, may imprint upon them with the more conviction. He calleth the minister ‘Episcopus,’ from the common and known title ‘the chazan’ or ‘overseer’ in the synagogue: he prescribeth rules and qualifications for his choice, in most things suitable to their own cautions in choosing of an elder: he speaketh of ‘elders ruling only, and elders ruling and labouring in the word and doctrine;’ meaning, in this distinction, that same that he had spoken of in chap. iii. ‘bishops and deacons.’ Both those, in the common language, then best known, were called, ‘elders,’ and both owned as ‘rulers.’ Yea, the very title, that they usually termed ‘deacons,’ (Parnasin), was the common word that was used to signify, a ‘ruler.’ The Jerusalem Talmud, speaking of the three ‘Parnasin,’ or ‘deacons,’ that were in every synagogue, hath these two passages, which may be some illustration to two passages in this epistle:—‘They appoint not less than three Parnasin in the congregation: for if matters of money were judged by three, matters of life much more require three to manage them.’ Observe that the deacon’s office was accounted as an office that concerned life; namely, in taking care for the existence of the poor. According to this, may that in chap. iii. 12, be understood: ‘For they that have used the office of a deacon well, purchase to themselves a good degree;’ a good degree towards being entrusted with souls, when they have been faithful in the discharge of their trust concerning the life of the body.”—*Lightfoot’s Harmony of the New Testament*. Edited by the Rev. John Pitman. Vol. iii. p. 257.

“The Apostles at Jerusalem, hearing the glad tidings of the conversion of Samaria, send down Peter and John; and why these two rather than any other of the twelve, is not so easy to resolve, as it is ready to observe, that if, in this employment, there was any sign of primacy, John was sharer of it as well as Peter. Being come, they pray, and lay their hands upon them, and they receive the Holy Ghost. Here episcopacy thinketh it hath an undeniable argument for proof of its hierarchy, and of the strange right of confirmation. For thus pleadeth Baronius for the former: ‘From hence (saith he) it may be seen, that the hierarchial order was instituted in the church of God, even in this time; for Philip doth so baptize those that believe, that yet he usurpeth not the apostolical privilege,—namely, the imposition of hands granted to the Apostles.’ And thus the Rhemists both for it, and for the latter, in their notes on Acts viii. 17:—‘If this Philip had been an Apostle, (saith St. Bede,) he might have imposed his hands, that they might have received the Holy Ghost; but this none can do, saving bishops. For though priests may baptize and anoint the baptized also with chrism consecrated by a bishop,—yet can he not

sign his forehead with the same holy oil; because that belongeth only to bishops, when they give the Holy Ghost to be baptized.' And after this testimony of Bede, they subjoin their inference: 'This imposition therefore of hands, together with the prayers here specified (which no doubt was the very same that the church useth to that purpose) was the ministration of the sacrament of confirmation.'

"Now let the reader, with indifferency and seriousness, but ruminate upon these two queries, and then judge of these two inferences:—

"First, whether apostleship were not an order for ever, inimitable in the church: for besides the reason given to prove that it was, upon the choosing of Matthias, others may be added to make it more clear:—as, 1. The end of their election was peculiar, the like to which was not to be in the church again; for they were chosen to be with Christ, Mark iii. 14; to be eye-witnesses of his resurrection, Acts i. 22, ii. 32, and x. 41; as they had been of his actions and passion, Luke i. 2. And, therefore, Paul pleading for his apostleship, that, 'he had seen the Lord,' 1 Cor. ix. 1; and in the relation or story of his calling, this particular is singularly added, that 'he saw that Just One, and heard the voice of his mouth,' Acts xxii. 14.

"Secondly, the name of 'Apostles' keepeth itself unmixed or confounded with any other order. It is true indeed, that the significancy of the word would agree to other ministers that are to preach; but there is a peculiar propriety in the sense, that hath confined the title to the twelve and Paul: as any indifferent eye will judge and censure upon the weighing of it in the New Testament.

"Thirdly, When Paul reckoneth the several kinds of ministry, that Christ Jesus left in the Church at his ascension, Eph. iv. 11, and 1 Cor. xii. 28,—there is none that can think them all to be perpetuated, or that they should continue successively in the like order from time to time. For within a hundred years after our Saviour's birth, where were either prophets or evangelists, miracles or healings? And if these extraordinary kinds of ministration were ordained but for a time, and for special occasion, and were not to be imitated in the church unto succeeding times; much more, or at the least as much, were the Apostles, and order much more, at least, as much extraordinary, as they.

"Fourthly, The constant and undeniable parallel, which is made betwixt the twelve Patriarchs, the fathers of the twelve tribes, and the twelve Apostles, not only by the number itself, but also by the New Testament, in the four-and-twenty Elders, Rev. iv. 4,—and in the gates and foundations of the New Jerusalem, Rev. xxi. 12, 14,—doth argue and prove the latter order as inimitable as the first. These things well considered, if there were no more, it will show,

how improbable and unconsonant the first inference is, that is alleged, that because there was a subordination betwixt the Apostles and Philip, therefore, the like is to be reputed betwixt bishops and other ministers, and that bishops in the church are in the place of the Apostles."—*Lightfoot's Commentary on the Acts*, vol. viii. p. 125.

"1. Here beginneth 'the kingdom of heaven;' when the Gentiles are received to favour and to the Gospel, who had been so long cast off, and lain in ignorance and idolatry; and when no difference is made betwixt them and the Jews any longer,—but, of every nation, they that fear God and work righteousness are accepted of him as well as Israel. This is the very first beginning or dawning to the kingdom of heaven; and so it grew on more and more, till Jerusalem was destroyed; and then was the perfect day, when the Gentiles only were become the church of Christ: and no church or commonwealth of Israel to be had at all, but they destroyed and ruined.

"2. Here 'Peter hath the keys of the kingdom,' and unlocked the door for the Gentiles to come in to the faith and gospel, which, till now, had been shut, and they kept out. And Peter only had the keys, and none of the apostles or disciples but he, for though they from henceforward brought in Gentiles daily into the kingdom of heaven by converting them to the Gospel,—yet it was he that first and only opened the door; and the door, being once opened, was never shut, nor never shall be to the end of the world. And this was all the priority that Peter had before the other apostles, if it were any priority; and how little this concerneth Rome, or the Papacy, as to be any foundation of it, a child may observe.

"3. Peter here looseth the greatest strictness, and what was the straitest bound-up of any thing that was in all the policy of Moses and customs of the Jews,—and that was, the difference of clean and unclean, in the legal sense. And this he looseth on earth, and it is loosed in heaven; for from heaven had he an immediate warrant to dissolve it. And this he doth, first declaratively, showing that nothing henceforward is to be called common or unclean, and showing his authority for this doctrine; and then practically conforming himself to this doctrine that he taught, by going in unto the uncircumcised, and eating with them. 'Binding and loosing,' in our Saviour's sense, and in the Jews' sense, from whose use he taketh the phrase, is 'of things and not of persons;' for Christ saith to Peter, *ὃ ἐὰν δήσῃς*, and *ὃ ἐὰν λύσῃς*; *ὃ* and not *ὁ*; 'whatsoever' thou bindest, and not 'whomsoever;' and to the other apostles, *ὅσα ἐὰν δήσῃτε*, Matt. xviii. 18, *ὅσα* and not *ὅσους*, 'whatsoever things,' and not, 'whatsoever persons;' so that, though it be true and indeed, that Jews and Gentiles are loosed henceforward one to the communion of another,—yet the proper object of this loosing, that is loosed

by Peter, was that law or doctrine that tied them up. And so concerning the eating of those things that had been prohibited,—it is true, indeed, that the Jews were let loose henceforward to the use of them in diet, and to eat what they thought good; but this loosing was not so properly of the men, as the loosing of that prohibition that had bound them before. And this could be no way but doctrinally, by teaching that Christian liberty that was given by the Gospel.

“Now, though Peter only, and none but he, had ‘the keys of the kingdom’ of heaven, yet had all the apostles the ‘power of binding and loosing,’ as well as he; and so have all the ministers of the gospel as well as they; and all in the same sense, namely, doctrinally to teach what is bound and loose, or lawful and unlawful; but not in the same kind: for the apostles, having the constant and unerring assistance of the Holy Ghost, did nullify, by their doctrine, some part of Moses’ law, as to the use of it, as circumcision, sacrifices, purifyings, and other legal rites,—which could not have been done by men, that had not had such a Spirit; for there must be the same Spirit of prophecy to abrogate a law which had set it in force.”

—P. 219.

“Besides these there was ‘the public minister of the synagogue,’ who prayed publicly, and took care about the reading of the law, and sometimes preached, if there were not some other to discharge this office. This person was called, “The Angel of the Church,” and ‘the Chazan or Bishop of the Congregation.’ The public minister of the synagogue himself read not the law publicly; but, every sabbath, he called out seven of the synagogue (on other days, fewer) whom he judged fit to read. He stood by him that read, with great care observing, that he read nothing either falsely, or improperly,—and calling him back, and correcting him, if he had failed in any thing. And hence he was called, ‘Ἐπισκοπος,’ or ‘Overseer.’ Certainly, the signification of the word ‘Bishop,’ and ‘Angel of the Church,’ had been determined with less noise, if recourse had been made to the proper fountains,—and men had not vainly disputed about the signification of words, taken I know not whence. The service and worship of the temple being abolished, as being ceremonial, God transplanted the worship and public adoration of God used in the synagogues, which was moral, into the Christian church; to wit, the public ministry, public prayers, reading God’s word, and preaching, &c. Hence the names of the ministers of the Gospel were the very same, ‘The Angel of the Church,’ and ‘The Bishop,’—which belonged to the ministers in the synagogues.”

—*Hebrew and Talmudical Exercitations upon the Gospels of St. Matthew and St. Mark*, vol. xi. p. 88.

“Ver. 19: Καὶ δώσω σοι τὰς κλεῖς τῆς βασιλείας τῶν οὐρανῶν. ‘And I will give thee the keys of the kingdom of heaven.’ That is,

‘Thou shalt first open the door of faith to the Gentiles.’ He had said, that he would build his church to endure for ever, against which the ‘gates of hell should not prevail,’ which had prevailed against the Jewish Church: and ‘To thee, O Peter, (saith he,) I will give the keys of the kingdom of heaven; that thou mayest open a door for the bringing in of the Gospel to that church.’ Which was performed by Peter in that remarkable story concerning Cornelius, Acts x. And I make no doubt, that those words of Peter respect these words of Christ, Acts xv. 7; Ἄφ’ ἡμερῶν ἀρχαίων ὁ Θεὸς ἐν ἡμῖν ἐξελέξατο διὰ τοῦ στόματός μου ἀχρῶσαι τὰ ἔθνη τὸν λόγον τοῦ λόγου τοῦ Εὐαγγελίου, καὶ πιστεῦσαι. ‘A good while ago God made choice among us, that the Gentiles should hear the word of the Gospel by mouth, and believe.’

“Καὶ ὃ ἐὰν δέσῃς ἐπὶ τῆς γῆς, &c. ‘And whatsoever thou shalt bind on earth,’ &c. Καὶ ὃ ἐὰν λύσῃς ἐπὶ τῆς γῆς, &c. ‘And whatsoever thou shalt loose on earth,’ &c.

“I. We believe the keys were committed to Peter alone, but the power of binding and loosing to the other apostles also, chapter xxviii. 18.

“II. It is necessary to suppose, that Christ here spake according to the common people,—or he could not be understood without a particular commentary, which is nowhere to be found.

“III. But now ‘to bind and loose,’ a very usual phrase in the Jewish schools, was spoken of things, not of persons; which is here also to be observed in the articles, ὁ and ὅσα, ‘what,’ and ‘whatsoever,’ chap. xviii.”

—*Lightfoot*, p. 226.

NOTE (D.) 29.

“IT was indeed not at all to be expected that the Gospels, the Acts, and those Epistles which have come down to us, should have been, considering the circumstances in which they were written, any thing different from what they are: but the question still recurs, why should not the Apostles or their followers have also committed to paper, what we are sure must have been perpetually in their mouths, regular instruction to Catechumens, Articles of Faith, Prayers, and directions as to Public Worship, and administration of the Sacraments?

“Supposing that the other avocations of the Apostles would not allow any of them leisure for such compositions,—though we know that some of them did find time for writing, two of them, not a little,—even this supposition does not at all explain the difficulty; for the Acts, and two of the Gospels, were written by men who were only attendants on the Apostles. Nor would such writings as I am speaking of have required an inspired penman; only, one who had access to persons thus gifted. We know with what care the Apostolic Epistles were

preserved, first by the Churches to which they were respectively sent, and afterwards, by the others also, as soon as they received copies. How comes it then that no one of the Elders (Presbyters) of any of these Churches should have written down, and afterwards submitted to the revision of an Apostle, that outline of catechetical instruction—that elementary introduction to the Christian faith—which they must have received at first from that Apostle's mouth, and have afterwards employed in the instruction of their own converts? Why did none of them record any of the Prayers, of which they must have heard so many from an Apostle's mouth, both in the ordinary devotional assemblies, in the administration of the Sacraments, and in the 'laying on of hands,' by which they themselves had been ordained?

"Paul, after having given the most general exhortations to the Corinthians for the preservation of decent regularity in their religious meetings, adds, 'the rest will I set in order when I come.' And so doubtless he did; and so he must have done, by verbal directions, in all the other churches also; is it not strange then that these verbal directions should nowhere have been committed to writing? This would have seemed a most obvious and effectual mode of precluding all future disorders and disputes: as also the drawing up of a compendious statement of Christian doctrines, would have seemed a safeguard against the still more important evil of heretical error. Yet if any such statements and formularies *had* been drawn up, with the sanction, and under the revision of an Apostle, we may be sure they would have been preserved and transmitted to posterity, with the most scrupulous and reverential care. The conclusion therefore seems inevitable, that either no one of the numerous Elders and Catechists ever thought of doing this, or else, that they were forbidden by the Apostles to execute any such design; and each of these alternatives seems to me alike inexplicable by natural causes.

"For it should be remembered that when other points are equal, it is much more difficult to explain a *negative* than a *positive* circumstance in our Scriptures. There is something, suppose, in the New Testament, which the first promulgators of Christianity, —considered as mere unassisted men,—were not likely to write; and there is something else, which they were, we will suppose, equally unlikely to omit writing; now these two difficulties are by no means equal. For, with respect to the former, if we can make out that *any one* of these men might have been, by nature or by circumstances, qualified and induced to write it, the phenomenon is solved. To point out even a single individual able and likely to write it, would account for its being written. But it is not so with respect to the other case, that

of omission. — Here, we have to *prove a negative*; —to show, not merely that this or that man was likely not to write what we find omitted, but, that *no one* was likely to write it.

* * * * *

"Although however we cannot pretend, in every case, to perceive the reasons for what God has appointed, it is not in the present case difficult to discern the superhuman wisdom of the course adopted. If the hymns and forms of Prayer,—the Catechism,—the Confessions of Faith,—and the Ecclesiastical regulations, which the Apostles employed, had been recorded, these would all have been regarded as parts of *Scripture*: and even had they been accompanied by the most express declarations of the lawfulness of altering or laying aside any of them, we cannot doubt that they would have been in practice most scrupulously retained, even when changes of manners, tastes, and local and temporary circumstances of every kind rendered them no longer the most suitable. The Jewish ritual, designed for one Nation and Country, and intended to be of temporary duration, was fixed and accurately prescribed: the same Divine Wisdom from which both dispensations proceeded, having designed Christianity for all Nations and Ages, left Christians at large in respect of those points in which variation might be desirable. But I think no *human* wisdom would have foreseen and provided for this. That a number of *Jews*, accustomed from their infancy to so strict a ritual, should, in introducing Christianity as the second part of the same dispensation, have abstained not only from accurately prescribing for the use of all Christian Churches for ever, the mode of divine worship, but even from recording what was actually in use under their own directions, does seem to me utterly incredible, unless we suppose them to have been restrained from doing this by a special admonition of the Divine Spirit.

"And we may be sure, as I have said, that if they *had* recorded the particulars of their own worship, the very words they wrote would have been invested, in our minds, with so much sanctity, that it would have been thought presumptuous to vary or to omit them, however inappropriate they might become. The Lord's Prayer, the only one of general application that is recorded in the Scriptures, though so framed as to be suitable in all Ages and Countries, has yet been subjected to much superstitious abuse."

"Each Church, therefore, was left, through the wise foresight of Him who alone 'knew what is in man,' to provide for its own wants as they should arise!—to steer its own course by the Chart and Compass which his holy Word supplies, regulating for itself the Sails and Rudder, according to the winds and currents it may meet with.

"The Apostles had begun and estab-

lished precedents, which, of course, would be naturally adopted by their uninspired successors. But still, as these were only the formal means of grace, and not the blessing itself, it was equally to be expected that the Church should assume a discretionary power whenever the means established became impracticable or clearly unsuitable, and either substitute others, or even altogether abolish such as existed. . . . It might seem at first that the apostolical precedents were literally binding on all ages; but this cannot have been intended; and for this reason, that the greater portion of the apostolical practices have been transmitted to us, not on apostolical authority, but on the authority of the uninspired church: which has handed them down with an uncertain mixture of its own appointments. How are we to know the enactments of the inspired rulers from those of the uninspired? and if there be no certain clue, we must either bring down the authority of apostolical usage to that of the uninspired church, or raise that of the uninspired church to that of the apostolical. Now the former is, doubtless, what was, to a certain extent, intended by the Apostles themselves, as will appear from a line of distinction by which they have carefully partitioned off such of their appointments as are designed to be perpetual from such as are left to share the possibility of change, with the institutions of uninspired wisdom.

“If then we look to the account of the Christian usages contained in Scripture, nothing can be more unquestionable, than that while some are specified, others are passed over in silence. It is not even left so as to make us imagine that those mentioned may be all: but while some are noted specifically, the establishment of others is implied, without the particular mode of observance being given. Thus, we are equally sure from Scripture, that Christian ministers were ordained by a certain form, and that Christians assembled in prayer; but while the precise process of laying on of hands is mentioned in the former institution, no account is given of the precise method of church service, or even of any regular forms of prayer, beyond the Lord’s Prayer. Even the record of the Ordination Service itself admits of the same distinction. It is quite as certain that, in it, some prayer was used, as that some outward form accompanied the prayer; but the form is specified, the prayer left unrecorded.

“What now is the obvious interpretation of the holy Dispenser’s meaning in this mode of record? Clearly it is, that the Apostles regulated, under His guidance, the forms and practices of the church, so as was best calculated to convey grace to the church at that time. Nevertheless, part of its institutions were of a nature, which, although formal, would never require a change; and these therefore were left recorded in the Scriptures, to mark this dis-

inction of character. The others were not, indeed, to be capriciously abandoned, nor except where there should be manifest cause for so doing; but as such a case was supposable, these were left to mingle with the uninspired precedents; the claims of which, as precedents, would be increased by this uncertain admixture, and the authority of the whole rendered so far binding, so far subject to the discretion of the Church. They might not be altered unless sufficient grounds should appear; but the settling of this point was left to the discretion of the church.*

“The Apostles themselves, however, and their numerous fellow-laborers, would not, I think, have been, if left to themselves, so far-sighted as to perceive (all, and each of them, without a single exception) the expediency of this procedure. Most likely, many of them, but according to all human probability, some of them, would have left us, as parts of Scripture compositions such as I have been speaking of; and these, there can be no doubt, would have been scrupulously retained for ever. They would have left us Catechisms, which would have been like precise directions for the cultivation of some plant, admirably adapted to a particular soil and climate, but inapplicable in those of a contrary description: their Symbols would have stood like ancient sea-walls, built to repel the encroachment of the waves, and still scrupulously kept in repair, when perhaps the sea had retired from them many miles, and was encroaching on some different part of the coast.

“There are multitudes, even as it is, who do not, even now, perceive the expediency of the omission; there are not a few who even complain of it as a defect, or even make it a ground of objection. That in that day the reasons for the procedure actually adopted should have occurred, and occurred to all the first Christians, supposing them mere unassisted men, and men too brought up in Judaism, is utterly incredible.”—*Essay on Omissions*, pp. 15—19; 24—27; 30—34.

NOTE (E.) P. 33.

“It is not, I think, unlikely that some hasty and superficial reasoners may have found an objection to Christianity in the omission of which I have been speaking. It is certain that there are not a few who are accustomed to pronounce this or that supposition improbable, as soon as they perceive that it involves great difficulties; without staying to examine whether there are more or fewer on the *other side* of the alternative: as if a traveller, when he had the choice of two roads, should, immediately on perceiving that there were impediments in the one, decide on taking the other, before

* Hinds’ History, vol. ii. pp. 113—115.

he had ascertained whether it were even possible. I can conceive some such reasoners exclaiming, in the present case, 'Surely, if the Apostles had really been inspired by an all-wise God, they would never have omitted so essential a provision as that of a clear systematic statement of the doctrines to be believed, and the worship to be offered, so as to cut off, as far as can be done, all occasions of heresy and schism. If the Deity had really bestowed a revelation on his creatures, He would have provided rules of faith and of practice so precise and so obvious, as not to be overlooked or mistaken; instead of leaving men, whether pretending to infallibility as the Romanists, or interpreting Scripture by the light of reason as the Protestants, to elicit by a laborious search, and comparison of passages, what doctrines and duties are, in their judgment, agreeable to the Divine Will.'

"You think it was to be expected (one might reply) that God would have proceeded in this manner; and is it not at least as much to be expected *that Man would*? It is very unlikely, you say, that the Apostles would have omitted these systematic instructions, if they had really been inspired; but if they were *not*, they must have been impostors or enthusiasts; does then that hypothesis remove the difficulty? Is it not at least as unlikely, on that supposition, that no one of them, or of their numerous followers, should have taken a step so natural and obvious? All reasonable conjecture, and all experience show, that any men, but especially *Jews*, when engaged in the propagation and establishment of a religion, and acting, whether sincerely or insincerely, on their own judgment as to what was most expedient, would have done what no Christian writer during the age of (supposed) inspiration *has* done. One would even have expected indeed, that, as we have four distinct Gospels, so, several different writers would have left us copies of the Catechisms, &c., which they were in the habit of using orally. This or that individual might have been prevented from doing so by accidental circumstances; but that every one of some hundreds should have been so prevented, amounts to a complete moral impossibility.

"We have here, then, it may be said, a choice of difficulties: if the Christian religion came from God, it is (we will suppose) very strange, and contrary to all we should have expected from the Deity, that He should have permitted in the Scriptures the omission I am speaking of: if, again, it is the contrivance of men, it is strange, and contrary to all we could have expected from *men*, that *they* should have made the omission. And now, which do we know the more of, God or Man? Of whose character and designs are we the more competent judges, and the better able to decide what may reasonably be expected of each, the Creator, or our fellow-creatures? And as

there can be no doubt about the answer to this question, so, the conclusion which follows from that answer is obvious. If the alternative were presented to me, that either something has been done by persons with whose characters I am intimately acquainted, utterly at variance with their nature, and unaccountable, or else that some man to whom I am personally a stranger, (though after all, the nature of every human Being must be better known to us, than, by the light of reason, that of the Deity can be,) had done something which to me is entirely inexplicable, I should be thought void of sense if I did not embrace, as the less improbable, this latter side of the alternative.

"And such is the state of the present case, to one who finds this peculiarity in the Christian Scriptures quite unaccountable on either supposition. The argument is complete, whether we are able, or not, to perceive any wise reasons for the procedure adopted. Since no one of the first promulgators of Christianity did that which they must, some of them at least, have been *naturally* led to do, it follows that they must have been *supernaturally* withheld from it; how little soever we may be able even to conjecture the object of the prohibition. For in respect of this, and several other (humanly speaking, unaccountable) circumstances in our religion, especially that treated of in the Fourth of the Essays above referred to, it is important to observe, that the argument does not turn on the supposed *wisdom* of this or that appointment, which we conceive to be worthy of the Deity, and thence infer that the religion must have proceeded from him; but, on the utter improbability of its *having proceeded from Man*; which leaves its divine origin the only alternative. The Christian Scriptures considered in this point of view, present to us a standing Miracle; at least, a Monument of a Miracle; since they are in several points such as we may be sure, according to all natural causes, they would *not* have been. Even though the character which these writings do in fact exhibit, be such as we cannot clearly account for on *any* hypothesis, still, if they are such as we can clearly perceive no false pretenders would have composed, the evidence is complete, though the difficulty may remain unexplained."—*Essay on Omissions*, pp. 19—24.

NOTE (F.) P. 34.

"THE three great principles, then, on which every Church, or Christian society, was formed by the apostles, were SPIRITUALITY, UNIVERSALITY and UNITY. Out of these arose one important limit to the discretionary powers of the uninspired Church, when deprived of extraordinary authority. It is of the last importance that this fact should be borne in mind, in every appeal to

the practice and authority of the primitive Church. There is (even among protestant divines) a vague method of citing the authority of the early Churches in matters of discipline and practice, without any distinct view of the exact weight of that authority. In quoting doctrinal statements we are generally more accurate in our estimate! but it is undeniable, that the practices and discipline of the primitive Churches, are subject to the same kind of check from Scripture as are their opinions and faith; and are in no instance to be received as if they were matters left altogether to their discretion. The *principles*, although not the specific rules, are given in the New Testament: and this is, perhaps, nearly all that is done in the case of the doctrines themselves. Only the elements, out of which these are to be composed, are furnished by Scripture. So far from being stated in a formal way, some of the abstract terms for these doctrines are not found in the Scriptures; such a statement and enunciation of them being left to the discretion of the Church. So, too, the principles of the Church establishment were given, and were put in practice for illustration; and the application of these principles was all that was left to the discretion of its uninspired rulers. In short, every Church, in all ages, holds Scripture in its hand as its warrant for its usages as well as for its doctrines; and had the immediate successors and companions of the apostles, from the very first, corrupted the government and constitution of the Church, we should be enabled to condemn them, from the New Testament; and to this test it is the duty of all ages to bring them. Their management of those matters which are said to be left indeterminate has only the authority of an experiment; it is a practical illustration of Scripture principles. Whenever they have been successful in this experiment, it would, indeed, generally be unwise and presumptuous in us to hazard a different mode of attaining the same result; but even here, any deviation is authorized by difference of circumstances; the same principle which guided them being kept in view by us. But, in whatever stage of ecclesiastical history the principle itself has been forgotten,—it matters not how far back the practice may be traced,—it has no authority as a precedent. The Bible is our only attested rule; and we must appeal to it with the boldness recommended by the apostle to his converts; and though an angel from heaven preach unto us any other rule than that we have received, let him be accursed.

“This boundary line to the discretionary powers of the Church would be quite clear, supposing the ecclesiastical principles to have been left only as above considered, in the form of abstract instruction, whether formally enunciated, or certainly deducible from the Scriptures. But far more than this was done. On these very principles the apostles actually formed and regulated societies of

Christians; so as to leave them not merely abstractly propounded but practically proved. This proceeding, while it lightened the difficulty of the uninspired Church, (especially of those who first received the guidance of it from the apostles, and who most needed it,) proportionably contracted the discretionary powers with which they were invested. If only abstract principles had been left, uninspired authorities would have been justified in regarding solely these, and regulating the means of conformity to them by their own unbiassed judgment. But the apostolical precedents created a new restriction. Rulers of infallible judgment had not only taught the principle, but the precise method by which that principle was best preserved had been practised by them, and set forth, apparently for the guidance of their less enlightened successors.

“Was the Church of all ages bound to follow their track without any deviation? If so, where was any room for discretionary power? If not, on what authority was the deviation to be made, and how far was it authorized? Here the most accurate view of the character and object of the Christian’s sacred record is necessary, in order to remove all obscurity from the question. That record, as far as the agency of human ministers is its object, is partly historical, partly legislative. The two terms are not, perhaps, quite expressive of the distinction intended; but by Scripture being partly legislative, is meant, that it is partly concerned in conveying the rules and principles of religion—the revealed will, in short, of God. It is also partly historical; and of the historical portion no inconsiderable share is solely or principally a practical illustration of these rules. History and legislation are indeed both blended; and it is because they are thus connected: but the respective uses of them, as distinct portions of Scripture, are here, as in other questions of a similar nature, very important. When the historical incidents, the *facts* recorded, are recorded as specimens of the fulfilment of God’s will, their only authority, as precedents and examples, arises from their conformity to the principle which they illustrate. Now it is conceivable and likely, that a change of circumstances may render a practice inconsistent with such a principle, which originally was most accordant with it, and *vice versâ*. The principle is the fixed point, and the course which has first attained it may become as unsuitable to another who pursues it, as the same line of direction would be for two voyagers who should be steering for the same landmark at different seasons, and with different winds. Still, as in this latter case, the first successful attempt would be, to a certain extent, a guide to those which follow; and this, exactly in proportion to the skill of the forerunner. The apostles were known to be infallible guides; and those who immediately succeeded them, and all subsequent ages, are quite sure that they must have pursued that which was,

under the existing circumstances, the most direct line to their object,—that, situated as Christianity was in their hands, all their regulations were the best possible for preserving the principles of the Church establishment and government. The uninspired Church was therefore bound to follow them, until any apostolical practice should be found inadequate to accomplish its original purpose. Here commence the discretion and responsibility; the first obligation being to maintain the principle according to the best of their judgment, as the prudent steersman alters his track and deviates from the course marked out in his chart, when wind or tide compel him to the deviation.

“And thus we shall be at no loss for the precise difference of authority between the precedents of the apostolical and of the primitive uninspired Church. In matters which admit of appeal to the usage of the apostolical Church, we are sure, not only that the measure was wise, but the very wisest; and, accordingly, the only question is, whether its suitability has been affected by any change of circumstances. On the other hand, in a similar reference to the uninspired Church of any age, the measure is first of all pronounced wise or unwise—lawful or unlawful, as it conduces or not to the maintenance of the revealed principles of ecclesiastical society. And, supposing the measure under consideration be proved to have been so conducive, still it is not at once certain as in the former case, that it was the wisest and most judicious measure which the existing circumstances required or admitted. It emanated from fallible wisdom. Accordingly, in canvassing the authority of such a precedent, we are authorized and bound to institute two inquiries:—Was the measure the most accordant with ecclesiastical principles *then*? Is it so *now*? Whereas, in the former appeal to apostolic usage, the only question is, whether it is convenient now?—*Encyclopædia Metropolitana*, (Historical Division,) vol. ii. pp. 775, 776.

NOTE (G.) P. 38.

“SUPPOSING such a summary of Gospel-truths had been drawn up, and could have been contrived with such exquisite skill as to be sufficient and well-adapted for all, of every age and country, what would have been the probable result? It would have commanded the unhesitating assent of all Christians, who would, with deep veneration, have stored up the very words of it in their memory, without any need of laboriously searching the rest of the Scriptures, to ascertain its agreement with them; which is what we do (at least are evidently *called on* to do with a *human* exposition of the faith; and the absence of this labour, together with the tranquil security as to the correctness of their belief which would have been thus

generated, would have ended in a careless and contented apathy. There would have been no room for doubt,—no call for vigilant attention in the investigation of truth,—none of that effort of mind which is now requisite, in comparing one passage with another, and collecting instruction from the scattered, oblique, and incidental references to various doctrines in the existing Scriptures; and, in consequence, none of that excitement of the best feelings, and that improvement of the heart, which are the natural, and doubtless the designed result of an humble, diligent, and sincere study of the Christian Scriptures.

“In fact, all study, properly so called, of the rest of Scripture,—all lively interest in its perusal,—would have been nearly superseded by such an inspired compendium of doctrine; to which alone, as far the most convenient for that purpose, habitual reference would have been made, in any questions that might arise. Both would have been regarded, indeed, as of divine authority; but the Compendium, as the fused and purified metal; the other, as the mine containing the crude ore. And the Compendium itself, being not, like the existing Scriptures, that *from which* the faith is to be learned, but *the very thing to be learned*, would have come to be regarded by most with an indolent, unthinking veneration, which would have exercised little or no influence on the character. Their orthodoxy would have been, as it were, petrified, like the bodies of those animals we read of incrustated in the ice of the polar regions; firm-fixed, indeed, and preserved unchangeable, but cold, motionless, lifeless. It is only when our energies are roused, and our faculties exercised, and our attention kept awake, by an ardent pursuit of truth, and anxious watchfulness against error,—when, in short, we feel ourselves to be doing something towards acquiring, or retaining, or improving our knowledge,—it is then only, that that knowledge makes the requisite practical impression on the heart and on the conduct.”—*Essay on Omissions*, pp. 34—37.

NOTE (H.) P. 41.

MANY persons are so accustomed to hear “the tradition of the primitive Church” spoken of as “designed to be the *interpreter of Scripture*,” that they insensibly lose sight of the well-known facts of early Christian History. Conformably with those facts it would be much more correct to speak of *Scripture* as having been designed to be the *interpreter of Tradition*. For, the first Churches did not, it should be remembered, receive their religion from the Christian *Scriptures*, (as the Israelites did theirs from the books of Moses) but from *oral* teaching.

To guard against the errors, and doubts, and defects, and corruptions, to which oral

Tradition must ever be liable, the sacred books,—all of them addressed to persons who were already Christians—were provided as a lasting, pure, and authoritative record; “that they might know the certainty of those things wherein they had been instructed.”

We find accordingly, as might have been expected, the references to Scripture in the works of the early Fathers, less and less frequent and exact, the higher we go back towards the days of the Apostles; *i. e.* towards the time when the Churches had received Christian history and doctrines by oral instruction only.

The scattered notices however in the works of the early Fathers, of facts and doctrines substantially the same as we find in the Sacred Books, and also of those books themselves, is a most valuable evidence, that (as Paley remarks) the Gospel which Christians have now is the same as Christians had then. This evidence has been well compared to that afforded by the fossil remains of antediluvian animals which Geologists have examined, and which prove that elephants, for instance, and such other animals, inhabited the earth at a certain remote period.

And it may be added, that Naturalists are accustomed, in examining fossil remains,—often mere fragments of skeletons,—to compare them with such existing animals as appear to be of kindred nature; *interpreting*, if we may so speak, the less known by the better known, and thus forming reasonable conjectures as to the general appearance and character of the fossil animal as it formerly existed. But no one would think of *reversing* this process, and taking the fossil elephant, for instance, as a standard by which to correct and modify the description and delineation of the animal now existing among us.

Even so, when we meet with any thing in the Ancient Fathers which was likely to have been derived by tradition from the Apostles, the obviously rational procedure is, to expound and interpret this by the *writings* of the Apostles that have come down to us.

NOTE (I.) P. 45.

“Some one may perhaps ask you, how you can know, except by taking the word of the learned for it, that there *are* these Greek and Hebrew originals which have been handed down from ancient times? or how you can be sure that our translations of them are faithful, except by trusting to the translators? So that an unlearned Christian must, after all, (some people will tell you,) be at the mercy of the learned, in what relates to the very foundations of his faith. He must take their word (it will be said) for the very existence of the Bible in the original languages, and for the meaning

of what is written in it; and, therefore, he may as well at once take their word for every thing, and believe in his religion on their assurance.

“And this is what many persons do. But others will be apt to say, ‘How can we tell that the learned have not deceived us? The Mohammedans take the word of the learned men among them; and the Pagans do the same; and if the people have been imposed upon by their teachers in Mohammedan and Pagan countries, how can we tell that it is not the same in Christian countries? What ground have we for trusting with such perfect confidence in our Christian teachers, that they are men who would not deceive us?’

“The truth is, however, that an unlearned Christian may have very good grounds for being a believer, without placing this entire confidence in any man. He may have reason to believe that there are ancient Greek manuscripts of the New Testament, though he never saw one, nor could read it if he did. And he may be convinced that an English Bible gives the meaning of the original, though he may not trust completely to any one’s word. In fact, he may have the same sort of evidence in this case, which every one trusts to in many other cases, where none but a madman would have any doubt at all.

“For instance, there is no one tolerably educated who does not know that there is such a country as France, though he may never have been there himself. Who is there that doubts whether there are such cities as London, and Paris, and Rome, though he may have never visited them? Most people are fully convinced that the world is round, though there are but few who have sailed round it. There are many persons living in the inland parts of these islands who never saw the sea; and yet none of them, even the most ignorant clowns, have any doubt that there is such a thing as the sea. We believe all these, and many other such things, because we have been told them.

“Now suppose any one should say, ‘How do you know that travellers have not imposed upon you in all these matters; as it is well known travellers are apt to do? Is there any traveller you can so fully trust in, as to be quite sure he would not deceive you? What would you answer? I suppose you would say, *one* traveller might, perhaps, deceive us; or even two or three might possibly combine to propagate a false story, in some case where hardly any one would have the opportunity to detect them: but in these matters there are hundreds and thousands who would be sure to contradict the accounts if they were not true; and travellers are often glad of an opportunity of detecting each other’s mistakes. Many of them disagree with each other in several particulars respecting the cities of Paris and Rome; and if it had been false that there are any such cities at all, it is impossible but that

the falsehood 'should have been' speedily contradicted. And it is the same with the existence of the sea,—the roundness of the world,—and the other things that were mentioned.

It is in the same manner that we believe, on the word of the astronomers, that the earth turns round every twenty-four hours, though we are insensible of the motion; and that the sun, which seems as if you could cover it with your hat, is immensely larger than the earth we inhabit; though there is not one person in ten thousand that has ever gone through the mathematical proof of this. And yet we have very good reason for believing it; not from any strong confidence in the honesty of any particular astronomer, but because the same things are attested by many different astronomers, who are so far from combining together in a false account, that many of them rejoice in any opportunity of detecting each other's mistakes.

"Now an unlearned man has just the same sort of reason for believing that there are ancient copies, in Hebrew and Greek, of the Christian sacred books, and of the works of other ancient authors, who mention some things connected with the origin of Christianity. There is no need for him to place full confidence in any particular man's honesty. For if any book were forged by some learned men in these days, and put forth as a translation from an ancient book, there are many other learned men, of this, and of various other countries, and of different religions, who would be eager to make an inquiry, and examine the question, and would be sure to detect any forgery, especially on an important subject.

"And it is the same with translators. Many of these are at variance with each other as to the precise sense of some particular passage; and many of them are very much opposed to each other, as to the doctrines which they believe to be taught in Scripture. But all the different versions of the Bible agree as to the main outline of the history, and of the discourses recorded: and therefore an unlearned Christian may be as sure of the general sense of the original as if he understood the language of it, and could examine it for himself; because he is sure that unbelievers, who are opposed to all Christians, or different sects of Christians, who are opposed to each other, would not fail to point out any errors in the translations made by their opponents. Scholars have an opportunity to examine and inquire into the meaning of the original works; and therefore the very bitterness with which they dispute against each other, proves that where they all agree they must be right.

"All these ancient books, in short, and all the translations of them, are in the condition of witnesses placed in a witness-box, in a court of justice; examined and cross-examined by friends and enemies, and brought face to face with each other, so as to make

it certain that any falsehood or mistake will be brought to light."—*Easy Lessons on Christian Evidences*, pp. 23—27.

NOTE (K.) Pp. 48, 53.

I WILL take the liberty of here inserting extracts from the articles "Authority" and "Church," in the Appendix (on Ambiguous Terms) to the Elements of Logic.

"*Authority*.—This word is sometimes employed in its primary sense, when we refer to any one's example, testimony or judgment: as when, e. g., we speak of correcting a reading in some book, on the Authority of an ancient MS.—giving a statement of some fact, on the authority of such and such historians, &c.

"In this sense the word answers pretty nearly to the Latin 'Auctoritas.'

"Sometimes again it is employed as equivalent to 'Potestas,' Power: as when we speak of the Authority of a Magistrate, &c.

"Many instances may be found in which writers have unconsciously slid from one sense of the word to another, so as to blend confusedly in their minds the two ideas. In no case perhaps has this more frequently happened than when we are speaking of the Authority of the Church: in which the ambiguity of the latter word (see the Article Church) comes in aid of that of the former. The Authority (in the primary sense) of the Catholic, i. e. Universal Church, at any particular period, is often appealed to, in support of this or that doctrine or practice: and it is, justly, supposed that the opinion of the great body of the Christian World affords a presumption (though only a presumption) in favour of the correctness of any interpretation of Scripture, or the expediency, at the time, of any ceremony, regulation, &c.

"On the other hand, each particular Church has Authority in the other sense, viz., Power, over its own members, (as long as they choose to remain members,) to enforce any thing not contrary to God's Word. But the Catholic or Universal Church, not being one religious community on earth, can have no authority in the sense of power; since it is notorious that there never was a time when the power of the Pope, of a Council, or of any other human Governors, over all Christians, was in fact admitted, or could be proved to have any just claim to be admitted."—Pp. 349, 350.

"Church is sometimes employed to signify the Church, i. e. the Universal or Catholic Church,—comprehending in it all Christians; who are 'Members one of another,' and who compose the body, of which Christ is the Head; which, collectively taken, has no visible supreme Head or earthly governor, either individual or council; and which is one, only in reference to its One invisible Governor and Paraclete, the Spirit

of Christ, dwelling in it,—to the one common faith, and character, which ought to be found in all Christians,—and the common principles on which all Christian societies should be constituted. See Hind's *History of the Rise of Christianity*.

"Sometimes again it is employed to signify a Church; i. e. any one Society, constituted on these general principles; having governors on earth, and existing as a community possessing a certain power over its own members; in which sense we read of the 'Seven Churches in Asia;'—of Paul's having 'the care of all the Churches,' &c." —P. 353.

The two senses of the word "Authority" are in most cases so easily and completely distinguished, even by persons of no more than ordinary accuracy in the use of language, that many would be disposed, at the first glance, to wonder how any confusion ever could arise from the ambiguity. Men receive, for instance, on the "authority" of certain experienced Physicians the description of the symptoms of the Plague or some other disease, and their method of treating it; and on the "authority" of Astronomers, statements and theories relative to the heavenly bodies. So also, it is on the authority of the ancient Romans,—not of the Roman State, but the Roman Public,—that we acknowledge the works of Cicero and Horace and other classical authors. In all these and innumerable similar cases, no such idea as *coercive power* or claim of submission as a matter of *obligation*, is ever suggested to the mind by the word "authority." But it often happens that the *judgment* is even much more influenced by authority in this sense, than it would have been by a formal *decree* of some regularly constituted Body. For instance, if any one happened to have conversed on some subject with all, or nearly all, the individual members of the House of Commons separately and independently, and had found them all to concur in respect of some fact or opinion, this concurrence, though destitute of all *legal* force, would doubtless have more weight with his judgment than a regular *vote* of the House, if carried by a bare majority, in a House consisting, perhaps, of not one-fifth of the whole number of members, and perhaps opposed by the most judicious and best informed of them. And even so, if the Roman senate, or some regularly constituted academy at Rome, had formally pronounced on the genuineness of the *Æneid*, our conviction would not certainly have been stronger, and would most likely have been much weaker, than now that it is based on the independent, spontaneous, and undisputed belief of all who took an interest in the subject.

The authority on which we rest our conviction of the genuineness of the New Testament Scriptures, is of the same kind, though incomparably *stronger in degree*. For it is not to the Roman world in its

widest acceptance, but to the *literary* portion of it, that we appeal, in respect of any volume of the Classics. On the contrary, the Christian Scriptures were addressed to all classes; (the doctrine of what is called "Reserve"—of putting the light of the Gospel under a bushel—being no part of the Apostolic system) so that probably for one reader of Cicero or Livy there were more than fifty persons,—even in a very early period of the Church,—anxious to possess copies of the New Testament Scriptures, and careful, in proportion to the high importance of the subject, as to the genuineness and accuracy of what they read. On this point I will take the liberty of citing the words of an eminent writer from an unpublished discourse, delivered a good many years ago at Oxford, in a course of lectures. . . . "Nothing is more remarkable in Christianity than the care and anxiety with which the early Christians examined the pretensions of any writing to be received as the work of an Apostle. This will also account for the interval of time which elapsed before all the books of the Canon became generally received. It does not indeed appear that the genuineness of any of the four Gospels was ever doubted; but the Epistles being addressed to particular Churches, and at various times, it must have required for one of these some interval before its communication could take place throughout every country in which the Gospel was preached, accompanied by such evidence as should be satisfactory to every other Church. . . . As soon as can be supposed possible the Christians of all countries remarkably agreed in receiving them, as canonical; while the hesitation of a few proves only that this agreement was not a hasty or careless assent, but a deliberate and unbiassed judgment. . . . It cannot be too strongly pressed upon your attention that the credit of a canon thus composed is infinitely greater than if it had rested on the *authority of some general Council*. For the decision of a Council is the decision of a majority only; whereas this is ratified by the voice of every separate church. It is moreover the decision not of one meeting, or of one age, but the uncontradicted *belief* of all the first churches, spreading gradually and naturally as the Gospel spread:—a belief which was not imposed by *authority*, but was the result of their own cautious and independent examination."

I have dwelt thus fully on this subject because I believe there are not a few who being accustomed to hear the authority of the primitive church spoken of as that on which we receive the New Testament Scriptures, are led to fancy it the authority of *some one society acting collectively*, and in its corporate capacity: and thus they lose sight of the very circumstance on which the chief force of this testimony depends; namely, that there was no decree or decision of any *one Society*, but—what has far more weight

—the concurring, independent convictions of a great number of distinct Churches in various regions of the world.

NOTE (L.) P. 53.

“WE are often too much disposed, perhaps, not indeed to lay it down, but tacitly to assume, that those who sat at the feet of Apostles must be secure from error. It is more probable that they would hold substantial truth not unmixed with subordinate deviations from it. It was so even during the life-time of the Apostles, and why not after their decease? If indeed the good providence of God had not directed the Apostles themselves to bequeath to the Church their own instructions in writing, and we had to gather them only from the writings of their successors, then it might have been hoped that such very important witnesses, as the Apostolical Fathers would have thus become, would have been secured from every mistake, from every error at least which could seriously mislead us. But as it is, there was no more need of a perpetual miracle to give such an immunity from error to the immediate successors of the Apostles than to us. Moreover, we have an unhappy advantage over them, in that we know by sad experience the fatal consequences which by degrees resulted from even slight deviations from the language and sentiments of Inspiration; such as a sacrificial character gradually ascribed to the Eucharist, or an improper exaltation of the Christian ministry, or praise allotted upon unscriptural grounds to celibacy or asceticism. If *Antiquity, quo propius aberrat ab ortu et divina progenie, hoc melius ea fortasse, quæ erant vera, cernebat*, she may have been for that very reason, knowing what was true, and meaning what was right, the less suspicious of the effect of slight deviations from the exact truth of Holy Scripture. We may lament, indeed, but we cannot be surprised, that uninspired men, holding the truth substantially both as to doctrine and discipline, should slide into error here and there in tone, or sentiment, or subordinate opinion. Doubtless their errors should be our warning. Only let us be careful to detect the seeds of error even in the writings of good and holy men in primitive times, not in order to censure them, but to secure ourselves; to counteract our natural tendency to confound the uninspired with the inspired, and to make us doubly grateful that God has blessed His Church with the unerring records, written by inspired Apostles, of Gospel truth.”—*Hawkins' Sermon on the Ministry of Men*, pp. 41, 42.

NOTE (M.) p. 55.

“‘But are we then,’ (all Romanists and some Protestants would ask) ‘to be per-

petually wavering and hesitating in our faith?—never satisfied of our own orthodoxy?—always supposing or suspecting that there is something unscriptural in our Creed or in our worship? We could but be in this condition, if Christ had *not* promised to be with his Church, “always, even to the end of the world;”—had *not* declared by his Apostle, that his “Spirit helpeth our infirmities;” had *not* taught us to expect that where we are “gathered together in his Name, there is He in the midst of us.” Are we to explain away all that Scripture says of spiritual help and guidance? Or are we to look for a certain *partial and limited* help;—that the Holy Spirit will secure us from *some* errors, but lead us, or leave us, to fall into others?”

“Such is the statement, the most plausible I can give in a small compass, of the Romish (but not exclusively Romish) argument, which goes to leave no medium between a claim to infallibility, on the one hand, and universal hesitation,—absolute Scepticism, on the other. An appeal to the common sense which every one, Romanist or Protestant, exercises on *all but religious* subjects, might be sufficient to prove, from the practice of those very men who use such reasoning, not only its absurdity, but their own conviction of its absurdity. In all matters which do *not* admit of absolute demonstration, all men except a few of extravagant self-conceit, are accustomed to regard themselves or those under whose guidance they act, as fallible; and yet act, on many occasions,—after they have taken due pains to understand the subject, to ascertain their own competency, and to investigate the particular case before them,—without any distressing hesitation. There are questions in Medicine, in Agriculture, in Navigation, &c., which sensible men, well versed in their respective arts, would decide with sufficient confidence for all practical purposes: yet without holding themselves to be infallible, but on the contrary always keeping themselves *open* to conviction,—always *on the watch* against error,—attentive to the lessons which observation furnishes,—ready to stand corrected if any argument shall be adduced (however little they may anticipate this) which will convict them of mistake.

“‘Yes,’ (it may be replied) ‘all this holds good in worldly matters; but in the far more important case of religious concerns, God has graciously promised us spiritual assistance, to “lead us into all truth.”’

“It is most true that He has. Christ has declared, ‘If any man keep my saying, my Father will love him, and we will come unto him, and make our abode with him;’ ‘without Me ye can do nothing;’ for ‘if any man have not the Spirit of Christ, he is none of his; and as many as are led by the Spirit of God, they are the Sons of God.’

“But some distinction there must be between the spiritual guidance granted to the Apostles, which was accompanied by *sen-*

sible miracles, and all that has ever been bestowed, since the cessation of miracles. I do not mean a difference as to the *evidence for the existence* of each; for both are equally to be believed, if we have faith in the divine promises: but there must be a difference in the character of the divine assistance in the two cases, arising out of the presence, in the one, and the absence, in the other, of sensibly miraculous attestation. And this difference evidently is, that, in the one case, the divine agency is, in each individual instance *known*; in the other *unknown*. If an Apostle adopted any measure, or formed a decision on any doctrine, in consequence of a perceptible admonition from Heaven, he *knew* that he was, in this point, infallibly right. A sincere Christian, in the present day, may be no less truly guided by the same Spirit to adopt a right measure, or form a correct decision; but he never can *know* this with certainty, before the day of judgment. It is not that spiritual aid is now *withdrawn*, but that it is *imperceptible*; as indeed its ordinary sanctifying influence *always was*. It is to be known only by its fruits; of which we may judge by a diligent and candid examination of Scripture, and a careful, humble, self-distrusting exercise of our own fallible judgment.

"It is conceivable, therefore, that an individual or a Church may be, in fact, *free* from error; but none can ever be (either at the present moment, or in future) *secure* from error. We are not bound to believe, or to suspect, that any of the doctrines we hold are erroneous; but we are bound never to feel such a confidence in their correctness, as to shut the door against objection, and to dispense with a perpetual and vigilant examination. Even the fullest conviction that a complete perfection in soundness of doctrine is attainable has in it nothing of arrogance,—nothing of a presumptuous claim to infallibility, as long as we steadily keep in view, that even one who should have attained this, never can, in this life, be *certain* of it. We are taught, I think in Scripture, to expect that the pious and diligent student will be assisted by the divine guidance; and that in proportion as he is humble, patient, sincere, and watchfully on his guard against that unseen current of passions and prejudices which is ever tending to drive him out of the right course,—in the same degree will he succeed in attaining all necessary religious truths. But how far he *has* exercised these virtues, or how far he may have been deceiving himself, he never can be certain, till the great day of account. In the mean time, he must *act* on his convictions, as if he were certain of their being correct; he must *examine* and re-examine the grounds of them as if he suspected them of being erroneous.

"In this it is that great part of our trial in the present life consists: and it is precisely analogous to what takes place in the greater part of temporal concerns. The skilful and

cautious navigator keeps his reckoning with care, but yet never so far trusts to that as not to 'keep a look-out,' as it is termed, and to take an 'observation,' when opportunity offers. There is no risk incurred, from his strongly hoping that his computations will prove correct; provided he never resigns himself to such an indolent reliance on them as to neglect any opportunity of verifying them. The belief, again, whether true or false, that it is possible for a time-keeper to go with perfect exactness, can never mislead any one who is careful to make allowance for the possibility of error in his own, and to compare it, whenever he has opportunity, with the Dial which receives the light from heaven."—*Essay on Omissions*, pp. 43—49.

NOTE (N.) P. 62.

"It has been said that the Pope, the Bishops, the Priests, and those who dwell in convents, form the spiritual, or ecclesiastical State; and that the princes, nobles, citizens, and peasants, form the secular state or laity. This is a fine story, truly. Let no one, however, be alarmed at it. *All* Christians belong to the spiritual State; and there is no other difference between them than that of the functions they discharge. * * *

* * * If any pious laymen were banished to a desert, and having no regularly consecrated priest among them, were to agree to choose for that office one of their number, married or unmarried, this man would be as truly a priest as if he had been consecrated by all the bishops in the world. Augustine, Ambrose, and Cyprian were chosen in this manner. Hence it follows that laity and priests, princes and bishops, or as they say, the Clergy and the Laity, have, in reality, nothing to distinguish them, but their *functions*. They all belong to the same Estate; but all have not the same work to perform," &c.—*Luth. Op.* l. xvii. f. 457, et seq.

It may be needful to add, that if in a Church thus constituted, or in any other, the *Laity* are admitted to a share in the government of it, and to ecclesiastical offices, this would be, not only allowable, but wise and right. That laymen,—that is, those who hold no *spiritual* office—should take part in legislating for the Church, and should hold *ecclesiastical* offices, as in the Scotch Kirk, and in the American Episcopal Church, (always supposing, however, that they are MEMBERS of the Church; not, as in this country, belonging to other Communion) is far better than that the whole government should be in the hands of men of one Profession, the clerical.

That this has nothing of an *Erastian* character, it would be unnecessary to mention, but that I have seen the observation—in itself perfectly true—made in such a manner as to imply what is not true; *i. e.* so as to imply that some persons do, or may, main-

tain that there is something of Erastianism in such an arrangement. But who ever heard of any such charge being brought? Who, for instance, ever taxed the Scotch Kirk, or the American Episcopalian, with being Erastian, on account of their having Lay-Elders? Erastianism has always been considered as consisting in making the *State* as such,—the *Civil Magistrate by virtue of his office*,—prescribe to the People what they shall believe, and how worship God.

NOTE (O.) P. 71.

WITH respect to the first question (in reference to lay-baptism) it is plain that, according to the above principles, a Church has a right to admit, or refuse to admit, Members. This right it possesses as a *Society*: as a *Christian Society*, sanctioned by our Heavenly Master, it has a right to administer his Sacraments; and it has a right to decide who shall or shall not exercise certain functions, and under what circumstances. If it permit Laymen (that is, those who are excluded from *other* spiritual functions) to baptize, it does, by that permission, *constitute* them its functionaries, in respect of that particular point. And this it has a right to do, or to refuse to do. If a Church refuse to recognize as valid any baptism not administered by such and such officers, then the pretended administration of it by any one else, is of course null and void, as wanting that sanction of a Christian Church which alone can confer validity.

With respect to the second question, it does appear to me extremely unadvisable,—derogatory to the dignity of the ordinance,—and tending both to superstition and to profaneness, that the admission, through a divinely-instituted Rite, of members into the Society, should be in any case entrusted to persons not expressly chosen and solemnly appointed to any office in that Society.

Nearly similar reasoning will apply, I think, to the case of Ordinations. What appears to me the wisest course, would be that each Church should require a distinct appointment *by that Church* itself, to any ministerial office to be exercised therein; whether the person so appointed had been formerly ordained or not, to any such office in *another* Church. But the form of this appointment need not be such as to cast any stigma on a former Ordination, by implying that the person in question had *not* been a real and regular minister of *another* distinct Society. For any Church has a fair right to demand that (unless reason be shown to the contrary) its acts should be regarded as valid within the pale of that Church itself: but no Church can reasonably claim a right to ordain ministers for *another* Church.

As for the remaining question,—What is the actual determination as to this point,—*this* is of course a distinct question in reference to each Church.

On this point it is only necessary to remark how important it is, with a view to good order and peace, that *some* determination should be made, and should be clearly set forth, by any Church, as to this and other like practical questions; and that they should not be left in such a state of uncertainty as to furnish occasion for disputes and scruples.* Many points of *doctrine*, indeed, that may fairly be regarded as non-essential, it may be both allowable and wise for a Church to leave at large, and pronounce no decision on them; allowing each Minister, if he thinks fit, to put forth his own exposition, *as* the result of his own judgment, and not as a decision of the Church. But it is not so, in matters even intrinsically indifferent, where Church *discipline* is concerned. A Minister ought to be as seldom as possible left in the predicament of *not knowing what he ought to do* in a case that comes before him. And though it is too much to expect from a Church composed of fallible men that its decisions on every point should be such as to obtain universal *approbation* as the very best, it is but fair to require that it should at least *give* decisions, according to the best judgment of its Legislators, on points which, in each particular case that arises, *must* be decided on one way or another.

That so many points of this character should in our own Church be left in a doubtful state, is one out of the many evils resulting from the want of a Legislative Government for the Church: which for more than a century has had none,† except the Civil Legislature; a Body as unwilling, as it is unfitted, to exercise any such functions. Such certainly was not the state of things designed or contemplated by our Reformers; and I cannot well understand the consistency of those who are perpetually eulogizing the Reformers, their principles and proceedings, and yet so completely run counter to them in a most fundamental point, as to endeavour to prevent, or not endeavour to promote, the establishment of a Church government; which no one can doubt *they* at least regarded as a thing essential to the well-being, if not to the permanent existence, of a Church.‡

I have never heard any thing worth notice urged on the opposite side, except the apprehension that such a Church government as would be probably appointed would be likely to be *objectionable*;—would probably be a *bad* one. I have no doubt of this; if by “bad” be meant, *faulty*. In this sense, I am convinced that no government, civil or ecclesiastical, ever existed, or will exist, that is not “*bad*.” All governments being form-

* See “Appeal on behalf of Church government.”

† See “Case of Occasional Days and Prayers,” by John Johnson, A. M., Vicar of Cranbrook, in the Diocese of Canterbury.

‡ See “Speech on presenting a Petition from the Diocese of Kildare, with Appendix,” reprinted in a volume of Charges and other Tracts.

ed and administered by fallible men, it would be absurd to look for any that shall be exempt from errors, both in design and execution.* But the important question, and that which alone is really to the present purpose, is, whether it is likely a Government should be established that is *worse* than the absence of government.

As for the specific objections entertained against a Church government, I believe the particular evils most commonly apprehended from the establishment of one, are these two: the conferring of an excessive power on the *Clergy*, who, it is hastily assumed, are to be sole Governors of the Church; and the predominance, in any Assembly to which the supreme power might be entrusted, of some one of the exclusive and violent parties existing in the Church; who would accordingly, it is concluded, establish and enforce such regulations as would drive out of its Communion a large portion of its members.

The former of the above objections will disappear, I think, on a very moderate degree of reflection. The idea that all ecclesiastical government must of course be vested in the *Clergy*, arises, partly perhaps, from the common error of using the terms "Church" and "Clergy" as synonymous, partly, from men's recollecting that the *Convocation* (of which the shadow still remains) consisted of *Clergy*, and forgetting that it had not the government of the Church solely, but conjointly with the King and the Parliament;—that Parliament consisted of *members* indeed, but not of *ministers* of the Church; and that the Prayer-book does not rest on the sole authority of Convocation, but is part and parcel of an Act of Parliament. And whether we look to the actual condition of our own Church, in which the appointment to all the Bishoprics, and to most of the Parishes, is in lay-hands, or to the offshoot of our Church in the United States, which is governed partly by lay-members, we cannot consider it as any thing unprecedented that the Laity should have a share in Ecclesiastical government.

In truth, nothing can be more unlikely than that either the *Clergy* should think of excluding the Laity, or the Laity, themselves, from all voice in ecclesiastical regulations.

The other apprehension,—that of a complete preponderance of some extreme party,—arises, I conceive, from not taking into account the influence which, in every Assembly and every Society, is always exercised,—except in some few cases of very extraordinary excitement, and almost of temporary disorganization,—by those who are in a *minority*. It might appear at first sight—and such is usually the expectation of a child of ordinary intelligence, and of all those who are deficient in an intelligent study of history, or observation of what is passing in the

world,—that whatever Party might in any Meeting or in any Community, obtain a *majority*, or in whatever other way, a *superiority*, would be certain to carry out their own principles to the utmost, with a total disregard of all the rest; so that in a Senate for instance, consisting, suppose, of 100 members, a majority, whether of 51 or 49, or of 70 to 40, or of 95 to 5, would proceed in all respects as if the others had no existence: and that no *mutual concessions* or compromises could take place except between parties exactly balanced. In like manner a person wholly ignorant of Mechanics might suppose that a body acted on by several unequal forces in different directions would obey altogether the strongest, and would move in the direction of that; instead of moving, as we know it does, in the *diagonal*;—in a direction approaching *nearer* to that of the strongest force; but not coinciding with it.

And experience shows that in human affairs as well as in Mechanics, such expectations are not well founded. If no tolerable wise and good measures were ever carried except in an Assembly where there was a complete predominance of men sufficiently enlightened and public spirited to have a decided preference for those measures above all others, the world would, I conceive, be much worse governed than it really is.

No doubt, the larger the proportion of judicious and patriotic individuals, the better for the community; but it seems to be the appointment of Providence that the prejudices and passions, and interests of different men should be so various as not only to keep one another somewhat in check, but often to bring about, or greatly help to bring about, *mixed* results, often far preferable to any thing devised or aimed at by *any* of the parties.

The British Constitution, for instance, no intelligent reader of history would regard as wholly or chiefly the work of men fully sensible of the advantages of a government so mixed and balanced. It was in a great measure the result of the efforts, partially neutralizing each other, of men who leaned, some of them towards pure Monarchy, and others towards Republicanism. And again, though no one can doubt how great an advance (it is as yet only an *advance*) in the principles of religious *toleration*, and of making a final appeal to *Scripture alone*, is due to the Reformation, yet the Reformers were slow in embracing these principles. They were at first nearly as much disposed as their opponents to force their own interpretations of Scripture on every one, and to call in the Magistrate to suppress heresy by force. But not being able to agree among themselves *whose* interpretation of Scripture should be received as authoritative, and *who* should be entrusted with the Sword that was to extirpate heresy, compromises and mutual concessions gradually led more and more to the *practical* adoption of principles whose

* "Erun vitia, donec homines."

theoretical truth and justice is, even yet, not universally perceived.

And similar instances may be found in every part of history. Without entering into a detailed examination of the particular mode in which, on each occasion, a superior party is influenced by those opposed to them,—either from reluctance to drive them to desperation, or otherwise,—certain it is, that looking only to the results,—the practical working of any Government,—in the long run and in the general course of its measures,—we do find something corresponding to the composition of forces in Mechanics; and we find oftener than not, that the course actually pursued is better (however faulty) than could have been calculated from the character of the greater part of those who administered the Government. The wisest and most moderate, even when they form but a small minority, are often enabled amidst the conflict of those in opposite extremes, to bring about decisions, less wise and just indeed than they themselves would have desired, but far better than those of either of the extreme parties.

The above views are the more important, because any one who does not embrace them, will be likely, on contemplating any wise institution or enactment of *former times*, to be thrown into indolent despondency, if he find, as he often will, that the majority of those around us do not seem to come up to the Standard which those institutions and enactments appear to him to imply. He takes for granted that the whole or the chief part of the members of those Assemblies, &c., in which such and such measures were carried, must have been men of a corresponding degree of good sense, and moderation, and public spirit: and perceiving as he thinks that an Assembly of such men could not now be found, he concludes that wisdom and goodness (in Governments at least) must have died with our ancestors; or at least that no good is *at present* to be hoped from any Government. And yet perhaps the truth will be that the greater part of the very Assemblies whose measures he is admiring may have consisted of men of several parties, each of which would, *if left entirely to itself*, have made a much worse decision than the one actually adopted; and *that one* may have been such, as, though not actually to coincide with, yet most nearly to approach to the opinions of the wisest and best members of the Assembly, though those may have been but a small minority. And it may be therefore, that he may have around him the materials of an Assembly not at all inferior in probity or intelligence to that which he is contemplating with despairing admiration.

To apply what has been said to the case now before us; it does seem to me that in a Church Government established on any tolerably fair and natural principles, though we must calculate on such imperfections as must attend every thing wherein imperfect

man is concerned, there would be no reason to apprehend *more* imperfections than the best *civil* Government is liable to, (which every one admits to be on the whole a most important benefit) or than are to be found in the Ecclesiastical Government of the American Episcopalians; which though administered by fallible mortals like ourselves, is found, on the whole, to work very satisfactorily.

To expect that any extreme party would exercise such uncontrolled sway as materially to corrupt or subvert the Church, would be against all experience.

Suppose for instance that the principal legislative power of some Church were lodged in some Body of men the majority of whom were attached, more or less, to two or more Parties, entertaining extreme views: one, suppose, leaning a good deal towards the system of the Greek and Romish Churches, another towards that of the Puritans, &c. It would argue, I think, great ignorance of the lessons of History to conclude that one or other of these Parties must carry out their own views in the most unmitigated excess, and that the only question would be, *which* of the Parties would succeed in completely crushing the other, and would thenceforward domineer over, and rigidly coerce, or expel, all other Members of the Church. The conclusion warranted by analogy would, I think, be, that the opposite extremes would temper and partially neutralize each other;—that the moderate and judicious portion of the Assembly, and who were themselves the most exempt from party bias, would persuade the least immoderate of each party to make some concessions for the sake of peace, and to forego some of the most unreasonable of their requisitions;—that these mediators, by supporting what was wrong, in each party (for almost every party has something of each) would go a good way towards ultimately rejecting the worst part, and retaining the best part, of each proposal;—and that the final result would be, that many points would be left at large, which would have most probably been determined in an objectionable way by either party if left wholly unchecked; and that other points, (such as require to be determined one way or another in order to avoid future dissension) would be determined on wiser and better principles than the greater part of the Assembly would, in the first instance, have adopted; while an opening would remain for continual progress in the removal of such defects, and the adoption of such improvements, as experience and reflection might point out.

Another consideration which ought not to be lost sight of is that for any evils which *might* be produced through the fault of Legislators, *those Legislators* would be *responsible*: while for the evils (not, which *may* arise, but which are *actually existing*, notorious and grievous,) caused by the *want* of a Legislature, every Prelate, every Minis-

ter, and every Member of the Church is responsible who has it in his power to do any thing—much or little—towards the remedy of that want, and neglects to do his utmost.

NOTE (P.) P. 73.

It might be added that, among those who express the greatest dread and detestation of "German Neology,"—"German Philosophy,"—the "daring speculations of the Germans," &c., are to be found some of that class of Anglican Divines, whose doctrines apparently correspond the most closely (as far as we can judge respecting two confessedly mystic schools) with those of that very Neology. The very circumstance itself that both *are* schools of Mysticism,—that both parties have one system for the mass of mankind, and another—whether expressed in different language or in the same words understood in a totally different sense—for the initiated, affords a presumption, when there are some points of coincidence in the doctrine *divulged*, that a still further agreement may be expected in the *reserved* doctrines.

As the advocates of reserve among us speak of not intending to inculcate generally such conclusions as a logical reasoner will correctly deduce by following out their principles, and again speak of an ordinary reader being likely to "miss their real meaning, by not being aware of the peculiar sense in which they employ terms," so those German Transcendentalists whom I allude to, —whose system of Theology—or rather of Atheology—is little else than a new edition of the Pantheism of the ancient Heathen Philosophers, of the Brahmins, and the Buddhists, —use a similar double-meaning language. They profess Christianity, and employ profusely such terms as a "God," "Faith," "Incarnation," "Miracle," "Immortality," &c., attaching to these words, a meaning quite remote from what is commonly understood by them. Their "God" is the God of Pantheism; not a personal agent, but a certain vital principle diffused through the Material Universe, and of which every human soul is a portion; which is at death to be reabsorbed into the infinite Spirit, and become just what it was before birth,* exactly according to the ancient system of philosophy described by Virgil: "*Mens agitat molem et toto se corpore miscet; Inde hominum pecudumque genus.*" &c. And

(the other terms alluded to are understood by them in a sense no less wide from the popular acceptation.

Both parties again agree in deprecating all employment of reasoning in matters pertaining to religion: both decry the historical evidence of Christianity, and discourage as profane all appeal to evidence; and both disparage Miracles considered as a proof of the divine origin of Christianity, alleging that *every* event that occurs is equally a miracle; meaning therefore exactly what in ordinary language would be expressed by saying that *nothing* is miraculous.

Other coincidences may be observed; such as the strong desire manifested by both parties to explain away, or soften down the line of demarcation between what ordinary Christians call the *Scriptures*, and every thing subsequent; between what *we* call the Christian Revelation, considered as an historical transaction recorded in the new Testament; and any pretended after revelation, or improvement, or completion, or perfect developement, of "the system of true Religion. To Christianity as a *Revelation completed* in our sacred books, both parties, more or less openly, according to circumstances, confess their objection.

And it is remarkable that even the vehement censures pronounced by one of these schools, on the speculations of the other, is far from being inconsistent with their fundamental agreement in principles. For of the German Neologists themselves, some of the leading writers strongly condemn the rashness, with which some conclusions have been openly stated by others of the same school, and confessedly proceeding on principles fundamentally the same.

If any one therefore who belongs to a school of mystical reserve, should be suspected, in consequence of a remarkable agreement between some of his acknowledged tenets and the German Neology, of a further degree of secret concurrence, beyond, perhaps, what he is really conscious of, he must not wonder at, or complain of such suspicion; nor expect at once to repel it by the strongest censure of those writers, and professed renunciation of their doctrines; unless he can also make up his mind to renounce likewise the system of a "Double doctrine" altogether, resolving, and proclaiming his resolution to speak henceforth "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth," respecting his religious tenets, and forswearing totally the practice of employing language "in a peculiar sense" different from what is ordinarily understood by it.

* See Essay 1st, First Series.





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Dr. Pusey's Sermon.

"THE HOLY EUCHARIST A COMFORT TO THE PENITENT."

A SERMON

PREACHED

BEFORE THE UNIVERSITY,

**IN THE CATHEDRAL CHURCH OF CHRIST, IN OXFORD, ON THE
FOURTH SUNDAY AFTER EASTER.**

BY THE

REV. E. B. PUSEY, D.D.,

**REGIUS PROFESSOR OF HEBREW, CANON OF CHRIST CHURCH, AND LATE FELLOW OF
ORIEL COLLEGE.**

NEW-YORK:

PUBLISHED BY HARPER & BROTHERS, 82 CLIFF-STREET.

1843.

"**THE** true understanding of this fruition and union which is betwixt the body and the head, betwixt the true believers and Christ, the ancient Catholic Fathers both perceiving themselves, and commending to their people, were not afraid to call this Supper, some of them, the salve of immortality and sovereign preservative against death; other, a deifical communion; other, the sweet dainties of our Saviour, the pledge of eternal health, the defence of faith, the hope of the resurrection; other, the food of immortality, the healthful grace, and the conservatory to everlasting life. All which sayings both of the Holy Scripture and godly men, truly attributed to this celestial banquet and feast, if we would often call to mind, O how would they inflame our hearts to desire the participation of these mysteries, and oftentimes to covet after this bread, continually to thirst for this food!"—*Homilies, 1st Part of the Sermon on the Sacrament.*

P R E F A C E.

It is with pain that the following sermon is published. For it is impossible for any one not to foresee one portion of its effects; what floods, namely, of blasphemy against holy truth will be poured forth by the infidel, or heretical, or secular and anti-religious papers, with which our church and country is at this time afflicted. It is like casting, with one's own hands, that which is most sacred to be outraged and profaned. Still there seem to be higher duties which require even this. The Gospel must be a savour unto life or savour unto death; from the first, it has been blasphemed wherever it has been preached. It has been blasphemed by Jews, Pagans, and each class of heretics as they arose; the Arians used blasphemous jests, taught the people blasphemous ballads, and profaned the Holy Eucharist; increase of scoffers and blasphemers are among the tokens of the last days; and yet the two witnesses are to bear testimony, though in sackcloth. The more the truth prevails, the madder must the world become; the blasphemies with which holy truth is now assailed, are but a token of its victories.

The first duty of a minister of Christ is to His little ones; for their sakes, lest any be perplexed in consequence of all which has been lately said, this sermon is published, and for them the following explanation is intended.

Nothing, throughout the whole sermon, was farther from my thoughts than controversy. I had, on such occasions as my office afforded, commenced a course of sermons on the comforts provided by the Gospel for the penitent amid the consciousness of sin, with the view to meet the charge of sternness, involved by the exhibition of one side of Catholic truth; in this course, the sacred subject of the Holy Eucharist, of necessity, came in its order; and it was my wish (however I may have been hindered by sudden indisposition from developing my meaning as I wished) to point out its comforting character to the penitent in two ways; 1st, indirectly, because it is the Body and Blood of his Lord, and is the channel of His Blessed Presence to the soul; 2dly, because in Holy Scripture the mention of remission of sins is connected with it.

In essaying to teach this, I could not but forget controversy; having, in the commencement, warned against irreverent disputings, I lived for the time in Holy Scripture and its deepest expositors, the Fathers, and was careful to use rather their language than my own, lest, on so high a subject, I should seem to speak over-boldly. Conscious of my own entire adherence to the formularies of my Church, and having repeatedly expressed myself on this subject, and in the very outset of this Sermon conveyed at once, that I believed the elements to "remain in their natural substances," and that I did not attempt to define the *mode* of the Mystery that they were also the Body and Blood of Christ, I had no fear of being misunderstood.

Once more to repeat my meaning, in order to relieve any difficulties which might (if so be) be entertained by pious minds, trained in an opposed and defective system of teaching, before whom the Sermon may now be brought. My own views were cast (so to speak) in the mould of the minds of Bp. Andrews and Abp. Bramhall, which I regarded as the type of the teaching of our Church. From them originally, and with them, I learned to receive in their literal sense, our Blessed Lord's solemn words, "This is my Body," and from them, while I believe the consecrated elements to become, by virtue of His consecrating Words, truly and really, yet spiritually and in an ineffable way, His Body and Blood, I learned also to withhold my thoughts as to the *mode* of this great Mystery, but "as a Mystery," to "adore it." With the Fathers, then, and our own great Divines (explaining, as I believe, the true meaning of our Church,*) I could not but speak of the consecrated elements as being, what, since He has so called them, I believe them to become, His Body and Blood; and I feared not, that, using their language, I should, when speaking of Divine and "spiritual" things, be thought to mean otherwise than "spiritually," or having disclaimed all thoughts as to the *mode* of their being, that any should suppose I meant a *mode* which our Church disallows.

It remains only to say, that the notes (with a few exceptions) are such as, amid hurry and severe indisposition, I could, when my sermon was demanded, put together, with the view at once of showing those who were to pronounce upon it, that I had not used high language, of my own mind, and that they might not unconsciously blame the Fathers, while they thought they were blaming myself only. They spread over the wider space, because, wholly unconscious what could be objected to, I was reduced to conjecture what it might be.

The Appendix is now drawn up by a friend (the writer being disabled), with the same view, that some might be saved from objecting to what, though often taught, may be new to them, when they see that the same, or things much stronger, have been taught by a series of Divines in our Church. It is not meant that some of these wri-

* As shown by the use of the ancient words, "The Body of our Lord Jesus Christ" (rejected in Edw. VI., 2d Book), the Rubric for "the reverent eating and drinking" of the consecrated elements which remain, and the Article, which, while declaring that "the Body of Christ is given, taken, and eaten in the Supper, only after a spiritual and heavenly manner," by the use of the words "given" and "taken," shows that it calls That "the Body of Christ" which is "given" by the minister, "taken" by the people. (See Knox's Remains, ii., p. 170.) In like way, the Catechism teaches that "The Body and Blood of Christ are *verily* and *indeed* taken and received of the faithful, in the Lord's Supper." The very strength of the words of the Rubric denying "the Corporeal presence of Christ's *natural* Flesh and Blood" in itself implies (as we know by those who inserted that Rubric) that they believed everything short of this.

ters (e. g. Mede) are always consistent with themselves; it is meant only to show what has been taught, partly without rebuke, partly with authority, in our later English Church. Nor has it been the object to select the strongest passages of our writers; on the contrary, some stronger than any here quoted have been purposely passed by, out of a writer so universally received as G. Herbert.* The general tone of doctrine has been the object chiefly had in view in the selection. Some of the materials of the Catena have been already used in previous explanations on the doctrine.†

Passages or phrases, here and there, in the Sermon, were, on account of the length of the whole, omitted in the delivery; they were inserted in the copy called for, in brackets, as making the whole more authentic; these distinctions are now omitted, as needlessly distracting such as may read for edification, since in one instance only did the passages so omitted contain doctrine, viz., the words from the fathers from "and by commingling" to "Divine Nature."

And now, may God have mercy on this His Church! It is impossible not to see that a controversy has been awakened, which from the very sacredness of the subject and the vagueness of

the views of many, and the irreverence of the age, one should, of all others, most have deprecated. Yet things are in His hands, not in man's; and He, Who has so mercifully overruled every trial and every strife hitherto, to the greater good of this His Church, will, we doubt not, if we obtain from Him patient hearts, so overrule this also. And, if, since I can now speak in no other manner, I may, in this way, utter one word to the young, to whom I have heretofore spoken from a more solemn place, I would remind them, how, almost prophetically, sixteen years ago, in the volume, which was the unknown dawn and harbinger of the re-awakening of deeper truth, this was given as the watchword to those who should love the truth, "In * quietness and confidence shall be your strength." There have been manifold tokens, that patience is one great grace which God is now calling forth in our Church. "The wrath of man worketh not the righteousness of God." So, then, though it be to see, as we must see, the truth of God cast out, and spoken against, and trodden under foot of many, they who love it, may well be patient, when He, Whose truth it is, bears so patiently with us all; sure, that even when it seems to be trampled upon, it will thereby but sink the deeper into the "good ground" of the "honest and good heart," thence to spring up multiplied, in His good time, "thirty, sixty, and hundred fold."

Christ Church,

Ember Week, after Feast of Pentecost, 1843.

* Both in his Poems and in his Country Parson, which forms part of the Clergyman's Instructor, a work printed by the University, and recommended by Bishops to candidates for ordination.

† Tracts, No. 61; Mr. Newman's "Letter to Dr. Fausset;" Bishop of Exeter's Charge; my "Letter to Dr. Jelf;" "the Doctrine of the Catholic Church in England on the Holy Eucharist."

* *Is.*, *xxx.*, 27. Motto to "The Christian Year," 1827.

THE SERMON.

MATT., xvi., 28.—This is my blood of the New Testament, which is shed for many, for the remission of sins.

It is part of the manifold wisdom of God, that his gifts, in nature and in grace, minister to distinct, and, as it often seems, to unconnected ends; manifesting thereby the more his own unity, as the secret power of all things, putting itself forward in varied forms and divers manners, yet itself the one cause of all that is. The element which is the image of our baptism cleanses alike and refreshes, enlightening the fainting eye, wakens to life, as it falls, a world in seeming exhaustion and death, changes the barren land into a garden of the Lord, gives health, and nourishment, and growth. And if in nature, much more in the gifts of grace. For therein God, not by Will, or by Power only, but by Himself and the effluence of his Spirit, is the life of all which lives through Him. Our one Lord is to us, in varied forms, all, yea, more than all His disciples dare ask or think. All are His Life, flowing through all His members, and in all, as it is admitted, effacing death, enlarging life. As blind, he is our Wisdom; as sinful, our Righteousness; as hallowed, our Sanctification; as recovered from Satan, our Redemption; as sick, our Physician; as weak, our Strength; as unclean, our Fountain; as darkness, our Light; as daily fainting, our daily Bread; as dying, Life Eternal; as asleep in Him, our Resurrection.

It is, then, according to the analogy of His other gifts, that His two great Sacraments have in themselves manifold gifts. Baptism containeth not only remission of sin actual or original, but maketh members of Christ, children of God, heirs of heaven, hath the seal and earnest of the Spirit, the germ of spiritual life; the Holy Eucharist imparteth not life only, spiritual strength, and oneness with Christ, and His Indwelling, and participation of him, but, in its degree, remission of sins also. As the manna is said to have "contented every man's delight, and agreed to every taste," (1) so He, the Heavenly Manna, becometh to every man what he needeth, and what he can receive; to the penitent, perhaps, chiefly remission of sins and continued life, to those who have "loved Him and kept His word," His own transporting, irradiating Presence, full of His own grace, and life, and love; yet to each full contentment, because to each His own overflowing, undeserved goodness.

Having then, on former occasions, spoken of the Fountain of all comfort, our Redeeming Lord, His Life, for us, and Intercession with the Father, as the penitent's stay amid the overwhelming consciousness of his sins, it may well suit, in this our season of deepest joy, to speak of that, which, flowing from the throne of the Lamb which was slain, is to the penitent the deepest river of his joy, the Holy Mysteries; from which, as from Paradise, he feels that he deserves to be shut out—from which perhaps, in the holier discipline of the Ancient Church, he would have been for a time removed, but which to his soul must be the more exceedingly precious, because they are the Body and Blood of his Redeemer. While others joy with a more Angelic joy, as feeding on Him, who is the Angels' food, and "sits," as St. Chrysostom (2) says, "with Angels and Archangels and heavenly powers, clad with the kingly robe of Christ itself, yea, clad with the King Himself, and having spiritual armor," he may be the object of the joy of Angels; and while as a penitent he approaches as to the Redeemer's side, he may hope that having so been brought, he, with the penitent, shall not be parted from It, but be with Him and near Him in Paradise. "To the holier," says another (3), "He is more precious as God; to the sinner more precious is the Redeemer. Of higher value and avail is He to him, who hath more grace; yet to him also to whom much is forgiven, doth He the more avail, because "to whom much is forgiven, he loveth much."

Would that in the deep joy of this our Easter festival, the pledge of our sealed forgiveness, and the earnest of endless life in God, we could, for His sake by Whom we have been redeemed, lay aside our wearisome strifes, and that to speak of the mysteries of Divine love might not become the occasion of unloving and irreverent disputings. Would that, at least in this sacred place, we could dwell in thought together, on His endless condescension and loving-kindness, without weighing in our own measures words which must feebly convey Divine mysteries; rather intent (as so many in this day seem) on detecting that others have spoken too strongly on that which is unfathomable, than on ourselves adoring that Love, which is past finding out. "When we speak of spiritual things," is St. Chrysostom's (4) warning,

on approaching this same subject, "be there nothing of this life, nothing earthly in our thoughts; let all such things depart and be cast out, and be wholly given to the hearing of the Divine Word. When the Spirit discourseth to us, we should listen with much stillness, yea, with much awe. For the things this day read are worthy of awe. 'Except ye eat the Flesh of the Son of Man and drink His Blood, ye have no life in you.'"

The penitent's joy, then, in the Holy Eucharist is not the less deep, because the pardon of sins is not, as in Baptism, its direct provision. The two great Sacraments, as their very signs show, have not the same end. Baptism gives; the Holy Eucharist preserves and enlarges life. Baptism engrafts into the true Vine; the Holy Eucharist derives the richness and fullness of His life into the branches thus engrafted. Baptism buries in Christ's tomb, and through it He quickens with His life; the Holy Eucharist is given not to the dead, but to the living. It augments life, or—death; gives immortality to the living; to the dead it gives not life, but death; it is a saviour of life or death, is received to salvation or damnation. Whence the ancient Church so anxiously withheld from it such as sinned grievously, not as an example only to others, but in tenderness to themselves, lest they break through and perish; "profane," says St. Cyprian (5), "the Holy Body of the Lord," not themselves be sanctified; fall deeper, not be restored; be wounded more grievously, not be healed; since it is said, he adds, "Whoso eateth the Bread and drinketh the Cup of the Lord unworthily, is guilty of the Body and Blood of the Lord."

The chief object, then, of the Holy Eucharist, so conveyed by type or prophecy, by the very elements chosen, or by the words of our Lord, is the support and enlargement of life, and that in Him. In type (6), the tree of life was within the Paradise of God, given as a nourishment of immortality, withheld from Adam when he sinned: the bread and wine, wherewith Melchizedeck met Abraham, were to refresh the father of the faithful, the weary warrior of God; the Paschal Lamb was a commemorative sacrifice; the saving blood had been shed; it was to be eaten with the unleavened bread of sincerity and truth, and with bitter herbs the type of mortification, and by those only who are undefiled. The Manna was given to them after they had passed the Red Sea, the image of cleansing Baptism, and, as he himself interprets it, represented Him as coming down from heaven to give life unto the world, the food of Angels and the holy hosts of heaven; The Shew-bread was eaten only by those hallowed to the Priesthood, (as the whole Christian people has

in this sense been made kings and priests), and when once given to David and those that were with him, still on the ground that the "vessels of the young men were holy (7)." The Angel brought the cake to Elijah, that in the strength of that food he might go forty days and forty nights unto the Mount of God. In verbal prophecy, it is foretold under the images of the very elements, and so of strengthening and overflowing joy, "Wisdom," that is, He Who is the Wisdom of God, in a parable corresponding to that of the marriage-feast, crieth, "Come, eat of My bread and drink of the wine I have mingled." Or, in the very Psalm of his Passion and atoning Sacrifice, it is foretold, that "the poor shall eat and be satisfied;" or that He, the good Shepherd, shall prepare a Table for those whom He leadeth by the still waters of the Church, and giveth them the Cup of overflowing joy;" or as the source of gladness, "Thou hast put gladness into my heart, since the time that their corn, and wine, and oil (the emblem of the Spirit of which the faithful drink) increased," and "the wine which gladdeneth man's heart, and the oil which maketh his face to shine, and bread which strengtheneth man's heart;" or of spiritual growth, "corn and wine shall make the young men and maidens of Zion to grow; or as that which alone is satisfying, buy wine without money and without price," for that "which is not bread;" or as the special Gift to the faithful, "He hath given meat unto them that fear him;" or that which, after his Passion, He drinketh anew with His disciples in His Father's kingdom, "I have gathered my myrrh, I have drunk my wine with my milk; eat, O friends; drink, yea, drink abundantly, O beloved."

In all these varied symbols, strength, renewed life, growth, refreshment, gladness, likeness to the Angels, immortality are the gifts set forth; they are gifts as to the Redeemed of the Lord placed anew in the Paradise of his Church, admitted to His Sanctuary, joying in His Presence, growing before Him, filled with the river of His joy, feasting with Him, yea, Himself feasting in them, as in them He hungereth (8). Hitherto, there is in allusion to sin; it is what the Church should be, walking in the brightness of His light, and itself reflecting that brightness.

And when our Lord most largely and directly is setting forth the fruits of eating His Flesh and drinking His Blood, He speaks throughout of one Gift, life; freedom from death, life through Him, through His indwelling, and therefore resurrection from the dead, and life eternal. "This is the Bread, which cometh down from heaven, that a man may eat thereof and not die. If any man eat of this Bread, he shall live for ever; and the Bread that I will give is

My Flesh, which I will give for the life of the world." "Except ye eat the Flesh of the Son of man, and drink His Blood, ye have no life in you." "Whoso eateth my Flesh and drinketh my Blood hath eternal life, and I will raise him up at the last Day." He that eateth My Flesh and drinketh My Blood dwelleth in Me and I in him." "As the Living Father hath sent Me, and I live by the Father, so he that eateth Me, he also shall live by Me." "He that eateth of this Bread shall live for ever." No one can observe how this whole discourse circleth round this gift of life, and how our Lord, with unwearied patience, bringeth this one truth before us in so many different forms, without feeling that He means to inculcate, that life in Him is His chief gift in his Sacrament, and to make a reverent longing for it an incentive to our faith. Yet, although life in Him is the substance of His whole teaching, the teaching itself is manifold. Our Lord inculcates not one truth only in varied forms, but in its different bearings. He answers not the strivings of the Jews, "how can this man give us his flesh to eat?" Such an "How can these things be?" he never answereth; and we, if we are wise, shall never ask how (9) they can be elements of this world and yet His very Body and Blood. But how they give life to us he does answer; and amid this apparent uniformity of His teaching, each separate sentence gives us a portion of that answer. And the teaching of the whole, as far as such as we may grasp it, is this. That He (10) is the Living Bread, because He came down from Heaven, and as being one God with the Father, hath life in Himself, even as the Father hath life in Himself; the life then which He is He imparted to that Flesh which He took into Himself, yea, which He took so wholly, that Holy Scripture says, He became it, "the Word became Flesh," and since it is thus a part of Himself, "Whoso eateth My Flesh and drinketh My Blood," (He Himself says the amazing words,) "eateth Me," and so receiveth into Himself in an effable manner his Lord Himself, "dwelleth," (our Lord says) "in Me and I in him," and having Christ within him (11), not only *shall* he have, but he *hath* already "eternal Life," because he hath Him who is "the Only True God and Eternal Life (12);" and so Christ "will raise him up at the last Day," because he hath His life in him. Receiving Him into this very body (13), they who are His receive life, which shall pass over to our very decaying flesh; they have within them Him who is Life and Immortality and Incorruption, to cast out or absorb into itself our natural mortality, and death, and corruption, and shall "live for ever," because made one with Him Who Alone "liveth for evermore." It is

not then life only as an outward gift to be possessed by us, as His gift; it is no mere strengthening and refreshing of our souls, by the renewal (14) and confirming our wills and invigorating of our moral nature, giving us more fixedness of purpose, or implanting in us Christian graces; it is no gift, such as we might imagine gives to the most perfect of God's created beings in himself. Picture we the most perfect wisdom, knowledge, strength, harmony, proportion, brightness, beauty, fitness, completeness of created being; fair as was that angel "in the garden of God" before he fell; "the seal of comeliness, full of wisdom, and complete in beauty—perfect in his ways from the day he was created (15)." Yet let this be a perfection, upheld, indeed, of God, yet external to Him, as a mere creation, and it would fall unutterably short of the depth of the mystery of the Sacraments of Christ, and the gift, the germ whereof is therein contained for us; although such as we actually are, we know that, for strength we have weakness, for knowledge ignorance, our nature jarring still, disharmonized, obscured, deformed, both by the remains of original corruption and our own superadded sins. For the life therein bestowed is greater than any gift, since it is life in Christ, life through His indwelling, Himself Who is Life. And Holy Scripture hints that the blessed Angels, who never fell, shall, in some way to us unknown, gain by the mystery of the Incarnation, being with us gathered together under One Head, our Incarnate Lord into His One Body (16); the fullness of Him who filleth all in all. Certainly, Scripture seems to imply, that, although he "took not the nature of angels," but "of man," yet all created beings, "thrones, and dominions, and principalities, and powers," shall, if one may reverently say it, be more filled with God, when, this His body being perfected, there shall be no check or hinderance to the full effluence of His Divine Nature, circulating through the whole Body, into which He shall have "knit things in heaven and things in earth," "the innumerable company of the Angels," and "the just made perfect;" and the whole glorified Church shall be clothed and radiant with Him, the Sun of Righteousness.

And of this we have the germs and first beginnings now. This is (if we may reverently so speak) the order of the mystery of the Incarnation, (17) that the Eternal Word so took our flesh into Himself, as to impart to it His own inherent life; so that we, partaking of It, that life is transmitted on to us also, and not to our souls only, but our bodies (18) also, since we become flesh of His flesh, and bone of His bone, (19) and He Who is wholly life is imparted to us wholly. (20) The Life which He is, spreads around, first giving Its own vitality

to that sinless Flesh which He united indissolubly with Himself, and in it encircling and vivifying our whole nature, and then, through that bread which is His Flesh, finding an entrance to us individually, penetrating us, soul and body, and spirit, and irradiating and transforming into His own light and life. In the words of a father (21) who in warfare with the Nestorian heresy lived in the mystery of the Incarnation, "He is life by nature, inasmuch as He was begotten of the Living Father; but no less vivifying also is His Holy Body, being in a matter brought together (*συννηγμένον*) and ineffably united with the all-vivifying Word; wherefore It is accounted His, and is conceived as one with Him. For, since the Incarnation, it is inseparable; save that we know that the Word which came from God the Father, and the Temple from the Virgin, are not indeed the same in nature; for the Body is not consubstantial with the Word from God, yet is one by that ineffable coming-together and concurrence; and since the Flesh of the Saviour became life-giving, as being united to That which is by nature Life, The Word from God, then, when we taste It, we have life in ourselves, we too being united with It, as It to the indwelling Word." "I then, (22) He saith, being in him will by Mine own Flesh raise up him who eateth thereof, in the last day. For since Christ is in us by His own Flesh, we must altogether rise, for it were incredible, yea, rather, impossible, that Life should not make alive those in whom It is." To add the words of one father only of the Western Church, ever had in honour, as well for his sufferings for the faith, as for his well-weighed and reverent language, S. Hilary (23) adduced the very actualness of this union in proof against the Arians, that the Unity of the Father and the Son, was not of will, but of nature, because our union with the Son is by unity of nature, not of harmony of will only. "For if the Word was truly made Flesh, and we, in the Supper of the Lord, truly receive the Word, being Flesh, how must He not be thought to abide in us, by the way of nature, Who, being born man, took to Himself the nature of our flesh, now inseparable from Him, and under the Sacrament of the Flesh which is to be communicated to us, hath mingled the nature of His own Flesh with His eternal nature. So then, we are all one, because both the Father is in Christ, and Christ in us. Whosoever then shall deny that the Father is in Christ by way of nature, let him first deny that himself is by way of nature in Christ or Christ in Him; because the Father in Christ and Christ in us, make us to be one in them. If then Christ truly took the Nature of our Body, and that Man, Who was born of Mary, is truly Christ, and we truly, under

a Mystery, receive the Flesh of His Body, (and thereby shall become one, because the Father is in Him and He in us), how is it asserted that the Unity is of will only, whereas the natural property (conveyed) through the Sacrament is the Sacrament of a perfect unity?" And a little after, (24) alleging our Blessed Lord's words, "My Flesh is truly meat, My Blood is truly drink." "Of the truth of the Flesh and Blood, there is no room left for doubt. For now, according both to the declaration of the Lord and our faith, It is truly Flesh and truly Blood. And these, received into us, cause, that we are in Christ and Christ in us. Is not this truth? Be it not truth to those who deny that Christ Jesus is true God. He then is in us through the flesh, and we are in Him, since this, which we are, is with Him in God."

Would that, instead of vain and profane disputings, we could but catch the echoes of these hallowed sounds, and, forgetting the jarrings of our earthly discords, live in this harmony and unity of Heaven, where, through and in our Lord, we are all one in God. Would that, borne above ourselves, we could be caught up within the influence of the mystery of that ineffable love whereby the Father would draw us to that oneness with Him in His Son, which is the perfection of eternal bliss, where will, thought, affections shall be one, because we shall be, by communication of His Divine Nature, one. Yet such is undoubted Catholic teaching, and the most literal import of Holy Scripture, and the mystery of the Sacrament, that the Eternal Word, Who is God, having taken to Him our flesh and joined it indissolubly with Himself, and so, where His Flesh is, there He is (25), and we receiving it, receive Him, and receiving Him, are joined on to him through His Flesh to the Father, and He dwelling in us, dwell in Him, and with Him in God. "I," he saith, "in the Father, and ye in Me, and I in you." This is the perfection after which all the rational creation groans, this for which the Church, which hath the first fruits of the Spirit, groaneth within herself, yea, this for which our Lord Himself tarrieth, that his yet imperfect members advancing onward in him (26), and the whole multitude of the Redeemed being gathered into the One Body, His whole Body should, in Him, be perfected in the Unity of the Father. And so is He also, as Man, truly the Mediator between God and Man, in that being as God, One with the Father, as man, one with us, we truly are in Him who is truly in the Father. He, by the truth of the Sacrament, dwelleth in us, in Whom, by Nature, all the fulness of the Godhead dwelleth; and lowest is joined on with highest, earth with heaven, corruption with incorruption, man with God.

But where, one may feel, is there here

any place for the sinner? Here all breathes of holy life, life in God, the life of God imparted to man, the indwelling of the All Holy and incarnate Word, the Presence of God in the soul and body, incorruption and eternal life, through His Holy Presence and union with him, Who, being God, is Life. Where seems there room for one, the mansion of whose soul has been broken down, and he to have no place where Christ may lay His head (27); the vessel has been broken, if not defiled, and now seems unfit to contain God's Holy Presence; the tenement has been narrowed by self-love, and seems incapable of expanding to receive the love of God, or God Who is love; or choked and thronged with evil or foul imaginations; or luxury and self-indulgence have dissolved it, or evil thoughts and desires have made room for evil spirits in that which was the dwelling-place of the Trinity?

Doubtless, God's highest and "holy" gift is, as the Ancient Church proclaimed, chiefly "for the holy." "Ye cannot be partakers of the Table of the Lord, and the table of devils." And as Holy Scripture, so also the Ancient Church, when alluding to the fruits of this ineffable gift, speak of them mostly as they would be to those, who, on earth, already live in Heaven, and on Him Who is its life and bliss. They speak of those "clothed in flesh and blood, drawing nigh to the blessed and immortal nature (28);" of "spiritual fire (29);" "grace (30) exceeding human thought and a gift unutterable;" "spiritual food (31), surpassing all creation visible and invisible," "kindling (32) the souls of all, and making them brighter than silver purified by the fire;" "removing (33) us from earth, transferring us to heaven," "making angels for men, so that it were a wonder that man should think he were yet on earth," (34) yea, more than angels, "becoming that which we receive, (35) the Body of Christ." For that so we are "members (36) of Him, not by love only, but in very deed, mingled with that Flesh, mingled with Him, that we might become in a manner one substance with Him," "the one Body and one Flesh of Christ (37);" and He the Eternal Son and God the Word in us, "commingled (38) and co-united with us," with our bodies as with our souls, preserving both for incorruption; "re-creating the spirit in us, to newness of life, and making us 'partakers of His Divine Nature';" "the bond of our unity with the Father, binding us to Himself as Man," Who is "by nature, as God, in God His own Father;" "descending to our nature subject to corruption and to change, and raising it to Its own excellences, and "by commingling it with Itself, all but removing it from the conditions of created Nature," and "re-forming it according to Itself." "We are," adds St. Cyril,

"perfected into unity with God the Father, through Christ the Mediator. For having received into ourselves, bodily and spiritually, Him who is by Nature and truly the Son, Who hath an essential Oneness with Him, we, becoming partakers of the Nature which is above all, are glorified." "We," says another (39), "come to bear Christ in us, His Body and Blood being diffused through our members; whence, saith St. Peter, we become 'partakers of the Divine Nature.'"

Yet, although most which is spoken belongs to Christians as belonging already to the household of saints and the family of Heaven and the Communion of Angels and unity with God, still here, as elsewhere in the New Testament, there is a subordinate and subdued notion of sin; and what wraps the Saint already in the third Heaven, may yet uphold us sinners, that the pit shut not her mouth upon us. The same reality of the Divine Gift makes it Angel's food to the Saint, the ransom to the sinner. And both because It is the Body and Blood of Christ. Were it *only* a thankful commemoration of his redeeming love, or *only* a showing forth of His Death, or a strengthening *only* and refreshing of the soul, it were indeed a reasonable service, but it would have no direct healing for the sinner. To him its special joy is that it is his Redeemer's very (40) broken (41) Body, It is His Blood, which was shed for the remission of his sins. In the words of the ancient Church, he "drinks his ransom," (42) he eateth that, "the very Body and Blood of the Lord, the only sacrifice for sin," (43) God "poureth out" for him, yet "the most precious blood of his Only-Begotten;" (44) they "are fed from the Cross of the Lord, because they eat His Body and Blood;" (45) and as of the Jews of old, even those who had been the betrayers and murderers of their Lord, it was said, "the Blood (46) which in their phrensy they shed, believing they drank," so of the true penitent it may be said, whatever may have been his sins, so he could repent, awful as it is to say, the Blood he in deed despised and profaned, and trampled under foot, may he, when himself humbled in the dust, drink, and therein drink his salvation. "He (47) who refused not to shed His blood for us, and again gave us of His Flesh and His very blood, what will He refuse for our salvation?" "He," says St. Ambrose, (48) "is the Bread of life. Whoso then eateth life cannot die. How should he die, whose food is life? How perish, who hath a living substance? Approach to Him, and be filled, because He is Bread; approach to Him and drink, because He is a fountain; approach to Him, and be enlightened, because He is Light; approach to Him and be freed, because where the Spirit of the Lord is, there is liberty approach to him

and be absolved, because He is Remission of sins."

In each place in Holy Scripture where the doctrine of the Holy Eucharist is taught, there is, at least, some indication of the remission of sins. Our blessed Lord, while chiefly speaking of Himself, as the Bread of life, the true meat, the true drink, His Indwelling Resurrection from the dead, and Life everlasting, still says also, "the Bread that I will give is My Flesh, which I will give for the life of the world." As amid the apparent identity of this teaching, each separate oracle enounces some fresh portion of the whole truth, so also does this; that His Flesh and Blood in the Sacrament shall give life, not only because they are the Flesh and Blood of the Incarnate Word, who is Life, but also because they are the very Flesh and Blood which were given and shed for the life of the world, and are given to those, for whom (49) they had been given. This is said yet more distinctly in the awful words whereby He consecrated forever (50) elements of this world to be His Body and Blood. It has been remarked (51), as that which cannot be incidental, (as how should any words of the Eternal Word be incidental?) how amid lesser variations in the order or fulness of those solemn words they still, wherever recorded, speak of the act as a present act. "This is My Body which is given for you;" "This is My Body which is broken for you;" "This is My Blood of the New Testament which is shed for many for the remission of sins;" "This Cup is the New Testament in My Blood which is shed for you." He saith not, "which shall be given," "shall be broken," "shall be shed," but "is being given," "being broken," "being shed" (*διδόμενον, κλωμενον ἐκχυνόμενον*), and this, in remarkable contrast with His own words, when speaking of that same Gift, as yet future, "The Bread which I will give is My Flesh, which I will give (*δὲ ἐγὼ δώσω*) for the life of the world." And of one of the words used, S. Chrysostom (52) remarks how it could not be said of the Cross, but is true of the Holy Eucharist. "For 'a bone of Him,' it saith, 'shall not be broken.' But that which he suffered not on the Cross, this He suffers in the oblation for thy sake, and submits to be broken that he may fill all men." Hereby He seems as well to teach us that the great Act of his Passion then began: then, as a Priest, did He through the Eternal Spirit offer Himself without spot to God; then did He "consecrate" Himself (53) before He was by wicked hands crucified and slain (54); and all which followed, until He commended His Blessed Spirit to the hands of His Heavenly Father, was one protracted, willing, Suffering. Then did He begin His lonely journey, where there was none to help or uphold, but He "travelled in the

greatness of His strength;" then did He begin to "tread the wine press alone," and to "stain all His raiment;" then to "wash the garments" of His Humanity "with" the "Wine" of His Blood (55); and therefore does the Blood bedew us too; it cleanses us, because it is the Blood shed for the remission of our sins (56). And this may have been another truth, which our Lord intended to convey to us, when he pronounced the words as the form which consecrates the sacramental elements into His Body and Blood, that that Precious Blood is still, in continuance (57) and application of His One Oblation once made upon the Cross, poured out for us now, conveying to our souls, as being His Blood, with the other benefits of His Passion, the remission of our sins also. And so, when St. Paul says, "The cup of blessing which we bless, is it not the participation of the Blood of Christ?" remission of sins is implied by the very words. For, if we be indeed partakers of His atoning Blood, how should we not be partakers of its fruits? "That which is in the Cup," S. Chrysostom paraphrases, (58) "is that which flowed from His side, and of that do we partake." How should we approach His Sacred Side, and remain leprous still? Touching with our very lips that cleansing Blood, (59) how may we not, with the Ancient Church, (60) confess, "Lo, this hath touched my lips, and shall take away mine iniquities and cleanse my sins?" (61)

There is, accordingly, an entire agreement in the Eucharistic Liturgies of the universal Church, in prayer, in benediction, in declaration, confessing that in the Holy Eucharist, there is forgiveness of sins also. Those of S. James (62) and S. Mark (63) so paraphrase the words of Consecration as to develop the sense that they relate not only to the past act of His Precious Bloodshedding on the Cross, but to the communication of that Blood to us now. "This is My Body which for you is broken and given for the remission of sins." "This is My Blood of the New Testament, which for you and for many is poured out and given for the remission of sins." Again, the Liturgies join together, manifoldly, remission of sins and life eternal, as the two great fruits of this Sacrament. Thus in the prayer for the descent of the Holy Ghost on the sacred elements, (64) "that they may be to all who partake of them to the remission of sins, and to life eternal;" or in intercession, (65) "that we may become meet to be partakers of Thy holy mysteries to the remission of sins and life eternal," or in the words of communicating, (66) "I give thee the precious and holy and undefiled Body of our Lord and God and Saviour Jesus Christ for the remission of sins and life eternal." And the prayer in our own liturgy is almost in the very words

of an Eastern (67) and in the character of a Western Liturgy (68), "that our sinful bodies may be made clean by His Body and our souls washed by His most precious Blood." Even the Roman Liturgy, though less full on this point, has prayers, "that (69) the Communion may cleanse us from sin," "may be the washing away of guilt, the remission of all offences (70)."

It will then seem probably too refined and narrowing a distinction, when some divines of that communion, countenanced by the language of the Council of Trent (71), maintain, in opposition to other errors (72), that venial sins only are remitted by the Holy Eucharist, since to approach it in mortal sin were itself mortal sin. For although our Church also requires at least confession to God, and pronounces His absolution over us, before we dare approach those Holy Mysteries, yet because we are so far freed from our sins that we may approach, to our salvation not to condemnation, yet can we say that we are so freed, that nothing remains to be washed away? that the absolution, which admits to that cleansing Blood, is everything, that cleansing Blood itself, in this respect also, addeth nothing? Rather, the penitent's comfort is, that, as, in S. Basil's (73) words on frequent communion, "continual participation of life is nothing else than manifold life," so, often communion of that Body which was broken and that Blood which was shed for the remission of sins, is manifold remission of those sins over which he mourns, that as the loving-kindness of God admits him again and again to that Body and that Blood, the stains which his soul had contracted are more and more effaced, the guilt more and more purged, the wounds more and more healed, that atoning Blood more and more interposed between him and his sins, himself more united with his Lord, Who Alone is Righteousness and Sanctification and Redemption.

Since, then, this Divine Sacrament has, as its immediate and proper end, union with Him who hath taken our manhood into God, and the infusion into us of his Spirit and life and immortality, making us one with his glorified Humanity, as He is One in the Godhead with the Father; and, besides this, it is ulteriorly the cleansing of our sins, the refining our corruptions, the repairing of our decays, what must be the loss of the Church of the latter days, in which communions are so infrequent! How can we wonder that love should have waxed cold, corruptions so abound, grievous falls have been, among our youth, almost the rule, to stand upright the exception, Heathen strictness reproach Christian laxity, the Divine life become so rare, all higher instances of it so few and faint, when "the stay and the staff," the strength of that life is willingly forfeited? How

should there be the fulness of the Divine life amid all but a month-long fast from our "daily Bread?" While in the largest portion of the Church, the people mostly gaze at the threshold of the Heaven where they do not enter (74), what do we? We seem, alas! even to have forgotten, in our very thoughts, that daily Communion, which once was the common privilege of the whole Church, which, when the Eastern Church relaxed in her first love, the Western continued, and which they from whom we have our Communion Service in its present form, at first hoped to restore (75). It implies a life, so different from this our commonplace, ordinary tenour, a life so above this world as knit with Him Who hath overcome the world; so Angelic as living on Him Who is Angels' Food (76); a union with God so close, that we cannot mostly, I suppose, imagine to ourselves how we could daily thus be in Heaven and in our daily business here below, how sanctify our daily duties, thoughts, refreshment, so that they should be tinged with the hues reflected by our daily Heaven, not that heavenly gift be dimmed with our earthliness; how our souls should through the day shine with the glory of that ineffable Presence to which we had approached, not we approach to it with earth-dimmed souls. It must ever be so; we cannot know the Gift of God, if we forfeit it; we must cease mostly even to long for what we forego. We lose the very sense to understand it.

It is not in blame of others, my brethren, God forbid! it is as the confession of a common fault, to which others have contributed least who have been least unworthy, and which, if we confess, God may the rather teach us how to amend, that I dare not but notice, how even in this privileged and protected place, we still mostly forego even what remains, and what our Liturgy still enjoins. We have learned even, as people needs must, to justify the omission. As those, who know not our privileges of daily service, think set daily prayers must become a lifeless form, so right-minded persons speak, (and perhaps until they know it, must needs speak,) as though not we needed more reverence to partake worthily of the Communion weekly, but as though weekly Communions must needs decrease, not increase, reverence. And thus in this abode, which God has encompassed and blessed with privileges above all others, where so many have been brought into an especial nearness to Him, and a sacredness of office, so many look to be so brought, and yet on that account need the more watchfulness and Divine strength that they fall not—where, if we will, we may retire into ourselves, as much as we will, and have daily prayers to prepare our souls—we have in

very many cases, not even the privileges which are becoming common in village Churches; we all, to whom it is expressly, as by name, enjoined, to "receive the (77) Holy Communion with the Priest every Sunday *at the least*," have it perhaps scarcely monthly (78), and the thanksgiving for the Ascension of our Lord stands in our Prayer Book year by year unuttered, because when he ascended up on high to receive gifts for men, there are none here below to receive the Gift He won for us, or Himself, Who is the Giver and the Gift. Nor has this been ever thus; even a century and a half ago, this Cathedral was remarked as one of those, where, after the desolation of the Great Rebellion, weekly Communion were still celebrated. (79)

But, however we may see that our present decay and negligence should not continue, restoration must not be rashly compassed. It is not a matter of obeying rubrics, but of life or death—of health or decay—of coming together for the better or for the worst, to salvation or to condemnation. Healthful restoration is a work of humility, not to be essayed as though we had the disposal of things, and could at our will replace what by our forefathers' negligence was lost, and by our sins bound up with theirs is yet forfeited. Sound restoration must be the gift of God, to be sought of him in humiliation, in prayer, in mutual forbearance and charity, with increased strictness of life, and more diligent use of what we have. We must consult one for the other. There is, in our fallen state, a reverent abstaining from more frequent Communion, founded on real though undue fears; there is and ought to be a real consciousness that more frequent Communion should involve a change of life, more collectedness in God, more retirement, at times, from society, deeper consciousness of His presence, more sacredness in our ordinary actions whom He so vouchsafeth to hallow, greater love for His Passion which we celebrate, and carrying it about, in strictness of self-rule and self-discipline, and self-denying love. And these graces, we know too well, come slowly. Better, then, for a time forego what any would long for, or obtain it, whereby God's bounty and Providence that Gift may be had, than by premature urgency "walk not charitably," or risk injury to a brother's soul. He Who alone can make more frequent Communion a blessing, and who gave such strength to that one heavenly meal, whereby through forty days and forty nights of pilgrimage he carried Elijah to His Presence at the Mount of God,

can, if we be faithful and keep His Gift which we receive, give such abundant strength to our rarer Communion, that they shall carry us through our forty years of trial unto his own Holy Hill, and the Vision of himself in bliss. Rather should those who long for it, fear that if it were given them, they might not be fitted for it, or, if we have it, that we come short of the fulness of its blessing, than use inconsiderate eagerness in its restoration. Ask we it of God, so will He teach us how to obtain it of those whom He has made its dispensers to us. They too have their responsibilities, not to bestow it prematurely, though they be involved in the common loss. Let us each suspect ourselves, not others; the backward their own backwardness, the forward their own eagerness; each habitually interpret well the other's actions and motives; they who seek to partake more often of the heavenly Food, honour the reverence and humility which abstains, and they who think it reverent to abstain, censure not as innovation, the return to ancient devotion and love; restore it, if we may, at such an hour of the day, when to be absent need not cause pain or perplexity, and may make least distinction; so, while we each think all good of the other, may we altogether, strengthened by the Same Bread, washed by the Same Blood, be led, in the unity of the Spirit and the bond of peace and holiness of life, to that ineffable Feast, where not, as now, in Mysteries, but face to face, we shall ever see God, and be ever filled with His Goodness and His Love.

Meantime such of us as long to be penitents, may well feel that we are less than the least of God's mercies; that we have already far more than we deserve; (for whereas we deserved Hell, we have the antepast of Heaven); that the children's bread is indeed taken and given unto dogs; that He, who is undefiled, spotless, separate from sinners, cometh to be a guest with us sinners; and therein may we indeed find our comfort and our stay. For where He is, how should there not be forgiveness, and life, and peace, and joy? What other hope need we, if we may indeed hope that we thereby dwell in Him and He in us, He in us, if not by the fulness of His graces, yet with such at least as are fitted to our state, cleansing our iniquities and healing our infirmities, Himself the forgiveness we long for; we in Him, in Whom if we be found in that Day, our pardon is forever sealed, ourselves forever cleansed, our iniquity forgiven, and our sin covered.

NOTES.

- (1) Wisd., xvi., 20.
- (2) Hom. 46, in S. Joh. fin.
- (3) S. Ambrose de Jos., c. 3, § 11.
- (4) Hom. 47, in S. Joh. init.
- (5) Ep. 15, ad Mart., and Ep. 16, ad Presb.
- (6) All the following types, as also that of the "burning coal," referred to hereafter, are received (with some others) even by the learned Lutheran, J. Gerhard (de S. Coen., c. 2), as are some of the verbal prophecies; all are currently found among the Fathers.
- (7) Sam., xxi., 5.
- (8) S. Ambr. de Myst. fin., S. Jerome, Ep. 120, ad Hedib., q. 2, on St. Matt., xxvi., 29. "Moses gave us not the true bread, but the Lord Jesus; Himself feasting, and the feast; Himself eating, and Who is eaten (Ipse conviva et convivium, ipse comedens et qui comeditur). We drink His Blood, and without Himself we cannot drink it. Let us do His will, and Christ will drink with us His own Blood in the kingdom of the Church."
- (9) "Marvel not hereat, nor inquire in Jewish manner how," &c.—S. Cyr., in S. Joh., l. iv., p. 362, Add., p. 358, 5.
- (10) "When the Son saith that He was sent, He signifieth His Incarnation, and nothing else; but by Incarnation we mean that He became wholly man. As, then, the Father, He saith, made Me man, and since I was begotten of That Which is, by nature, Life, I, being God the Word, 'live,' and, having become man, filled My Temple, that is, My Body, with Mine own nature; so then, in like manner, shall he also who eateth my Flesh live by Me. For I took mortal flesh; but, having dwelt in it, being by nature Life, because I am of The living Father, I have transmuted it wholly into My own life. The corruption of the flesh conquered not me, but I conquered it, as God. As then (for I again say it, unwearied, since it is to profit), although I was made flesh (for the 'being sent' meaneth this), again I live through the living Father, that is, retaining in Myself the natural excellence (*εὐφραν*) of Him Who begat Me, so also he, who, by the participation of My Flesh, receiveth Me, shall have life in himself, being wholly and altogether transferred into Me, who am able to give life, because I am, as it were, of the life-giving Root, that is, God the Father."—S. Cyril in S. Joh., l. iv., c. 3, init., p. 366, ed. Aub.
- (11) "So receive the Holy Communion, believing that it hath power of expelling, not death only, but the diseases in us [*i. e.*, in the soul]. For Christ thus coming to be in us (*ἐν ἡμῖν γεγώς*), lulleth in us the law which rageth in the members of the flesh, and kindleth carefulness to Godward, and deadeneth passions," &c.—S. Cyr. in S. Joh., vi., 56, p. 365. "He saith, he that eateth My Flesh dwelleth in Me, showing that He is mingled with him (*ἐν αὐτῷ ἀνακινῶται*)."—S. Chrys., Hom., 47, in S., § 1. "Thou hast not the Cherubim, but the Lord Himself of

the Cherubim in dwelling, not the pot, nor the manna, the tables of stone and Aaron's rod, but the Body and Blood of the Lord."—S. Chrys. in Ps. 133. "Thou art about to receive the King within thee (*ὑποδέχεσθαι*) by communion. When the King entereth the soul, there ought to be a great calm."—S. Chrys., de B. Philog., fin.

(12) See S. Cyr., ib., p. 363.

(13) "Why do we receive it [the Holy Eucharist] within us? Is it not that it may make Christ to dwell in us corporeally also (*ἄρ' οὐχὶ καὶ σωματικῶς ἡμῖν ἐνοικίζουσα τὸν Χριστόν*), by participation and communion of His holy flesh? For St. Paul says that the Gentiles are embodied (*αὐσσωμα*) with, and coheirs, and copartakers of Christ? How are they shown to be 'embodied'? Because, being admitted to share the Holy Eucharist, they become one body with Him, just as each one of the holy Apostles. For why did he [St. Paul] call his own, yea the members of all, as well as his own, the members of Christ? (1 Cor., vi., 15.) And the Saviour Himself saith, 'Whoso eateth My Flesh, and drinketh My Blood, dwelleth in Me and I in Him.' For here it is especially to be observed, that Christ saith that He shall be in us, not by a certain relation only as entertained through the affections, but also by a natural participation. For, as if one entwinneth wax with other wax, and melteth them by the fire, there resulteth of both one (*ἐν τῷ*), so through the participation of the Body of Christ and of His precious Blood, He in us, and we again in Him, are co-united; for in no other way could that which is by nature corruptible be made alive, unless it were bodily entwined with the Body of That Which is by nature Life, the Only-Begotten (*εἰ μὴ συνεπλακῇ σωματικῶς τῷ σώματι τῆς κατὰ φύσιν ζωῆς τοῦτ' ἔστι, τοῦ Μονογενοῦς*). And if any be not persuaded by my words, give credence to Christ himself, crying aloud, 'Verily, verily, I say unto you, Except ye eat,' &c. (St. John, vi., 53, 54.) Thou hearest how Himself, plainly declaring that, unless we 'eat His Flesh and drink His Blood,' we 'have not in ourselves,' that is, in our flesh, 'Eternal Life; but Eternal Life may be conceived to be, and most justly, the Flesh of That Which is Life, that is, the Only-Begotten.'" S. Cyr. in S. Joh., xv., 1, l. x., c. 2, p. 862, 3. "How say they that the flesh goeth to corruption, and partaketh not of life, which is nourished by the Body of the Lord and by His Blood. Our doctrine agreeth with the Eucharist, and the Eucharist confirmeth our doctrine. For as bread out of the earth receiveth the invocation of God, is no longer common bread, but Eucharist, consisting of two things, an earthly and a heavenly, so also our bodies, receiving the Eucharist, are no longer corruptible, having the hope of the Resurrection forever."—S. Iren., 4, 18, 5; comp. S. Greg. Nyss. (very fully), Catech. Orat., c. 37, t. iii., p. 102.

(14) But, in the words of our Catechism, "by

the Body and Blood of Christ," i. e., by receiving them.

(15) Ezek., xxviii., 12, 15.

(16) "I say more, even angels, and virtues, and the higher powers are confederated in this one Church, as the Apostle teaches that in Christ all things are reconciled, not only things in earth, but things in heaven."—S. Nicetæ Expl. Symb., p. 44, (quoted Manning, Unity of the Church, p. 37.)

(17) "Doth any man doubt that even from the flesh of Christ our very bodies do receive that life which shall make them glorious at the latter day, and for which they are already accounted parts of His Blessed Body? Our corruptible bodies could never live the life they live, were it not that here they are joined with His Body, which is incorruptible, and that His is in ours as a cause of immortality—a cause by removing through the death and merit of His own flesh that which hindered the life of ours. Christ is, therefore, both as God and as man, that true vine whereof we both spiritually and corporeally are branches. The mixture of His bodily substance with ours is a thing which the ancient fathers disclaim. Yet the mixture of His flesh with ours they speak of, to signify what our very bodies through mystical conjunction receive from that vital efficacy which we know to be in His; and from bodily mixtures they borrow diverse similitudes rather to declare the truth, than the manner of coherence between his sacred and the sanctified bodies of saints."—Hooker, H. E., v., 56, 9. The thoughtful study of these chapters of Hooker on the connexion of the Sacraments with the Incarnation of our Blessed Lord would do much, in pious minds, to remove existing difficulties in the reception of the truth.

(18) "The Holy Body then of Christ giveth life to those in whom It is, and keepeth them from incorruption, mingled (*ἀνακρινόμενον*) with our bodies. For we know it to be the Body of no other than of Him Who is, by Nature, Life, having in Itself the whole Virtue of the united Word, and in-qualified as it were, (*πεποιπμένον*) yea, rather, filled with His mighty working, whereby all things are made alive and kept in being.—S. Cyr. in S. Joh. 6, 35, 1, iii., c. 6, p. 324.

(19) S. Chrys. Hom. 46, in S. Joh. § 2, fin. "Wherefore we needs ought to learn what is the miracle (*θαῦμα*) of the Mysteries, why they were given, and what their benefit. We become one body, members, he saith, of His Flock and of His Bones."—Add., § 3. See also Mede, App.

(20) "If they who touched the hem of His garment drew such great virtue, how much more they who possess him wholly (*οἱ ὅλον αὐτὸν κατέχοντες*)."—S. Chrys. Hom. 50, in S. Matt., § 2.

(21) S. Cyril Alex. in S. Joh. 1, iv., c. 2, in v. 44, p. 361. The words just preceding are, on v. 24. "For wholly destitute of all share and taste of that life which is sanctification and bliss, are they who do not through the mystical Communion (*εὐλογία*) receive the Son."

(22) Ib. in v. 55, p. 363.

(23) De Trin., viii., 13.

(24) Ib., § 14.

(25) "Where His Body is, there Christ is. When the adversary shall see thy dwelling-place (hospitium) filled with the brightness of the heavenly Presence," &c.—S. Ambr., in Ps. 118, § 8, 48.

(26) S. Aug. in Ps. 138, § 21. Serm. 135, de verb.; Ev. Joh., 9, c. 5, comp. S. Hil. de Trin., xi., 49, (quoted Tract on Holy Baptism, p. 180, ed. 3.)

(27) Bp. Andrewes' Devotions for Holy Communion, (from Ancient Liturgies,) "O Lord, I am not worthy, I am not fit, that Thou shouldest come under the roof of my soul; for it is all desolate and ruined; nor hast Thou in me fitting place to lay thy head."

(28) S. Chrys. de Sacerdot., iii., 5, add. in die Nat. J. C., t. 2, p. 305, "consider that, being earth and ashes, thou receivest the Body and Blood of Christ—now when God inviteth thee to His own Table, and setteth before thee his own Son—let us draw near as approaching to the King of Heaven."

(29) De Beat. Philog. Hom., vi., t. i., p. 500, ed. Ben. de Pœnit. Hom. 9, init., S. Ephr. Opp. Syr., t. iii., p. 23.

(30) S. Chrys. in Ps. 133.

(31) S. Chrys. de Bapt. Christi, fin.

(32) "This Blood is the salvation of our souls; by this the soul is washed; by this beautified; by this kindled; this maketh our mind gleam more than fire; this maketh the soul brighter than gold."—S. Chrys. in S. Joh. Hom. 46, § 3, add. de Sac., iii., 4.

(33) S. Christ. in S. Matt. Hom. 25, § 3.

(34) S. Chrys. de Bapt. Christi fin., t. ii., p. 374.

(35) S. Aug. Serm., 227, ad Inf. de Sacr.

(36) S. Chrys. Hom., 46, in S. Joh., § 3. "But that we may be thus [one body, members of His Flesh and of His Bones,] not through love only, but in very truth, be we mingled with that Flesh. For this taketh place through the Food He gave us, wishing to show the longing He hath towards us, wherefore He hath mingled Himself with us, and blended (*ἀνέμυρε*) His body with us that we might be in a manner one substance (*ἐν τι*) as the body joined to the head," and in S. Matt. Hom. 82, § 5. "It sufficed not to Him to become man, nor to be buffeted and slain, but He mingled Himself also with us, and not by faith only, but in very deed maketh us His Body."

"For as if one joint wax with wax, he will see the one in the other, in like manner, I deem, he who receiveth the Flesh of our Saviour Jesus Christ, and drinketh His precious Blood, as He saith, is found as one substance with Him (*ἐν ὧς πρὸς αὐτὸν*) commingled as it were and immingled with him (*δυνακρινόμενος ὥσπερ καὶ ἀναμικγνόμενος αὐτῷ*), through the participation, so that he is found in Christ, and Christ again in him. As then Paul saith that a little leaven leaveneth the whole lump, so the least portion of the consecrated elements blendeth (*ἀναφύρει*) our whole body with itself, and filleth it with its own mighty working, and thus Christ cometh to be in us and we in Him."—S. Cyr. in S. John, 6 57, p. 364, 5. S. Cyril again uses the word *ἀνακεκραμένους* ib., p. 351.

(37) S. Chrys. in S. Mat., Hcm., 82, § 5. "That whereas the Angels gaze with awe, thereby are we nourished, therewith are we mingled, and we become the one body and the one flesh of Christ." Add., S. Cyr., Jer., Lect. 22, § 3.

(38) The whole passage stands thus in S. Cyril, (in S. Joh., 17, 23, l. xi., c. 12, p. 1001.) "We are united [not only with each other, but] with God also. And how, the Lord Himself hath explained. 'I in them, and Thou in Me, that they may be perfected in one (*εἰς ἓν*).' For the Son is in us corporeally as Man, commingled and co-united with us (*συνακρινόμενός τε καὶ συνενωόμενος*) by the Holy Eucharist. And again spiritually as God, by the power and grace of His own Spirit, re-creating the spirit in us to

newness of life, and making us partakers of the Divine Nature. Christ then appeareth to be the bond of our unity with God the Father, binding us to Himself, as Man, but being, as God, in God His own Father. For in no other way could the nature, subject to corruption, rise aloft to incorruption, unless the nature, superior to all corruption and change, had descended to it, lightening in a manner that which ever sunk downward, and raising it to its own excellences, and by communion and commingling with Itself all but uplifting it from the conditions conformable to created nature, and reforming according to Itself, that which is not so of Itself. We are, &c. [as in the text.] For Christ willeth that we be received into the oneness with God the Father."

(39) S. Cyr., Jer., l. c.

(40) S. Chrys., in S. Joh., Hom., 46, § 4. "I willed to become your Brother; I became partner of Flesh and Blood for your sake; again, that same Flesh and Blood, whereby I became akin to you, I give forth to you." S. Ignat., Ep. ad Smyrn., § 7. "They [the Docetæ] abstain from the Eucharist and prayer, because they confess not that the Eucharist is that Flesh of our Saviour Jesus Christ which suffered for our sins, which by His loving-kindness the Father raised."

—Comp. Bp. Taylor, (App.)

(41) See S. Chrys. below, p. 21. Liturgies, p. 24. Bp. Taylor, (App.)

(42) S. Aug. Conf., 1, 10, fin., "pretii nostri Sacramentum," ib., l. 9, § 36.

(43) S. Aug., c. Cresc., Don. i., 25.

(44) S. Aug., Sermon 216, § 3, "whom He accounteth so dear, that for you He poureth out daily," &c.

(45) S. Aug. in Ps. 100, 9.

(46) S. Aug., Sermon 77, 4 add., Sermon 80, 5, fin., S. 87, 14, S. 89, 1, S. 352, 2, in Ps. 45, § 4, and in Ps. 65, § 5, add., S. Chrys. de Prod. Jud. Hom., 2, § 3. "This is my Blood, which is shed for you for the remission of sins. And Judas was present when the Lord said this. This is the Blood which thou didst sell for 'thirty pieces of silver. Oh how great the loving-kindness of Christ! oh, what the ingratitude of Judas! The Lord nourished, the servant sold. For he sold Him, receiving the thirty pieces of silver; Christ shed His own Blood as a ransom for us, and gave It to him, who sold Him, had he willed. For Judas also was present before the betrayal, and partook of the Holy Table, and received the mystical Feast."

(47) S. Chrys. ad Pop. Ant. ii., fin.

(48) In Ps. 118, lit. 18, § 28.

(49) St. Chrys. in St. Matt. Hom. 25, § 3. "If of His Birth it is said 'all this,' what shall we say of His being crucified, and shedding His Blood for us, and giving Himself to us for a spiritual feast and banquet?"—S. Cyr., in S. Joh., vi., 51, lib. iv., c. 2, p. 354. "Christ then gave His own Body for the life of all, but again through It He maketh life to dwell in us (*ἐννοεῖται*;) and how, I will say as I am able. For when the life-giving Word of God dwelt in the flesh, He transformed it into His own proper good, i. e. life, and by the unspeakable character of this union, coming wholly together with it, made It life-giving, as Himself is by Nature. Where the Body of Christ giveth life to all who partake of It, for It expels death when it entereth those subject to death, and removeth corruption, producing by Itself perfectly, (*τελειῶς ὡδινον ἐν ἑαυτῷ*) that Word which abolisheth corrup-

tion."—St. Cyr. Ep. ad Cæcil. init. "His Blood whereby we were redeemed and brought to life cannot seem to be in the Cup, when wine is wanting to the Cup, whereby the blood of Christ is set forth."—S. Clem. al. Pæd., ii., 2, v., fin. "He blessed wine when He said, Take, drink, this is My Blood, the blood of the vine; for the Word, Which is poured forth for many for the remission of sins, he calls, in image, the holy fountain of joy."

(50) S. Chrys. de Prodit. Jud., Hom., i., 6. "As that voice, 'increase and be multiplied,' was uttered once, but throughout all time doth in act enable our race to produce children, so also that voice [This is My Body], once spoken, doth, on every Table in the Churches, from that time until this day, and until His Coming, make the Sacrifice perfect."

(51) Johnson's Unbloody Sacrifice, c. 2, s. 1, p. 85, sqq. Of Roman Catholic Divines, it is maintained by Jansenius ad Concordiam Evang., c. 13, and others quoted by Vazquez (qu. 78, art. 3, Disp. 99, c. 1.), rejected by Vazquez (ib.)

(52) Hom. 24 in 1 Cor., § 4. The comment is immediately on c. 10, 16, "the Bread which we break," *τὸν ἄρτον ὃν κλάμεν*, where he chiefly dwells on the doctrines of the Holy Eucharist. It, of course, more strongly applies to the words themselves, *τὸ ὑπὲρ ἡμῶν κλάμενον*.

(53) S. John, xvii., 19. "What meaneth, 'I sanctify Myself?' I offer Thee a sacrifice; but all the sacrifices are called 'holy;' and, properly, 'holy' are what are dedicated to God." S. Chrys., ad loc. Hom., 82, § 1. "That, according to the usage of the law, is said to be sanctified which is by any one brought unto God, as a gift or offering, such as every first-born which openeth the womb among the children of Israel. For He saith unto Moses, 'sanctify unto Me,' &c.; i. e., dedicate, set apart, write down as holy. Taking, then, according to usage, 'sanctify' as meaning 'to dedicate and set apart,' we say that the Son 'sanctified Himself for us. For He offered Himself, as a Sacrifice and holy Offering to God the Father, reconciling the word unto Him,' &c.—S. Cyr., ad loc., 1, xi., c. 10, p. 989.

(54) "He Who disposeth all things according to His supreme Will, awaiteth not the compulsion from the Betrayal, nor the violent assault of the Jews, and the lawless judgment of Pilate, so that their malice should be the beginning and cause of the common salvation of man; but by this dispensation He anticipateth their assault according to the mode of His Priestly Act, ineffable and invisible to man, and offered Himself as an Offering and Sacrifice for us, Priest at once and the Lamb of God, Who taketh away the sins of the world."—S. Greg. Nyss. Orat., i., in Christi. Res. t. iii., p. 389, add. S. Cyr., Ep. 63, ad Cæcil. Theodoret in Ps. 109, S. Aug. de Doctr. Christ. iv., 21.

(55) Gen. xlix., 11, is explained of the Passion of Christ by Jutsin M. Apol., 1, p. 74, ed. Par., Dial. c. Tryph., p. 273, Tert., adv. Marc., v. 40, S. Ambr. de Jos., § 13, de bened. Pat., § 24, S. James of Edess. ap. S. Ephr. ad loc. (as v. 12, is by S. Jerome in Is., 1, 15, c. 55), of His Blood, Clem. Al. Pædag. 1, i., p. 126, Orig. Hom. 17 in Jud., and by Orig. also of the Holy Eucharist, as also by S. Cyr., Ep. 63, S. Aug. de Civ. D., xvi., 41.

(56) That you may eat the body of the Lord Jesus, wherein is remission of sins, the imploring of Divine reconciliation and everlasting pro-

tection."—S. Ambr. in Ps. 118. Litt. 8. § 48. "He receiveth who examineth himself, but who-so receiveth shall not die the sinner's death, for this Bread is the remission of sins."—Id. de Bened. Patr., c. 9.

(57.) "This word ['sufficient Sacrifice'] refers to the sacrifice mentioned before, for we still continue and commemorate that Sacrifice, which Christ once made upon the Cross." (Notes from the Collections of Bp. Overall, ap. Nicholl's Comm. additional notes; see more at length Tract No. 63.) "What then? Do not we [Christians] daily offer? We do offer, but making a Memorial of His Death. And this is one and not many. How one and not many? Because it was once offered, as was that which was brought into the Holy of Holies. This is a type of that, and this itself of that, For we always offer the Same (*τὸν αὐτὸν*); not now one animal, to-morrow another, but always the same thing. So then the sacrifice is one. Else since it is offered in many places, there were many Christs. But no. There is but one Christ everywhere, here fully and there fully, One Body. As then He, being offered in many places, is One Body, and not many bodies, so also there is One Sacrifice. Our High Priest is He, Who offered the Sacrifice which cleanseth us. That same Sacrifice which was then also offered, we offer now too, That, the inexhaustible. For this is for a Memorial of That Which took place then. For, He saith, 'This do, as a Memorial of Me.' We do not make a different, but always the same Sacrifice; or rather, we make a memorial of that Sacrifice."—(S. Chrys. Hom. 17 on Heb. 9, 28. "Christ was once offered.")

(58) Ad loc.

(59) "His Blood is there received, His Flesh distributed to the salvation of the people; His Blood poured out, not now on the hands of the unbelievers, but into the mouths of the faithful." S. Greg., Dial. iv., 58. "While the blood in the cup is being poured out (*κενοῦμένον*) out of the undefiled Side."—S. Chrys., de Pœnit. init. S. Chrys. also speaks of tongue redeemed (*φθινισμένην*) "with the most awful Blood," in S. Matth., Hom. 82, § 5, and de Sac. iii., 4, p. 382. "Thou seest all reddened with that precious Blood;" and in Ps. 149, § 4, t. 5, p. 433. "Think that this [the tongue] is the member, whereby we hold converse with God—this the member whereby we receive the awful Sacrifice." Comp. Hooker, (App.) "We are dyed red within and without;" and in Bp. Wilson, (App.) "Seeing the Blood of the true Paschal Lamb upon your lips."

(60) The coal from the altar is regarded as a type of the Holy Eucharist by S. Chrys., in illud Vide Dom. Hom., 5, § 3, t. vi., p. 141. "And what marvel, if thou standest with the Seraphim, since those things which the Seraphim dared not touch, these God hath given thee with all confidence. For he saith, 'there was sent to me one of the Seraphim, having a coal of fire, which he took with the tongs from the altar.' That altar is an image and likeness of the Altar; that fire, of this spiritual fire; but the Seraphim dared not touch it with the hand, but with the tongs, but thou receivest it in the hand. Were you indeed to regard the dignity of what is there placed (*τὸν προκειμένον*) it is far too great for the touch of the Seraphim—and ad loc., § 4, ib., p. 69, as the exposition of others, when himself giving the primary meaning, "Some say that these things are the symbols of the Mysteries which were to

come, the Altar, the fire lying thereon, the ministering power, its being placed in the mouth, the cleansing of sins." See also de Pœn. Hom., 9, t. ii., p. 350, ed. Ben. "Wherefore, also, when ye approach, think not that ye receive the Divine Body, as from man, but as from the Seraphim themselves with the tongs of fire which Isaias saw, think that ye receive the Divine Body; and as touching with the lips the Divine and Unpolluted Side, so let us receive the Saving Blood." Theodoret, ad loc., "placing the coal on the mouth of the prophet, he declared to him the remission of sin. But by these things is moreover described and pre-typified the participation of our blessings, the remission of sins through the Body and Blood of the Lord." Add. S. Ephr., Serm., 10, adv. Scrutat., Opp. Syr., t. iii., p. 23. S. James Doct., ap. S. Ephr. Opp., ad loc., t. ii., p. 30, et al., ib. See also lit. of S. Cyril (Renaudot. Liturg., tom. ii., 49). Coptic (ib., p. 54). Renaudot (p. 195), mentions a sacred vessel, in use among the Greeks and Copti, called hence the (*ἀγιαλῆς*) and suggests (ib., p. 323), that the title spiritual 'fire,' frequent in Greek hymns on the Holy Eucharist, refers to this type (see S. Chrys., ab. p. 16, and in this note).

(61) Lit. of S. Chrys., p. 83, ed. Goav., comp. Lit. of S. James Ass. Cod. Lit., v. 56. "The Lord bless us and make us worthy to take with the pure 'tongs' of our hands the fiery coal, and to place it on the mouths of the faithful, for the cleansing and purifying of their souls and bodies, now and ever."

(62) Greek (Ass. Cod. Lit., v. 36). Syriac (ib., p. 236). Arminian (Renaud., Lit. Orr., ii., 127).

(63) Greek (Ass., vii., 32, 33, 58, 104). Coptic (141, 2, ib.).

(64) Lit. of S. James (Ass., v. 40). S. Mark (ib., vii., 60, Add. p. 35), Lit. of S. Gregory (ib., 106, 7). Syriac (ib., 190, 1). Coptic (ib., 143, 4). Const. App., viii., 12, Lit. of S. Chrys., Goar., p. 77).

(65) Lit. of S. James (Ass., v., 52), Post Comm. Const., Ap., viii., 14, S. Basil from S. James, Ass., vii., 46, "for the remission of sins, for the communication of the Holy Spirit." S. Mark, ib., vii., 73. It is retained in the Nestorian lit., Ren., ii., 634, "May Thy Living Body, O Lord, which we have eaten, and Thy pure Blood which we have drunk, not be to us, Lord, to hurt or weakness, but to the expiation of offences and blotting out of sins, Lord of all;" and p. 35 (benediction), "To Him, Who expiates our offences by His body, and doeth away our sins by His Blood, be praise in His Church;" and, Gallic-Goth. Liturg., Post Comm. (Mabillon de Lit., Gall., p. 300), "Thy Body crucified for us we have eaten, and Thy Holy Blood shed for us we have drunk; may Thy Holy Body be to us salvation, and Thy Holy Blood for remission of sins here and for eternal ages." Armenian, ap. Ren., ii., 12. "Let not this Mystery, which was instituted for our salvation, become to us to judgment, but to the abolition of our sins," &c. Miss. Mixt. Mozarab., p. 233, ed. Lesl. "Tasting, Lord, the fulness of [Thy] sweetness, we pray that this be to us for the remission of sins and the health of our minds;" and the priest for himself, "O Lord, my God, grant me so to receive the Body and Blood of Thy Son our Lord Jesus Christ, that by It I may obtain remission of all my sins, and be filled with Thy Holy Spirit." (Ib., p. 232.)

(66) Lit. of S. Chrys. Geor., p. 82, 83.

(67) Vouchsafe to us, O Lord God, that our bodies may be sanctified by thy Holy Body, and our souls cleansed by thy propitiating Blood, and that it may be to us forgiveness of our debts and pardon of our sins." Supplement to Lyriac Liturgies, Ass. v., 208, 9; comp. S. Empr. Parœn., xi., and Pœnit. Opp., t. iii., p. 429. "Leave me not in hell, most merciful Lord, Who hast given me Thy Body to eat, and made me to drink Thy Blood, which is life; through Thy Body may I be cleansed, and through Thy Blood my trespasses be forgiven.

(68) "—by Whose Flesh, sanctified by Thyself, while fed, we are strengthened, and by His Blood, while given us to drink, we are washed." Gallic. Sacram. ap. Muratori Lit. Rom. Vet., p. 816, add. Missale Gall-Goth. ap. Mabillon, p. 229.

(69) Post-Comm. for the Circumcision, &c. In the Sarum, York, and Hereford Missals, daily.

(70) 3d Post-Comm. for Ash-Wedn., &c. Also in the Præp. ad. Miss. in the Breviary, "Grant that this holy foretaste of Thy Body and Blood, which I, unworthy, look to receive, may be the perfect cleansing of sins," &c. [A friend adds the following:—"Deliver me by this Thy All-holy Body and Blood from all mine iniquities and all evils;" prayer before communicating. (so also Sar., "all my evils;" York. Heref.) "Grant that I may so worthily receive this All-holy Body and Blood of Thy Son our Lord Jesus Christ, that I may be meet to receive thereby remission of all my sins and be filled with thy Holy Spirit." Sar. Prayer before kiss of peace. "Grant us so to receive this Body and Blood of Thy Son our Lord Jesus Christ, that we may be meet to receive thereby remission of our sins," &c. York and Heref., ib. "By the operation, O Lord, of this mystery may both our offences (vitia) be purged away, and our good desires brought to good effect." Post-Comm., Vigil of Epiph., Lent Ember-Fr., Palm-Sunday. "Cleansed from guilt [expiati] by Thy Holy Mysteries, O Lord, may we obtain, we beseech Thee, both pardon and grace." 1st Post-Comm. 3d S. in Lent. "May the receiving, O Lord, of this Sacrament cleanse us from our guilt" [crimine]. Fr. after 3d, and Tu. after 4th S. in Lent, "a vitiis expiates," 3d S. in Adv.]

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(71) "An antidote, whereby we may be set free from sins of daily incursion, and preserved from mortal sins." Sess., xiii., c. 3.

(72) "That forgiveness of sins was the chief object of the Holy Eucharist." Ib., can. 3.

(73) Ep. 93, ad Cæsar., t. iii., p. 186, ed. Ben.

(74) "Hearing Mass" in the Roman Communion. This is, of course, said of the general declension of Communions; at early Mass, even on week days, the writer is informed that there are Communicants, but not to what extent.

(75) Edw. VI., 1st book. See Pref. to Tract 81., p. 18.

(76) S. Cyr. Al. in S. Joh., 1, iv., p. 351, S. Jer. Ep. ad. Hedib., q. 2, S. Aug. in Ps. 33, En., i., § 6.

"That Eternal Lord, wherewith the Angels are fed, Which is equal with the Father, men ate, because 'being in the form of God,' &c. The Angels are satisfied with Him; but He 'so emptied himself that men might eat Angels' food." On. Ps. 78, 26.

(77) Rubric after Communion Service.

(78) One College, it should be said, has, for some time past, restored weekly Communion.

(79) Archdeacon Grenville to Sir Wm. Dugdale, in Life and Correspondence of Sir William Dugdale, p. 429, 30, Letter 174, A.D. 1683. "I am informed that his Grace my Lord of Canterbury hath determined on the setting up a weekly celebration of the Holy Communion, according to the Rubric, in the Church of Canterbury, and that my Lord Archbishop of York is likewise doing the same in his Cathedral, and that they are both writing letters to the Bishops within their Provinces, to follow their example; a noble work of piety, which will prove to their everlasting honour, and very much facilitate conformity in the land, which hath been very much wounded by the bad example of Cathedrals, which have (for the most part) authorized the breach of law, in omitting the weekly celebration of the Eucharist, which hath not been constantly celebrated on Sundays in any Cathedral but Christ Church, Ely, and Worcester." Archdeacon Grenville was a son-in-law of Bishop Cosins, and "maintained" for many years the "order which Bishop Cosins had restored," until 1688, when he resigned his preferment, and went into exile," ib., p. 431 and 229, note.]

EXTRACTS

FROM SOME WRITERS IN OUR LATER ENGLISH CHURCH ON THE DOCTRINE
OF THE HOLY EUCHARIST.

HOMILY ON THE SACRAMENT.

"Thus much we must be sure to hold, that in the Supper of the Lord there is no vain ceremony, no bare sign, no untrue figure of a thing absent: *But, as the Scripture saith, the table of the Lord, the Bread and Cup of the Lord, the memory of Christ, the annunciation of his death, yea, the communion of the Body and Blood of the Lord, in a marvellous incorporation, which by the operation of the Holy Ghost (the very bond of our conjunction with Christ) is through faith wrought in the souls of the faithful, whereby not only their souls live to eternal life, but they surely trust to win their bodies a resurrection to immortality.* The true understanding of the fruition and union, which is betwixt the Body and the Head, betwixt the true believers and Christ, the ancient Catholic Fathers both perceiving themselves, and commending to their people, were not afraid to call this Supper, some of them, the salve of immortality and sovereign preservative against death; other, a deific communion; other, the sweet dainties of our Saviour, the pledge of eternal health, the defence of our faith, the hope of the resurrection; other, the food of immortality, the healthful grace, and the conservatory to everlasting life."

"It is well known that the meat we seek for in this Supper, is spiritual food, the nourishment of our soul, a heavenly refection, and not earthly; an invisible meat, and not bodily; a ghostly substance, and not carnal; so that to think that without faith we may enjoy the eating and drinking thereof, or that that is the fruition of it, is but to dream a gross carnal feeding, basely objecting and binding ourselves to the elements and creatures. Whereas, by the advice of the Council of Nicene, we ought to lift up our minds by faith, and, leaving these inferior and earthly things, there seek it, where the Sun of righteousness ever shineth. Take then this lesson, O thou that art desirous of this Table, of Emissenus, a goodly father, that when thou goest up to the reverend Communion, to be satisfied with spiritual meats, thou look up with faith upon the holy Body and Blood of thy God, thou marvel with reverence, thou touch it with the mind, thou receive it with the hand of thy heart, and thou take it fully with thy inward man."

BISHOP RIDLEY.

"Both you and I agree herein, that in the Sacrament is the very, true, and natural Body and Blood of Christ; even that Which was born of the Virgin Mary; Which ascended into heaven; Which sits on the right hand of God the Father; Which shall come from thence to judge the quick and the dead; only we differ *in modo*, in the way and manner of being. We confess all one thing to be the Sacrament, and dissent in the manner of being there. I, being by God's word fully thereunto persuaded, confess Christ's natural

Body to be in the Sacrament indeed by spirit and grace, because that whosoever receiveth worthily that Bread and Wine, receiveth effectually Christ's Body and drinketh His Blood (that is, he is made effectually partaker of His passion); and you make a grosser kind of being enclosing a natural, a lively, and a moving body, under the shape or form of Bread and Wine. Now this difference considered, to the question thus I answer, that in the Sacrament of the Altar is the natural Body and Blood of Christ *vere et realiter*, indeed and really, for spiritually by grace and efficacy; for so every worthy receiver receiveth the very true Body of Christ. But if you mean really and indeed, so that thereby you would include a lively and a movable body under the forms of bread and wine, then, in that sense, is not Christ's Body in the Sacrament really and indeed!

"Always my protestation reserved, I answer thus: that in the Sacrament is a certain change in that that Bread which was before common bread, is now made a lively presentation of Christ's Body, and not only a figure, but effectuously representeth His Body; that even as the mortal body was nourished by that visible bread, so is the internal soul fed with the heavenly food of Christ's Body, which the eyes of faith see, as the bodily eyes see only bread. Such a Sacramental mutation I grant to be in the Bread and Wine, which truly is no small change, but such a change as no mortal man can make, but only that omnipotency of Christ's word.—*Works*, edit. 1813, p. 274.

"Think not because I disallow that presence which the first proposition maintaineth (as a presence which I take to be forged, phantastical, and beside the authority of God's word, perniciously brought into the Church by the Romanists), that I therefore go about to take away the true presence of Christ's Body in His Supper rightly and duly ministered, which is grounded on the word of God, and made more plain by the commentaries of the faithful Fathers. They that think so of me, the Lord knoweth how far they are deceived. And to make the same evident unto you, I will in a few words declare what True Presence of Christ's Body in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper I hold and affirm, with the word of God, and the ancient Fathers.

"I say and confess with the Evangelist Luke, and with the Apostle Paul that the Bread on the which thanks are given is the Body of Christ in the remembrance of Him and His death, to be set forth perpetually of the faithful until his coming.

"I say and confess the Bread which we break to be the communion and partaking of Christ's Body with the ancient and the faithful Fathers.

"I say and believe, that there is not only a signification of Christ's Body set forth by the Sacrament, but also that therewith is given to the godly and faithful the grace of Christ's Body, that

is, the food of life and immortality, and this I hold with Cyprian.

"I say also with St. Augustine, that we eat life and we drink life; with Emissene, that we feel the Lord to be present in grace; with Athanasius, that we receive celestial food which cometh from above; the property of natural communion, with Hilary;* the nature of flesh and benediction which giveth life, in Bread and Wine, with Cyril; and with the same Cyrill, the virtue of the very Flesh of Christ, life and grace of His Body, the property of the Only Begotten, that is to say, life as He Himself in plain words expounded it.

"I confess also with Basil, that we receive the mystical advent and coming of Christ, grace, and the virtue of his very nature; the Sacrament of His very Flesh, with Ambrose; the Body by grace with Epiphanius; spiritual Flesh, but not that which was crucified, with Jerome; grace growing into a sacrifice, and the grace of the Spirit, with Chrysostom; grace and invisible verity, grace and society of the members of Christ's Body, with Augustine.

"Finally with Bertram, (who was the last of all these), I confess that Christ's Body is in the Sacrament in this respect, namely, as he writeth, because there is in it the spirit of Christ, that is, the power of the Word of God, which not only feedeth the soul, but also cleanseth it. Out of these I suppose it may clearly appear unto all men, how far we are from that opinion, whereof some go about falsely to slander us to the world, saying, we teach that the godly and faithful should receive nothing else at the Lord's table, but a figure of the Body of Christ." P. 201, 202.

BISHOP BILSON (QUOTED BY BISHOP MONTAGU.)

"The disagreement is only in de modo præsentiæ, the thing is yielded to on either side, and there is in the Holy Eucharist a real Presence. 'God forbid,' saith Bishop Bilson, 'we should deny that the Flesh and Blood of Christ are truly present and truly received of the faithful at the Lord's table. It is the doctrine that we teach others, and comfort ourselves withal.'" (P. 1779 of the subject.) *Appeal*, 30 init., p. 289. See also *Bp. While below*, p. 57.

HOOKER.

"Being assembled for no other cause which they could imagine but to have eaten the Pass-over only that Moses appointeth, when they saw their Lord and Master with hands and eyes lifted up to heaven first bless and consecrate for the endless good of all generations till the world's end the chosen elements of Bread and Wine, which elements made forever the instruments of life by virtue of His Divine benediction, they being the first that were commanded to receive from Him, the first which were warranted by His promise that not only unto them at the present time, but to whomsoever they and their successors after them did duly administer the same, those mysteries should serve as conduits of life and conveyances of His Body and Blood unto them, was it possible they should hear that voice, 'Take, eat, this is My Body; drink ye all of this, this is my blood;' possible that doing what was required, and believing what was promised, the same should have present effect in them, and not fill them with a kind of fearful admiration at the heaven which they saw in themselves? They had at that time a

sea of comfort and joy to wade in, and we, by that which they did, are taught that this heavenly food is given for the satisfying of our empty souls, and not for the exercising of our curious and subtle wits."

"If we doubt what those admirable words may import, let him be our teacher for the meaning of Christ to whom Christ was Himself a school-master, let our Lord's Apostle be his interpreter, content we ourselves with His explication, *My Body the Communion of My Body, My Blood the Communion of My Blood*. Is there anything more expedite, clear, and easy, than that as Christ is termed our Life, because through him we obtain life, so the parts of this Sacrament are His Body and Blood, for that they are so to us who receiving them receive that by them which they are termed? The Bread and Cup are His Body and Blood, because they are causes instrumental, upon the receipt whereof the participation of His Body and Blood ensueeth. For that which produceth any certain effect is not vainly nor improperly said to be that effect whereunto it tendeth. Every cause is in the effect which groweth from it. Our souls and bodies quickened to eternal life are effects, the cause whereof is the Person of Christ, His Body and Blood are the true well-spring out of which this life floweth. So that His Body and Blood are in that very subject whereunto they minister life not only by effect or operation, even as the influence of the heavens is in plants, beasts, men, and in everything which they quicken, but also by a far more divine and mystical bond of union, which maketh us one with Him even as he and the Father are one." —Book v., chap. lxvii., § 4, 5.

"It is on all sides plainly confessed, first, that this Sacrament is a true and a real participation of Christ, who thereby imparteth Himself, even His whole entire Person, as a mystical Head into every soul that receiveth Him, and that every such receiver doth thereby incorporate or unite himself unto Christ as a mystical member of Him, yea, of them also whom He acknowledgeth to be His own; secondly, that to whom the Person of Christ is thus communicated, to them He giveth by the same Sacrament His Holy Spirit to sanctify them as it sanctifieth Him which is their Head; thirdly, that what merit, force, or virtue soever there is in His sacrificed Body and Blood, we freely, fully, and wholly have it by this Sacrament; fourthly, that the effect thereof in us is a real transmutation of our souls and bodies from sin to righteousness, from death and corruption to immortality and life; fifthly, that because the Sacrament being of itself but a corruptible and earthly creature, must needs be thought an unlikely instrument to work so admirable effects in man, we are therefore to rest ourselves altogether upon the strength of His glorious power, Who is able and will bring to pass, that the Bread and Cup which he giveth us shall be truly the thing He promiseth.

"It seemeth, therefore, much amiss that, against them whom they term Sacramentaries, so many invective discourses are made all running upon two points, that the Eucharist is not a bare sign or figure only, and that the efficacy of his Body and Blood is not all we receive in this Sacrament. For no man, having read their books and writings which are thus traduced, can be ignorant that both these assertions they plainly confess to be most true. They do not so interpret the words of Christ, as if the name of his Body did import but the figure of his

* The passage quoted at more length in the Sermon, p. 13.

† See Sermon, p. 7, n. i., &c.

Body, and to be were only to signify his Blood. They grant that these holy mysteries, received in due manner, do instrumentally both make us partakers of the grace of that Body and Blood which were given for the life of the world, and besides, also, impart unto us even in true and real, though mystical manner, the very person of our Lord himself, whole, perfect, and entire, as hath been showed."—Book v., c. lxvii., p. 7, 8.

"He which hath said of the one Sacrament, 'Wash, and be clean,' hath said concerning the other likewise, 'Eat and live.' If, therefore, without any such particular and solemn warrant as this is, that poor, distressed woman coming unto Christ for health could so constantly resolve herself, 'May I but touch the skirt of His garment I shall be whole,' what moveth us to argue of the manner how life should come by bread, our duty being here but to take what is offered, and most assuredly to rest persuaded of this, that can we but eat we are safe? When I behold with mine eyes some small and scarce discernible grain or seed whereof nature maketh promise that a tree shall come, and when afterward, of that tree, any skilful artificer undertaketh to frame some exquisite and curious work, I look for the event, I move no question about performance, either of the one or of the other. Shall I simply credit nature in things natural, shall I in things artificial rely myself on art, never offering to make doubt, and in that which is above both art and nature refuse to believe the Author of both, except He acquaint me with His skill before me? Where God himself doth speak those things which, either for height and sublimity of matter, or else for secrecy of performance we are not able to reach unto, as we may be ignorant without danger, so it can be no disgrace to confess we are ignorant. Such as love piety will as much as in them lieth know all things that God commandeth, but especially the duties of service which they owe to God. As for His dark and hidden works, they prefer as becometh them in such cases, simplicity of faith before that knowledge, which curiously sifting what it should adore, and disputing too boldly of that which the wit of man cannot search, chilleth for the most part all warmth of zeal, and bringeth soundness of belief many times into great hazard. Let it therefore be sufficient for me, presenting myself at the Lord's Table, to know what there I receive from Him, without searching or inquiring of the manner how Christ performeth His promise; let disputes and questions, enemies to piety, abatements of true devotion, and hitherto in this cause but over patiently heard, let them take their rest: let curious and sharpwitted men beat their heads about what questions themselves will, the very letter of the word of Christ giveth plain security that these mysteries do as nails fasten us to His very Cross, that by them we draw out, as touching efficacy, force, and virtue, even the blood of His gored side, in the wounds of our Redeemer, we there dip our tongues, we are dyed red both within and without, our hunger is satisfied and our thirst for ever quenched; they are things wonderful which he feeleth, great which he seeth, and unheard of which he uttereth, whose soul is possessed of the Paschal Lamb and made joyful in the strength of this new Wine,

this Bread hath in it more than the substance which our eyes behold, this Cup hallowed with solemn benediction availeth to the endless life and welfare both of soul and body, in that it serveth as well for a medicine to heal our infirmities and purge our sins as for a sacrifice of thanksgiving, with touching it sanctifieth, it enlighteneth with belief, it truly conformeth us unto the image of Jesus Christ; what these elements are in themselves it skilleth not, it is enough that to me which take them they are the Body and Blood of Christ, His promise in witness hereof sufficeth, His word He knoweth which way to accomplish; why should any cogitation possess the mind of a faithful communicant but this, Oh, my God, Thou art true, oh, my soul, thou art happy!"—Book v., chap. lxvii., § 12.

"The power of the ministry of God translateth out of darkness into glory; it raiseth man from the earth, and bringeth God Himself down from heaven: by blessing visible elements it maketh them invisible grace; it giveth daily the Holy Ghost; it hath to dispose of that Flesh which was given for the life of the world, and that Blood which was poured out to redeem souls; when it poureth malediction upon the heads of the wicked, they perish; when it revoketh the same, they revive. Oh wretched blindness, if we admire not so great power; more wretched if we consider it aright, and, notwithstanding, imagine that any but God can bestow it! To whom Christ hath imparted power, both over that mystical body which is the society of souls, and over that natural which is Himself, for the knitting of both in one (a work which antiquity doth call the making of Christ's Body), the same power is in such not amiss both termed a kind of mark or character, and acknowledged to be indelible."—Book v., chap. lxxvi., § 8).

BISHOP OVERALL.

"So to eat the *Flesh of Thy dear Son Jesus Christ, and to drink his Blood*]. By this it may be known what our Church believeth, and teacheth of the Presence of Christ's Body and Blood in the Sacrament. And though our new masters would make the world believe she had another mind, yet we are not to follow their private fancies, when we have so plain and so public a doctrine as this."

"That we receiving these *Thy creatures Bread and Wine, &c., may be partakers of His blessed Body and Blood*]. Together with the hallowed elements of the Bread and Wine, we may receive the Body and Blood of Christ, which are truly exhibited in this Sacrament, the one as well as the other.

"These words, as I once conferred with a Papist, were mightily excepted against, because, forsooth, they must acknowledge no Bread and Wine, but a desition of the nature and being of both. My answer was, that here we term them so before consecration; after that we call them so no more, but abstain from that name, because our thoughts might be wholly taken up with the spiritual food of Christ's Body and Blood. So in the Thanksgiving following we say *That thou vouchsafed to feed us with these Holy Mysteries, and the Spiritual food of the Body and Blood of thy Son, &c.* In the mean while, we deny not the Bread and Wine remain there still as God's

creatures. And I wonder the Papists should so contend for this same *desilio panis et vini*, whereas in their own service or mass they abstain not from these words, *THY CREATURES*, after consecration, as we do. See the book, *PER QUEM OMNIA DOMINE BONE CREAS!* A certain argument that the Church of Rome never meant to teach that doctrine, which private men, the late doctors and schoolmen, have brought up and propagated.

"*These holy Mysteries were the spiritual food of the most precious Body and Blood, &c.*] Before consecration, we called them God's creatures of Bread and Wine, now we do so no more after consecration; wherein we have the advantage of the Church of Rome, who call them still creatures in their very mass after consecration; and yet they will be upbraiding us for denying the Real Presence, when as we believe better than they; for after consecration we think no more of Bread and Wine, but have our thoughts taken up wholly with the Body of Christ; and therefore we keep ourselves to these words only, abstaining from the other (though the Bread remain there still, to the eye), which they do not. And herein we follow the Fathers, who after consecration would not suffer it to be called Bread and Wine any longer, but the Body and Blood of Christ.

"*Very Members Incorporate.*] So Cyril, in Catech. Myst., 4. *Sumpto Corpore et Sanguine Christi ait nos fieri σωματικους, i. e., ejusdem Corporis tum Christo, et inter nos σωματικους, i. e., ejusdem Sanguinis.*

"*And be also heirs through hope.*"] So the ancient Fathers were wont to prove the article of our resurrection by the nature of this very Sacrament. They use this reason to exhort the people unto the frequent receiving of the Holy Communion; because they say it is *Οαζμακον ἀθανασίας, Medicamentum Immortalitatis et Antidotum, τὸ μὴ θανεῖν, An Antidote not to die*; which if the men of this age would but set their hearts on, as they did, we should not have them set so slightly by the Sacrament as they do."

"*Bread and Wine.*] It is confessed by all Divines, that upon the words of the Consecration, the Body and Blood of Christ is really and substantially present, and so exhibited and given to all who receive it, and all this not after a physical and sensual, but after a heavenly and incomprehensible manner. But their yet remains this controversy among some of them, whether the Body of Christ be present only in the use of the Sacrament, and in the act of eating, and not otherwise. They that hold the affirmative, as the Lutherans (in Confess. Sax.), and all Calvinists, do seem to me to depart from all antiquity, which place the presence of Christ in the virtue and benediction used by the Priest, and not in the use of eating the Sacrament. And this did most Protestants grant and profess at first, though now the Calvinists make Popish magic of it in their licentious blasphemy."—*Additional Notes to the Book of Common Prayer.*

"*What is the inward part or thing signified?*] I cannot see where any real difference is betwixt us about this Real Presence, if we could give over the study of contradiction, and understand one another aright."—*Catechism.*

"In the Sacrament of the Eucharist, or the

Lord's Supper, the Body and Blood of Christ, and therefore the whole of Christ is verily and indeed present, and is verily partaken by us, and verily combined with the Sacramental signs, as being not only significative, but exhibitory; so that in the Bread duly given and received, the Body of Christ is given and received; in the Wine given and received, the Blood of Christ is given and received; and thus there is a communion of the whole of Christ in the Communion of the Sacrament."

Probably, had Overall lived before the tenth century, he would have thought he had sufficiently stated his belief in the above expressions; but placed as he was in other circumstances, it was expedient for him, not only to maintain ancient truth, but to protest against erroneous innovation: he therefore added these words:

"Yet not in any bodily, gross, earthly manner, as by transubstantiation, or consubstantiation, or any like devices of human reason, but in a mystical, heavenly, and spiritual manner, as is rightly laid down in our Articles."—(As quoted and translated in *Knox's Remains*, vol. ii., p. 163.

BISHOP MORTON.

"The question is not absolutely concerning a Real Presence, which Protestants (as their own Jesuits witness) do also profess. . . Which acknowledgment of our adversaries may serve to stay the contrary clamours and calumnious accusations, wherein they used to range Protestants with those heretics who denied that the true Body of Christ was in the Eucharist, and maintained only a figure and image of Christ's Body, seeing that our difference is not about the truth or reality of presence, but about the true manner of the being and receiving thereof."—*Catholic Appeal*, p. 93, ed. 1610.

BISHOP ANDREWS.

"The Cardinal is not, unless, 'willingly, ignorant,' that Christ hath said, 'This is My Body,' not 'This is not My Body, in this mode.' Now about the object we are both agreed; all the controversy is about the mode. The 'This is,' we firmly believe; that 'it is in this mode' (the Bread, namely, being transubstantiated into the Body), or of the mode whereby it is wrought that 'it is,' whether, *in* or *with*, or *under*, or *transubstantiated*, there is not a word in the Gospel. And because not a word is there, we rightly detach it from being a matter of faith; we may place it among the decrees of the schools, not among the articles of faith. What Durandus is reported to have said of old (Neand. Synop. Chron., p. 203,) we approve of. 'We hear the word, feel the effect, know not the manner, believe the presence.' The presence, I say, we believe, and that no less true than yourselves. Of the mode of the Presence, we define nothing rashly, nor, I add, do we curiously inquire; no more than how the Blood of Christ cleanseth us in our Baptism; no more than how in the Incarnation of Christ the human nature is united into the same Person with the Divine. We rank it among Mysteries, (and indeed the Eucharist itself is a mystery,) 'that which remaineth ought to be burned with fire' (Ex., xii., 13), that is, as the Fathers elegantly express it, to be

adored by faith, not examined by reason."—*Answer to Bellarmine*, c. i., p. 11.

"To conclude; not only thus to frame meditations and resolutions, but even some practice too, out of this act of 'apprehension.' It is very agreeable to reason, saith the Apostle, that we endeavour and make a proffer, if we may by any means to 'apprehend' Him in His, by Whom we are thus in our nature 'apprehended,' or, as he termeth it, 'comprehended,' even Christ Jesus; and be united to Him this day, as He was to us this day, by a mutual and reciprocal 'apprehension.' We may so, and we are bound so; *vere dignum et justum est*. And we do so, so oft as we do with St. James lay hold of, 'apprehend,' or receive *insitum Verbum*, the 'Word which is daily grafted into us.' For 'the Word' He is, and in the Word He is received by us. But that is not the proper of this day, unless there be another joined unto it. This day *Verbum caro factum est*, and so must be 'apprehended' in both. But specially in His flesh as this day giveth it, as this day would have us. Now, 'the bread which we break, is not the partaking of the Body, of the Flesh, of Jesus Christ!' It is purely; and by it, and by nothing more, are we made partakers of this blessed union. A little before He said, 'Because the children were partakers of flesh and blood, He also would take part with them.' May not we say the same? Because he hath so done, taken ours of us, we also ensuing His steps will participate with him, and with His Flesh which He hath taken of us. It is most kindly to take part with Him in that which He took part in with us, and that, to no other end, but that he might make the receiving of it by us a means whereby He might 'dwell in us, and we in him;' He taking our flesh, and we receiving His Spirit; by His flesh which He took of us receiving His Spirit which He imparted to us; that, as He by ours became *consors humane nature*, so we by His might become *consortes Divinae humane*, 'partakers of the Divine nature.' Verily it is the most straight and perfect 'taking hold' that is. No union so knitteth as it. Not consanguinity; brethren fall out. Not marriage; man and wife are severed. But that which is nourished, and the nourishment wherewith—they never are, never can be severed, but remain one for ever. With this act then of mutual 'taking,' taking of His flesh as He hath taken ours, let us seal our duty to Him this day, for taking not 'Angels,' but 'the seed of Abraham.'"—*Serm. I. on Nativity, Works*, vol. i., p. 16.

"He is given us, as Himself saith, as 'the living Bread from Heaven,' which Bread is His 'flesh' born this day, and after 'given for the life of the world.' For look how we do give back that He gave us, even so doth He give back to us that which we gave Him, that which he had of us. This He gave for us in Sacrifice, and this He giveth us in the Sacrament, that the Sacrifice may by the Sacrament be truly applied to us. And let me commend this to you: He never bade, *accipite*, plainly 'take,' but in this only; and that, because the effect of this day's union is no way more lively represented, no way more effectually wrought, than by this use."—*Serm. II., on Nativity*, vol. i., p. 30.

"And I may safely say it with good warrant, from those words especially and chiefly, which,

as He Himself saith of them, are 'spirit and life,' even those words which, joined to the element, make the blessed Sacrament.

"There was good proof made of it this day. All the way did He preach to them, even till they came to Emmaus, and their hearts were hot within them, which was a good sign; but their eyes were not opened but 'at the breaking of bread,' and then they were. That is the best and surest sense, we know, and therefore most to be accounted of. There we taste, and there we see; 'taste and see how gracious the Lord is.' There we are made to 'drink of the Spirit,' there our hearts are strengthened and stablished with grace.' There is the Blood which shall 'purge our consciences from dead works,' whereby we may die to sin.' There the Bread of God, which shall endure our souls with much strength; yea, multiply strength in them to live unto God; yea, to live to Him continually; for he that 'eateth His flesh and drinketh His blood, dwelleth in Christ, and Christ in him;' not inneth, or sojourneth for a time, but dwelleth continually. And never can we more truly or properly say in *Christo Jesu Domino nostro*, as when we come new from that holy action, for then He is in us, and we in Him indeed."—*Serm. I., on the Resurrection*, p. 204-5.

"If such a new consecrating we need, what better time than the feast of first fruits, the sacrificing time under the law? and in the Gospel, the day of Christ's rising, our first fruits by Whom we are then consecrate? The day wherein He was Himself restored to the perfection of His spiritual life, the life of glory is the best for us to be restored into the first fruits of that spiritual life, the life of grace.

"And if we ask what shall be our means of this consecrating? The Apostle telleth us we are sanctified by the 'oblation of the Body of Jesus.' That is the best means to restore us to that life. He hath said it, and showed it Himself; 'He that eateth Me, shall live by Me.' The words spoken concerning that, are both 'spirit and life,' whether we seek for the spirit or seek for life. Such was the means of our death, by eating the forbidden fruit, the first fruits of death; and such is the means of our life, by eating the flesh of Christ, the first fruits of life.

"And herein we shall very fully fit, not the time only and the means, but also the manner. For as by partaking the flesh and blood, the substance of the 'first Adam,' we came to our death, so to life we cannot come, unless we do participate with the flesh and blood of the 'second Adam,' that is, Christ. We drew death from the first by partaking the substance; and so must we draw life from the second by the same. This is the way; become branches of the Vine, and partakers of his nature, and so of His life and verdure both."—*Serm. II., p. 219-20.*

"To end; because we be speaking of a hope to be laid up in our bosom, it falleth out very fitly, that even at this time *festum spei*, the Church offereth us a notable pledge, and earnest of this hope there to bestow; even the Holy Eucharist, the flesh wherein our Redeemer was seen and suffered, and paid the price of our redemption; and together with it 'the Holy Spirit, whereby we are sealed to the great day of our

redemption.' To the laying up of which earnest of our hope and interest in all these, we are invited at this time, even literally to lodge and lay it up in our bosom. We shall be the nearer our *scio*, if 'we taste and see by it, how gracious the Lord is;' the nearer our *spero*, if an earnest or pledge of it be laid up within us; the nearer our redemption, if we have within us the price of it; and the nearer our resurrection, they be His own words, 'He that eateth My flesh and drinketh, &c., hath eternal life, and I will raise him up at the last day.' So dwell we in Him, and He in us; we in Him by our flesh in Him, and He in us by His flesh in us. Thereby drawing life from Him the second, as we do death from the first Adam."—*Serm. V.*, p. 268.

"The Church, by her office, or *agendum*, doth her part to help us herein all she may. The things we are willed to seek she sets before us, the blessed Mysteries. For these are from above; the 'Bread that came down from Heaven,' the Blood that hath been carried 'into the holy place.' And I add, *ubi Christus*; for *ubi Corpus, ubi Sanguis Christi, ubi Christus*, I am sure. And truly here, if there be *ubi Christus*, there it is. On earth we are never so near Him, nor He us, as then and there. There in *efficaciâ*, and when all is done, efficacy, that is, it must do us good, must raise us near, and raise us at the last day to the right hand; and the local *ubi* without it of no value."—*Serm. VIII.*, vol. ii., p. 321.

"But to be temples is not all, we are farther to be *templum hoc*, 'this temple,' and this was 'the Temple of his Body.' And that we are, if at any time, then certainly when as if we were temples in very deed, we prepare to receive, not the Ark of His presence, but Himself, that He may come into us and be in us, which is at what time we present ourselves to receive His blessed Body and Blood; that Body and that Blood which for our sakes was dissolved, dissolved three days since, when it suffered for our sins. And this day raised again, when it rose for our justification.

"Which when we do, that is, receive this Body or this Temple, for *Templum hoc* and *Hoc est Corpus Meum*, are now come to be one, for both *Templum hoc* and *Corpus hoc* are in *Templum corporis Sui*; and when the temples of our body are in this Temple, and the Temple of his Body in the temples of ours, then are there three Temples in one, a Trinity, the perfectest number of all. Then if ever are we, not temples only, but *Templa corporis Sui*, 'Temples of his Body,' and this Scripture fulfilled in us."—*Serm. X.*, vol. ii., p. 362.

"In Christ this sign is a sign, not betokening only, but exhibiting also what it betokeneth, as the Sacraments do. For of signs, some show only and work nothing; such was that of Jonas in itself, *sed esse plus quam Jonas hic*. For some other there be that show and work both—work what they show, present us with what they represent, what they set before us, set or graft in us. Such is that of Christ. For besides what it sets before us of His, it is farther a seal or pledge to us of our own that what we see in Him this day, shall be accomplished in our own selves, at His good time.

"And even so pass we to another mystery, for one mystery leads us to another; this in the

text, to the holy mysteries we are providing to partake, which do work like, and do work to this, even to the raising of the soul with the first resurrection.' And as they are a means for the raising of our soul out of the soil of sin—for they are given us, and we take them expressly for the remission of sins—so are they no less a means also for the raising our bodies out of the dust of death. The sign of that Body which was thus 'in the heart of the earth,' to bring us from thence at the last. Our Saviour saith it, *totidem verbis*, 'Whoso eateth My flesh and drinketh My blood, I will raise him up at the last day.'"—*Serm. XII.*, p. 402, 403.

"The third place is St. Augustine, that Christ in these words had a farther meaning; to wean her from all sensual and fleshly touching, and teach her a new and a true touch, truer than that she was about. This sense groweth out of Christ's reason, 'Touch Me not, for I am not yet ascended,' as if till he were ascended, He would not be touched, and then He would. As much as to say, 'Care not to touch Me here, stand not upon it, touch Me not till I be ascended; stay till then, and then do. That is the true touch, that it is will do you all the good.'

"And there is reason for this sense. For the touch of His Body which she so much desired, that could last but forty days in all, while He in His Body were among them. And what should all since, and we now, have been the better? He was to take her out a lesson, and to teach her another touch, that might serve for all to the world's end; that might serve when the Body and bodily touch were taken from us.

"Christ himself touched upon this point in the sixth chapter, at the sixty-second verse, when at Capernaum they stumbled at the speech of eating His flesh. 'What,' saith He, 'find you this strange, now? How will you find it then, when you shall see the Son of Man ascend up where he was before?' How then? And yet then you must eat, or else there is no life in you.

"So it is a plain item to her, that there may be a sensual touching of him here; but that is not it, not the right, it avails little. It was her error this; she was all for the corporeal presence, for the touch with the fingers. So were his disciples, all of them, too much addicted to it. From which they were now to be weaned, that if they had before known Christ, or touched him after the flesh, yet now from henceforth they were to do so no more, but learn a new touch; to touch Him, being now ascended. Such a touching there is, or else His reason holds not; and best touching Him so, better far than this of hers she was so eager on."—*Serm. XV.*, on *Resur.*, vol. iii., p. 36.

"As these are their (the Romanists) imaginations, so we want not ours. For many among us fancy only a Sacrament in this action, and look strange at the mention of a Sacrifice; whereas we not only use it as a nourishment spiritual, as that it is too, but as a mean also to renew a 'covenant' with God by virtue of that 'Sacrifice,' as the Psalmist speaketh. So our Saviour Christ in the institution telleth us, in the twenty-second chapter of Luke, and twentieth verse, and the Apostle, in the thirteenth chapter of Hebrews and tenth verse. And the

old writers use no less the word Sacrifice than Sacrament, altar than table, offer than eat; but both indifferently, to show there is both.

"And again too, that to a many with us it is indeed so *fractio panis*, as it is that only and nothing beside; whereas the 'Bread' which we break is the partaking of Christ's true 'Body'—and not of a sign, figure, or remembrance of it. For the Church hath ever believed a true fruition of the true Body of Christ in that Sacrament."—Vol. v., p. 66, 67.

DR. DONNE.

But yet, though this bread be not transubstantiated, we refuse not the words of the Fathers, in which they have expressed themselves in this mystery. Not Irenæus his '*est corpus*,' that that Bread is His Body now. Not Tertullian's '*fecit corpus*,' that that Bread is made His Body which was not so before. Not St. Cyprian's '*mutatus*,' that that Bread is changed. Not Damascene's '*supernaturaliter mutatus*,' that that Bread is not only changed so in the use, as when at the King's table certain portions of bread are made bread of essay, to pass over every dish whether for safety or for majesty; not only so civilly changed, but changed supernaturally. No, nor Theophylact's '*transformatus est*' (which seems to be the word that goes farthest of all), for this transforming cannot be intended of the outward form and fashion, for that is not changed, but be it of that internal form which is the very essence and nature of the Bread, so it is transformed, so the Bread hath received a new form, a new essence, a new nature, because whereas the nature of bread is but to nourish the body, the nature of this Bread now is to nourish the soul. And, therefore, *cum non dubitavit Dominus dicere, Hoc est Corpus meum cum signum daret corporis*, since Christ forbore not to say, 'This is My Body,' when he gave the sign of His Body, why should we forbear to say of that Bread, 'This is Christ's Body, which is the sacrament of His Body?'—80 *Sermons*, ed. 1640, p. 37, 4th *Sermon on the Nativity*.

JACKSON.

"This is a point which every Christian is bound expressly to believe, that God the Father doth neither forgive sins, nor vouchsafe any term or plea of reconciliation, but only for the merits and satisfaction made by the sacrifice of the Son of God, who by the eternal Spirit offered Himself in our human nature upon the Cross. In the next place, we are to believe and acknowledge, that as God the Father doth neither forgive, nor vouchsafe reconciliation, but for the merits and reconciliation of His only Son; so neither will He vouchsafe to convey this or any other blessing unto us, which His Son hath purchased for us, but only through his Son; not only through Him as our Advocate or Intercessor; but through Him as our Mediator, that is, through His Humanity, as the Organ or Conduit, or as the only bond, by which we are united and reconciled unto the Divine Nature. For although the Holy Spirit or Third Person in Trinity doth immediately and by Personal propriety work faith and other spiritual graces in our souls, yet doth He not by these spiritual graces unite our souls or spirits immediately unto Christ's human nature. He doth as it were till the ground of our hearts, and make it fit to receive the seed of life; but this seed of righteousness immediately flows from the Son of Righteousness, whose sweet influence likewise it is, which doth immediately sea-

son, cherish, and ripen it. The Spirit of Life, whereby our adoption and election is sealed unto us, is the real participation of Christ's Body, which was broken, and of Christ's Blood, which was shed for us. This is the true and punctual meaning of our Apostle's speech, 1 Cor., xv., 45. '*The first man Adam was made a living soul*,' or, as the Syriac hath it, *animale corpus*, an enlivened body; '*but the second Adam was made a quickening Spirit*;' and immediately becometh such to all those which as truly bear his image by the Spirit of Regeneration, which issues from Him, as they have borne the image of the first Adam by natural propagation; and this again is the true and punctual meaning of our Saviour's words, John, vi., 63. '*It is the Spirit that quickeneth, the flesh profiteth nothing; the words that I speak unto you are spirit and life*.' For so He had said in the verses before, to such as were offended at His words, '*What if you should see the Son of Man ascend up where He was before?*' The implication contained in the connexion between these two verses and the precedent is this: That Christ's virtual presence, or the influence of life, which His human nature was to distil from His heavenly throne, should be more profitable to such as were capable of it, than His bodily presence; than the bodily eating of his Flesh and Blood could be, although it had been convertible into their bodily substance. This distillation of life and immortality from His glorified human nature, is that, which the ancient and orthodox Church did mean in their figurative and lofty speeches of Christ's real Presence, or of eating His very Flesh and drinking His very Blood in the Sacrament. And the Sacramental Bread is called His Body, and the Sacramental Wine His Blood; as for other reasons, so especially for this, that the virtue or influence of his bloody Sacrifice is most plentifully and most effectually distilled from heaven unto the worthy receivers of the Eucharist."—vol. iii., p. 327, 8.

"All that are partakers of this Sacrament, eat Christ's Body and drink His Blood sacramentally; that is, they eat that Bread which sacramentally is His Body, and drink that Cup which sacramentally is His Blood, whether they eat or drink faithfully or unfaithfully. For, *all the Israelites* (1 Cor., x.) *drank of the same spiritual rock, which was Christ sacramentally: all of them were partakers of His presence, when Moses smote the rock. Yet, with 'many of them, God was not well pleased,'* because they did not faithfully either drink or participate of His presence. And more displeased He is with such as eat Christ's Body and drink His Blood unworthily, though they eat and drink them sacramentally; for eating and drinking so only, that is, without faith, or due respect, they eat and drink to their own condemnation, because they do not discern, or rightly esteem Christ's Body or Presence in the Holy Sacrament.

"May we say, then, that Christ is really present in the Sacrament, as well to the unworthy as to the faithful receivers? Yes, this we must grant, yet must we add withal, that he is really present with them in a quite contrary manner; really present he is, because virtually present to both; because the operation or efficacy of His Body and Blood is not metaphorical, but real in both. Thus the bodily sun, though locally distant for its substance, is really present by its heat and light, as well to sore eyes, as to clear sights, but really present to both, by a contrary real operation, and by the like contrary operation, it is

really present to clay and to wax, it really hardeneth the one, and really softeneth the other. So doth Christ's Body and Blood by its invisible, but real influence, mollify the hearts of such as come to the Sacrament with due preparation; but harden such as unworthily receive the consecrated Elements. If he that will hear the Word, must take heed how he hears, much more must he which means to receive the Sacrament of Christ's Body and Blood, be careful how he receives. He that will present himself at this great marriage-feast of the Lamb without a wedding garment, had better be absent. It was always safer, not to approach the presence of God manifested or exhibited in extraordinary manner (as in His sanctuary or in the ark), than to make appearance before it in an unhallowed manner, or without due preparation. Now when we say that Christ is really present in the Sacrament, our meaning is, that as God He is present in an extraordinary manner, after such a manner, as He was present (before His incarnation) in His sanctuary the Ark of His Covenant; and by the power of His Godhead thus extraordinarily present, He diffuseth the virtue or operation of His human nature, either to the vivification or hardening of their hearts, who receive the Sacramental pledges."—Vol. iii., p. 333, 4.

SUTTON.

"There is a far better and safer course than to contend any longer, if men would at last set themselves on all parts to follow it, which is to reverence the Son of God in the unsearchable mysteries of his wisdom which are past finding out, and not to stand weighing them in the light scales and balance of their own reason; to draw a veil over them, or say with the woman of Samaria, *Puteus est altus*, this well is deep, and so with pious hearts to reverence them, and no more ado.

"5. When we have done striving, and even wearied ourselves in a thousand difficulties, brought our minds into a labyrinth of doubts, unless we will make controversies immortal, we must draw at last to an issue.

"The faithful receive the blessed Sacrament. Well, what do they receive? Certainly Christ Jesus, truly and really; to make farther scruple is needless curiosity; to give light credence hereunto, is in part incredulity. What the elements of Bread and Wine are in themselves is one thing; that they are, being now consecrated to so holy a use, and received of the spiritually minded as the spiritual food of their souls, is another. What they are, I say, Christ's own words are sufficient warrant for a believing world unto the world's end. Wherefore, to be over-witted in seeking, or doubting how this should be, is no way agreeable to that faith and obedience that becometh Christians. *Rerum absentium* (saith an ancient father) *præsens est fides; rerum impossibilium, possibilis est fides*; of things absent, faith is present; of things impossible, faith is possible. *Panem vides, verbum judis; Cui potius credis? Smsui, vel Christo?* Thou seest the Bread, thou hearest the word; to which rather dost thou give credit, whether to thy sense or to Christ? *Cur pon potius gaudes? Quid quaris?* Why dost thou not rather rejoice? Why dost thou question?

"6. In this case, that of the blessed Virgin, spoken of Christ at the Marriage at Cana in Galilee, would be remembered; *Quodcunque dixerit vobis, facite*; whatsoever he shall say unto you, do it.

"When the Serpent said unto Eve, *Cur præcepit, vobis Deus, ut non comederetis?* Why hath God commanded you not to eat? Had she answered, *Scio quod præcepit, non speculat ad une investigare, causam quare præcepit*; I know He hath commanded me so; to see a reason why, or the cause wherefore, I need not, I ought not; had she not done far better?"—*Godly Meditations on the Most Holy Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, Preface.*

"10. And now that we may ingeniously confess that which is a plain case in the sight of God, and not flourish over the truth with colours of rhetoric, or smother it with the clouds of deceit, we acknowledge that the dignity of this Sacrament is greater than words can express, yea, than the mind of man is able to conceive. If any will exact the efficacy of those five words, 'For this is My Body,' we answer, It is a great mystery.

"11. Truly we give, and that justly, great respect and reverence to the holy Eucharist; for, whereas bread and wine are elements naturally ordained for the sustenance of the power of Divine benediction they do receive a virtue, that, being received of the faithful, they become nourishment of the soul, nay, they become means whereby we are sanctified both in body and soul, and are made the members of Christ.

"12. But Christ, some say, in express words calleth the Bread His Body, and the Wine His Blood: true, in express words also He calleth Himself a rock. Right well saith Eusebius Emisenus, 'Comest thou to the Sacrament, consider there the Body and Blood of Christ: wonder at it with reverence, touch it with thy mind, receive it with the hand of thy heart; do not say as the Capernaïtes, "Master, how camest thou hither?" but, with his disciples, asking no question, be glad thou dost enjoy Him. He is honoured in this mystery, that was once offered upon the Cross. Yea, but how can this be, that Christ, sitting at the right hand of God in heaven, should dispose of His Body to us poor inhabitants of earth? Take here the answer of the angel Gabriel, the Holy Ghost hath overshadowed it. 'From hence,' saith St. Bernard, 'to search is temerity, to know is life eternal.'"

"13. Is it not a hard saying, 'Unless ye eat the Flesh of the Son of God,' &c.? It is a hard saying to them that are hard of believing. The disciples hearing that of their Lord and Master, 'Take, eat, this is My Body,' they take, and eat, asking no question. 'Being confirmed in faith,' saith St. Chrysostom, 'they take and eat; unbelievers hearing the same of our Saviour, they depart, they eat not.' Peter answereth, 'Lord, Thou hast the words of life;' others go backward, leaving the Lord of life. The Capernaïte, hearing, dreameth of eating naturally, grossly; the godly are assured of eating spiritually, and yet withal really.

"14. Great was the authority of Pythagoras among his scholars; if he said it, they were silent; but greater was, and is, and ought to be, the authority of Christ with believers; He saith it, and they believe. The sun remains a splendid body, though bats and owls cannot endure it; the holy Sacrament remains an unspeakable mystery, though the carnal man doth not perceive it. In this case, silence is the safest eloquence, and the best expressing is not to express. A godly meditation is safer than a Socratical disputing. Discourse of controversy

doth often abate devotion: discourse of piety about this mystery is sweeter than the honey or the honey-comb.

"15. The Passover, which Christ kept with His disciples, was prepared in an upper room. When men brought unto Him a man sick of the palsy, they, in letting down the sick, uncovered the roof of the house. The harder parts of the Paschal Lamb were consumed by fire. Mysteries are, if not contrary, yet often above reason. Well saith St. Cyril, in his third book against Julian, 'If human reason waver in things sensible, how much more shall it do so in things beyond sense? Faithless Julian! what if the creation of the angels excel human capacity, did not Moses well in forbearing to mention it? Assuredly he did well. What if it cannot by reason be conceived how Christ, sitting at the table, should give Himself to His, for sustenance, wilt thou, therefore, by-and-by, imagine this or that change?'

"Let us rather honour Christ in His mysteries, praise Him for His mercies, be thankful unto Him for His benefits. Those things which we comprehend let us admire; those which we cannot comprehend, let us more admire: though words be wanting what to express, let not faith be wanting what to believe."—*Ib.*, p. 287-291.

"31. Well saith Fulgentius, against the Arians, 'True faith hath never superfluous, but it ever had and hath, just reasons.' So also St. Cyril's mysteries are offered to believers, not to questioners.

"32. Albeit, then, the manner be not of us over curiously inquired or searched after, yet the same presence of Christ is acknowledged which Christ himself would have to be acknowledged. We say with St. Ambrose, that there is not taken from bread the substance thereof, but that there is adjoined the grace of Christ's Body after a manner ineffable.

"33. It was no other but a shadow of this benefit that was of old given to the Jews in the ark of the covenant, and yet Solomon did so admire it, as that he said, 'And is it credible that God should dwell with men?'

"34. We often marvel and condemn the Jews, that, having Christ among them, they did not acknowledge and receive Him in the manner that they ought to have done. Let us consider Christ among us, and invert that saying of the husbandmen, 'This is the heir,' let us take him, receive him, believe in him, 'and the inheritance shall be ours.'

"35. Last of all, concerning the controversy about the holy Eucharist, between two extremes, whereof we have heard, let us embrace the means; let us, with a sincere faith, apprehend the truth; apprehending, let us keep it; keeping, let us adore it with godly manners.

"36. And now to draw in, as it were, the sails of this admonition, godly reader, seeing that this divine institution was left by our gracious Redeemer, both for the inward peace of the soul, and outward of the Church, who can sufficiently lament to see the dissension that hath miserably divided the Christian world, and discord that hath risen about the same! Let us call to mind, that God is not the God of dissension, but the God of peace. Let us all forbear on both sides needless and unprofitable disputes. Unless Thou, Lord, hadst said it, 'This is My

Body, this is My Blood,' who would have believed it? Unless Thou hadst said, O holy Christ, 'Take, eat, drink ye all of this,' who durst have touched it? Who would have approached to so heavenly a repast, hadst Thou not commanded it, *hoc facite*, do ye this; but Thou commanding, who would not joyfully come and communicate!

"37. Let us then hold captive human reason, and prepare ourselves unto the fruit of this heavenly manna. Unnecessary disputes bring small profits, we may with greater benefit wonder than argue. Then are the works of God most truly conceived, when they are devoutly admired."—*Ib.*, p. 299-301.

"Consider the divine wisdom of the Son of God, who, respecting our weakness, hath conveyed unto us His Body and Blood after a divine and spiritual manner, under the forms of Bread and Wine."—P. 26.

BISHOP WHITE (QUOTING BISHOP BILSON.)

"The more learned Jesuits themselves acknowledge that Protestants believe the Real Presence of Christ's Body and Blood in the Holy Eucharist; and our Divines deliver their faith concerning the Sacrament in this manner. God forbid we should deny that the Flesh and Blood of Christ are truly present and truly received of the faithful at the Lord's Table; it is the doctrine we teach others and comfort ourselves with."—*Conference with Fisher*, p. 178.

ARCHBISHOP LAUD.

"As for the Church of England, nothing is more plain than that it believes and teaches the true and real presence of Christ in the Eucharist."—*Conference with Fisher*, p. 294, sec. 35.

"His Altar, as the greatest place of God's residence upon earth, (I say the greatest,) yea, greater than the pulpit. For there 'tis 'Hoc est Corpus meum,' 'This is My Body.' But in the pulpit 'tis at most, 'Hoc est verbum meum,' 'This is my word.' And a greater reverence (no doubt) is due to the Body than to the word of our Lord. And so in relation, answerably to the throne, where his Body is usually present, than to the seat where His word useth to be proclaimed."—*Speech at the Star Chamber*, 1637, p. 47.

"O Lord God, hear my prayers. I come to Thee in a steadfast faith; yet for the clearness of my faith, Lord, enlighten it, for the strength of my faith, Lord, increase it. Behold, Lord, I quarrel not with the words of Thy Son my Saviour's blessed Institution. I know His words are no gross, unnatural conceit, but they are Spirit and Life. While the world disputes, I believe. He hath premised me, if I come worthily, that I shall receive His most precious Body and Blood with all the fruits of His Passion."—*Devotions*.

"O Lord God, how I receive the Body and Blood of my most blessed Saviour Jesus Christ is the very wonder of my soul, yet my most firm and constant belief upon the words of my Saviour. At this time they are graciously offered to me and my faith; Lord, make me a worthy receiver, and be it unto me as He hath said."—*Ibid.*

"As I like not those that say, He is bodily there, so I like not those that say His Body is

not there, because Christ saith it is there, and St. Paul saith it is there, and the Church of England saith it is there, and the Church of God ever saith it is there; and that truly, and substantially, and essentially: and that not only by way of representation or commemoration; and yet without either *con*, *sub*, or *trans*, which the ancient Church said not: by a real, and nevertheless a spiritual and mystical and supernatural presentation and exhibition. For why should our Saviour bid us take what He would not have us receive? We must believe that it is there; we must not know what is there; our faith may see it, our sense cannot; it is a mystery, they all say, and it were no mystery if it were known; His Presence they determined, the manner of His Presence they determined not; they say He is there, and they say the Lord knows how. For why should we seek Him naturally in the Communion, whom naturally we cannot find in the womb of the Virgin?—*Dr. Lawrence, Sermon before the King*, p. 17, 18.

"The people were not so profane and unchristian not to perform their most humble and lowly reverence towards the most holy and sacred Altar, where Christ is most truly and really present in the blessed Sacrament, &c. Altars, because they are the seats and chairs of estate, where the Lord vouchsafeth to place himself among us (*quid est enim Altare, nisi sedes Corporis et Sanguinis Christi*, as Optatus speaks?) have been in all ages so greatly honoured, and regarded of the most wise, learned, and most blessed Saints of God."—*Pocklington, Altare Christianum*, p. 108, 153.

"Bishop Ridley doth not only call it the Sacrament of the Altar, affirming thus, that in the Sacrament of the Altar is the natural Body and Blood of Christ," &c.—*Heylin, Coal from the Altar*, p. 15, quoting Ridley.

"All sides agree in the truth with the Church of England, that in the most blessed Sacrament the worthy receiver is by his faith made spiritual partaker of the true and real Body and Blood of Christ, truly and really. I would have no man troubled at the words truly and really, &c. Bellarmine saith 'Protestants do often grant, that the true and real Body of Christ is in the Eucharist, and it is most true. For the Calvinists, at least they which follow Calvin himself, do not only believe that the true and real body of Christ is received in the Eucharist, but that it is there; and that we partake of it *vere et realiter*; nor can that place by any art be shifted or by any violence wrested from Calvin's true meaning of the Presence of Christ, in and at the blessed Sacrament of the Eucharist. And, for the Church of England, nothing is more plain than that it believes and teaches the true and real Presence of Christ in the Eucharist; unless A. C. can make a body no body, and blood no blood. Nay, Bishop Ridley adds yet farther, 'That in the Sacrament is the very true and natural Body and Blood of Christ, that which was born of the Virgin Mary, which ascended into heaven, which sitteth at the right hand of God the Father, which shall come from thence to judge the quick and the dead,' &c.—*Laud's Conference with Fisher*, p. 286–296.

"And for the passages objected out of mine own Speech in Star Chamber, that they imply and necessarily infer the Popish doctrine of

Transubstantiation, and the giving of divine worship to the Altar, even the same that is given to God. I answer, that neither of these can be inferred from thence; for my words only imply, that Christ's body is truly and really present in the Sacrament; yet not corporeally, but in a spiritual manner, and so is received by us; which is no more than Master Calvin himself affirms on the 1 Cor., xi., 24, where thus he writes: *Neque enim mortis tantum et resurrectionis sue beneficium nobis offert Christus, sed Corpus Suum in quo passus est et resurrexit: concludo, realiter (ut vulgo loquuntur), id est, vere nobis in Cæna datur Christi Corpus, ut sit animis nostris in cibum salutare*; and Master Perkins himself saith as much."—*Prynne's Canterbury's Doom*, p. 514.

BISHOP FORBES.

"The doctrine of those Protestants and others seems most safe and true, who are of opinion, nay, most firmly believe, that the Body and Blood of Christ are truly, really, and substantially present in the Eucharist, and received but in a manner incomprehensible in respect of human reason, and ineffable, known to God alone, and not revealed to us in the Scriptures, not corporeal, yet neither in the mind alone, nor through faith alone, but in another way, known, as was said, to God alone, and to be left to His Omnipotence."—*Consid. Modest. de Euchar.*, l., i., 7.

EDE.

"It abolishes the mystery of our consolation, and that whereby our faith is strengthened in the use of these holy signs, that mankind might have an interest in Christ, and what He should do on our behalf. We know it was required He should be incarnate and take our nature upon Him, which now He hath done, every one of us can believe that what He hath done, is for the behoof of mankind; and so some men shall be the better for it, since our whole kind by reason of His Incarnation is capable of the benefits of His Passion and the whole work of redemption. But in that though Christ became man, yet He took not upon Him the nature of every several man, hence no man from His Incarnation could apply these benefits unto himself in special; for he might say, indeed Christ was made man, and so man may be the better for Him, and have some interest in Him: but since He was not incarnate into me, how should I apply this unto myself? Why therefore the all-wise God, who knew our weakness, hath so ordained in the mystery of this Holy Sacrament, that it is a mystical Incarnation of Christ into every one who receives it. Whence Gregory Nazienzen defines the Eucharist, *ἐκκωνία νσαρκώσεως τοῦ Θεοῦ*, a *Communion of the Incarnation of God*. For in that He affirms the Bread to be His Body, and the Wine to be His Blood; by receiving this Body and Blood of Christ, and so changing it into the substance of our body, and into our blood by way of nourishment, the Body of Christ becomes our body, and His Blood is made our blood, and we become in a mystical manner flesh of His flesh and bone of His bone. And as in His conception of the Holy Virgin, He took upon Him the nature of man, that He might save man; so in His Holy Sacrament He takes upon Him the nature of every man in singular,

that He might save every man who becomes Him in the Divine Sacrament of His Body and Blood. His real Incarnation was only in one, but His mystical Incarnation in many: and hence comes this Sacrament to be an instrument whereby Christ is conveyed unto us, His benefits applied, and so our faith confirmed."—*Disc.*, xlv., p. 254, ed. 1672.

"Now we know (Exod., xix., 13) that no beast might touch the mountain when the Lord appeared on Mount Sinai: so none of those whom God accounts in the number of beasts (as all who have beastly affections) may approach in Christ's presence, or come unto His table.

"Wherefore, as God saith, *be ye holy, because I am Holy*; so may it be said unto all communicants, *be ye holy, because the Sacrament is Holy*. (Lev., xi., 44, &c.) Whence it was a worthy custom in the ancient Church for the Bishop or Deacon to proclaim at the Holy Communion *τὰ ἅγια τοῖς ἁγίοις, holy things for them that are holy*, holding in his hands the Holy Sacraments. And good reason why; for where this holiness is not, there, instead of comfort, the heart is more and more corrupted. Even as the spider gets strength of poison from the sweetest herbs and flowers; so the profane heart is strengthened in wickedness by receiving this holy and heavenly food.

"The heinousness of this sin is aggravated in respect of the thing received: for our Apostle elsewhere saith, the unworthy receiver becomes *Guilty of the Body and Blood of Christ* (1 Cor., xi., 27), that is, he is guilty of offering contumely, injury, and indignity unto Him. St. Paul, when he dissuades husbands from misusing their wives, gives this for a reason, *no man ever yet hated his own flesh*: (Eph., v., 29) and, may not I reason thus, let no man offer injury unto Christ, because He is flesh of our flesh? yea, He is our Head, and a wound or maim given to the head is more odious and dangerous than to another part. To offer violence to a common person, is a fault; to strike a magistrate, a greater; but to wound a king, who is the Lord's anointed, is a sin in the highest degree. O what a heinous sin is it then to offer violence to, and as much as in us lies to strike and wound the Son of God, the King of Kings and the Lord of Glory!

"To be guilty of death and shedding of the blood of any innocent man, is a fearful sin; and this made David cry out, *Deliver me, O Lord, from blood-guiltiness*. (Psalm li., 14.) How fearful is it then to be guilty of the *Body and Blood of Christ*! Whose heart is not moved against the Jews, when he hears or reads their villanies and violence offered to our Blessed Saviour! But Chrysostom gives us a good take-heed, *Take heed* (saith he) *lest thou be guilty in the like kind, by unworthily receiving of the blessed Sacrament: he that defiles the King's body, and he that tears it, offend both alike; the Jews tore it, thou defilest it*. Here are (saith the same Father) *diversa peccata, sed par contumelia*; some difference of the sin, but none of the contumely therein offered.

"Joseph and Nicodemus, their pious devotion in begging and embalming the Body of Christ, is worthily recorded and commended to all generations; Mary Magdalene in bestowing that box of precious ointment upon His holy Head

hath gained to herself endless honour, instead of her former infamy: so if we receive and handle worthily this mystical body of Christ, our portion shall be with honourable Joseph and pious Mary Magdalene; our memories shall be as theirs, blessed, and our souls as theirs, to receive unspeakable comfort: but if we come unworthily, we join with Judas and the Jews, and are guilty, as they were, of the Body and Blood of Christ."—*Disc.*, xlv., p. 554, 257, 268.

HERBERT.

COME ye hither all, whose taste
Is your waste;
Save your cost and mend your fare,
God is here prepared and drest,
And the feast,
God in whom all dainties are.
Come ye hither, all whom wine
Doth define
Naming you not to your good;
Weep what ye have drunk amiss,
And drink This
Which before ye drink is Blood.
THE INVITATION.
God to shew how far His love
Could improve,
Here, as broken is presented.
THE BANQUET.

ARCHBISHOP BRAMHALL.

"Having viewed all your strength with a single eye, I find not one of your arguments that comes home to Transubstantiation, but only to a true real Presence; which no genuine son of the Church of England did ever deny, no, nor your adversary himself. Christ said, 'This is My Body'; what He said, we do steadfastly believe. He said not, after this or that manner, *neque con, neque sub, neque trans*. And, therefore, we place it among the opinions of the Schools, not among the articles of our Faith. The Holy Eucharist, which is the Sacrament of peace and unity, ought not to be made the matter of strife and contention."—*Works*, fol. ed., p. 15.

"We find no debates or disputes concerning the Presence of Christ's Body in the Sacrament, and much less concerning the manner of His Presence for the first 800 years.

"Yet all the time we find as different expressions among those primitive Fathers, as among our modern writers at this day: some calling the Sacrament 'the Sign of Christ's Body'—'the Figure of His Body'—'the Symbol of His Body'—'the Mystery of His Body'—'the Exemplar,' 'Type,' and 'Representation of His Body,' saying, 'that the elements do not recede from their first nature'; others naming it 'the true Body and Blood of Christ,'—changed, not in shape, but in nature; yea, doubting not to say, that in this Sacrament 'we see Christ'—'we touch Christ'—'we eat Christ'—'that we fasten our teeth in His very Flesh, and make our tongues red in His Blood.' Yet, notwithstanding, there were no questions, no quarrels, no contentions among them; there needed no Councils to order them, no conferences to reconcile them; because they contented themselves to believe that Christ had said, 'This is My Body,' without presuming on their own heads to determine the manner how it is His Body; neither weighing all their own words so exactly before any controversy was raised, nor expounding the sayings of other men contrary to the analogy of Faith."—*Ib.*, p. 16.

"So grossly is he mistaken on all sides, when

he saith that Protestants (he should say the English Church, if he would speak to the purpose) have a positive belief that the Sacrament is not the Body of Christ, which were to contradict the words of Christ, 'This is my Body.' He knows better that Protestants do not deny the thing, but the bold determination of the manner by Transubstantiation."—*Ib.*, p. 226.

"Abate us Transubstantiation, and those things which are consequent of their determination of the manner of Presence, and we have no difference with them in this particular. They are ordained Priests ought to have power to consecrate the Sacrament of the Body and Blood of Christ, that is, to make Them present."—*Ib.*, p. 485.

BISHOP COSIN.

"Where is the danger and what doth he fear, as long as all they that believe the Gospel own the true nature and the Real and Substantial Presence of the Body of Christ in the Sacrament, using that explication of St. Bernard concerning the manner, which he himself, for the too great evidence of truth, durst not but admit! And why doth he own that the manner is spiritual not carnal, and then require a carnal presence, as to the manner itself? As for us, we all openly profess with St. Bernard, that the Presence of the Body of Christ in the Sacrament is spiritual, and, therefore, true and real, and with the same Bernard and all the ancients, we deny that the Body of Christ is carnally either present or given. The thing we willingly admit, but humbly and religiously forbear to inquire the manner. . . . We confess with the Fathers, that this manner of Presence is unaccountable and past finding out, not to be searched and pried into by reason, but believed by faith. And if it seems impossible that the Flesh of Christ should descend and come to be our food through so great a distance, we must remember how much the power of the Holy Spirit exceeds our sense and our apprehensions, and how absurd it would be to undertake to measure His immensity by our weakness and narrow capacity, and so make our faith to conceive and believe what our reason cannot comprehend.

"Yet our faith does not cause or make that Presence, but apprehends it as most truly and really effected by the word of Christ; and the faith whereby we are said to eat the Flesh of Christ, is not that only whereby we believe that he died for our sins, (for this faith is required and supposed to precede the sacramental manducation), but more properly whereby we believe those words of Christ, 'This is my Body,' which was St. Austin's meaning when he said, 'why dost thou prepare thy stomach and thy teeth? Believe, and thou hast eaten.' For in this mystical eating, by the wonderful power of the Holy Ghost, we do invisibly receive the substance of Christ's Body and Blood, as much as if we should eat and drink both visibly."—*Hist. of Transub.*, p. 53, 54.

"All that remains is, that we should with faith and humility admire this high and sacred mystery, which our tongue cannot sufficiently explain, nor our heart conceive."—*Ibid.*

BISHOP SPARROW.

"The Priest says, 'Lift up your hearts.' For

certainly at that hour when we are to receive the most dreadful Sacrament, it is necessary to lift up our hearts to God.

"Next is the Consecration. So you shall find in Chrysostom and Cyril last cited. Which Consecration consists chiefly in rehearsing the words of our Saviour's Institution, This is My Body, and this is My Blood, when the bread and wine is present upon the Communion Table. 'The Holy Sacrament of the Lord's Supper,' says St. Chrysostom, 'which the Priest now makes, is the same that Christ gave to His Apostles,' &c. Again, 'Christ is present at the Sacrament now, that first instituted it. He consecrates this also. It is not man that makes the Body and Blood of Christ by consecrating the holy elements, but Christ that was crucified for us. The words are pronounced by the words of the Priest, but the elements are consecrated by the power and grace of God. 'This is,' saith He, 'My Body;' by this word the bread and wine are consecrated.

"When the priest hath said at the delivery of the Sacrament, The Body of our Lord Jesus Christ which was given for thee, preserve thy body and soul unto everlasting life, the communicant is to answer Amen. By this Amen, professing his faith of the Presence of Christ's Body and Blood in that Sacrament."—*Rationale upon the Book of Common Prayer*, p. 211, 216, 220, ed. Oxford, 1840.

HAMMOND.

"S. You told me even now, that you would show me how the phrase, 'This is my Body, in the Gospel, interpreted by, this taking and eating is my Body,' was to be understood: perhaps it may now be time for you to pay me that debt.

"C. It is a fit reason to do so; for this very phrase of St. Paul's, 'The Bread which we break is the Communion of the Body of Christ,' is the key to open that difficulty, and indeed perfectly all one, of the very same importance with that. This breaking, taking, eating of the Bread, this whole action is the real communication of the Body of Christ to me, and is therefore by some ancient writers called by a word which signifies the participation (communication and participation being the same, only one referred to the giver, the other to the receiver), the very giving Christ's Body to me; that as verily as I eat the bread in my mouth, so verily God in Heaven bestows on me, communicates to me the Body of the crucified Saviour. And so all that I told you of the full sense of that phrase, 'Communication of Christ's Body,' is again to be repeated here to make up the sense of those words, 'This is my Body,' which being so largely enlarged on, I need not now repeat it to you."—*Practical Catechism*, p. 354, ed. 1715.

BISHOP FELL.—"Paraphrase on the Epistles."

"For this Holy Ceremony was not instituted by us for eating and drinking, but by the Lord Himself, for a sacred, solemn commemoration of His death, and to be approached with all reverence and great preparation, as being the Body and Blood of the Lord."—On 1 Cor., xi., 23.

THORNDIKE.

"Upon these premises, I am content to go to issue as concerns the sense of the Catholic

Church in this point. If it can anywhere be showed that the Church did ever pray that the Flesh and Blood might be substituted instead of the elements, under the accidents of them, then I am content that this be counted henceforth the Sacramental Presence of them in the Eucharist. But if the Church only pray that the Spirit of God, coming down upon the elements, may make them the Body and Blood of Christ, so that they which received them may be filled with the grace of His spirit; then is it not the sense of the Catholic Church that can oblige any man to believe the abolishing of the elements, in their bodily substance; because, supposing that they remain, they may nevertheless become the instrument of God's Spirit to convey the operation thereof to them that are disposed to receive it, no otherwise than His Flesh and Blood conveyed the efficacy thereof upon earth. And that, I suppose, is reason enough to call it the Body and Blood of Christ Sacramentally, that is to say, as in the Sacrament of the Eucharist. It is not here to be denied, that all ecclesiastical writers do, with one mouth, bear witness to the Presence of the Body and Blood of Christ in the Eucharist. Neither will any one of them be found to ascribe it to anything but the consecration, or that to any faith, but that upon which the Church professeth to proceed to the celebrating of it. And upon this account, when they speak of the elements, supposing the consecration to have passed upon them, they always call them by the name not of their bodily substance, but of the Body and Blood of Christ which they are become."—Epilogue, iii., 4, p. 30.

L'ESTRANGE'S ALLIANCE, c. vii., p. 209.

Commenting on the Form of Administration.

"*The Body of our Lord, &c.*] If you take a view of the elder forms, as they stand lateral to the Common Prayer, you may perceive this constituted by the coupling and uniting of the other two, which were before unlawfully divorced; for the first form in the first book, excluding the words commemorative of Christ's Death and Passion, which those Divine Mysteries were ordered to represent, as it is the precise formula of the Mass-Book, so might it be suspected as over-serviceable to the doctrine of Transubstantiation, to which the Romanists applied it. Again, in the next Book, the Commemoration being let in, and the Body and Blood of Christ shut out, that Real Presence which all sound Protestants seem to allow, might probably be implied to be denied. Excellently well done therefore was it of Q. Elizabeth's Reformers, to link them both together; for between the Body and Blood of Christ in the Eucharist, and the Sacramental Commemoration of his Passion, there is so inseparable a league, as *subsist* they cannot, unless they *consist*. A Sacramental Verity of Christ's Body and Blood there cannot be, without the Commemoration of his Death and Passion, because Christ never promised his Mysterious (but Real) Presence, but in reference to such Commemoration; nor can there be a true Commemoration without the Body and Blood exhibited and participated; because Christ gave not those visible elements, but his Body and Blood to make that spiritual representation."

Ibid., chap. x., p. 300.

"Indeed, if consecration be of any import, if with God it reconcileth anything effectual towards the making those elements the Body and Blood of Christ, if in us it create any greater reverence to those dreadful Mysteries, then certainly that consecration must excel all others which is made in the full congregation."

TAYLOR.

"It was happy with Christendom, when she, in this article, retained the same simplicity which she always was bound to do in her manners and intercourse; that is, to believe the thing heartily, and not to inquire curiously; and there was peace in this article for almost a thousand years together; and yet that transubstantiation was not determined I hope to make very evident; 'In synaxi transubstantiationem sero definivit ecclesia: diu satis erat credere, sive sub pane consecrato, sive quocunque, modoadesse verum Corpus Christi;' so said the great Erasmus: 'It was late before the Church defined transubstantiation; for a long time together it did suffice to believe, that the true Body of Christ was present, whether under consecrated bread or any other way:' so the thing was believed, the manner was not stood upon. And it is a famous saying of Durandus: 'Verbum audimus, motum sentimus, modum nescimus, præsentium credimus;' 'We hear the word, we perceive the motion, we know not the manner, but we believe the presence;' and Ferus, of whom Sixtus Senensis affirms that he was 'vir nobiliter doctus, pius et eruditus,' hath these words: 'Cum certum sit ibi esse Corpus Christi, quid osus est disputare, num panis substantia maneat, vel non?' 'When it is certain that Christ's body is there, what need we dispute whether the substance of bread remain or no?' and therefore Cuthbert Tonstal, Bishop of Duresme, would have every one left to his conjecture concerning the matter: 'De modo quo id ferit, satius erat curiosum quemque relinquere suæ conjecturæ, sicut liberem fuit ante Concilium Lateranum:' 'Before the Lateran Council, it was free for every one to opine as they please, and it were better it were so now.' But St. Cyril would not allow so much liberty; not that he would have the manner determined, but not so much as thought upon. 'Firmam fidem mysteriis adhibentes, nunquam in tam sublimibus rebus, illud *quomodo*, aut cogitemus aut proferamus.' For if we go about to think it or understand it, we lose our labour. 'Quomodo enim id fiat, ne in mente intelligere, nec lingua dicere possumus, sed silentio et firmâ fide id suscipimus.' 'We can perceive the thing by faith, but cannot express it in words, nor understand it with our mind,' said St. Bernard. 'Oportet igitur (it is at last, after the steps of the former progress, come to be a duty), nos in sumtionibus divinorum mysteriorum, indubitatam retinere fidem, et non quærere quo pacto.' The sum is this; The manner was defined but very lately: there is no need at all to dispute it; no advantage by it; and therefore it were better it were left at liberty to every man to think as he pleases, for so it was in the Church for above a thousand years together; and yet it were better, men would not at all trouble themselves concerning it; for it is a thing impossible to be un-

derstood; and therefore it is not fit to be inquired after."—*Real Presence*, vol. ix., p. 421–23.

"The doctrine of the Church of England, and generally of the Protestants, in this article, is—that after the Minister of the holy Mysteries hath rightly prayed, and blessed or consecrated the Bread and Wine, the symbols become changed into the Body and Blood of Christ, after a sacramental, that is, in a spiritual real manner: so that all that worthily communicate, do by faith receive Christ really, effectually, to all the purposes of His Passion: the wicked receive not Christ, but the bare symbols only; but yet to their hurt, because the offer of Christ is rejected, and they pollute the Blood of the covenant, by using it as an unholy thing. The result of which doctrine is this: It is bread, and it is Christ's Body. It is bread in substance, Christ in the Sacrament; and Christ is as really given to all that are truly disposed, as the symbols are; each as they can; Christ as Christ can be given; the Bread and Wine as they can; and to the same real purposes, to which they are designed: and Christ does as really nourish and sanctify the soul, as the elements do the body."—*Ibid.*, 424.

"This may suffice for the word 'real,' which the English Papists much use, but, as it appears, with much less reason than the sons of the Church of England: and when the Real Presence is denied, the word 'real' is taken for 'natural,' and does not signify 'transcendent,' or in his just and most proper signification. But the word 'substantialiter' is also used by Protestants in this question, which I suppose may be the same with that which is in the Article of Trent, 'Sacramentaliter præsens Salvatore substantiâ suâ nobis adest,' 'in substance, but after a Sacramental manner;' which words if they may be understood in the sense in which the Protestants use them, that is, really, truly, without fiction or the help of fancy, but 'in rei veritate,' so, as Philo calls spiritual things, ἀγκαιότατα ὄντια, 'most necessary, useful, and material substances,' it might become an instrument of a united confession." . . . *Ibid.*, p. 427.

"One thing more I am to note in order to the same purposes; that, in the explication of this question, it is much insisted upon, that it be inquired whether, when we say we believe Christ's Body to be 'really' in the sacrament, we mean, 'that Body, that Flesh, that was born of the Virgin Mary,' that was crucified, dead, and buried? I answer, I know none else that He had, or hath: there is but one Body of Christ natural and glorified; but he that says, that Body is glorified, which was crucified, says it is the same Body, but not after the same manner: and so it is in the Sacrament; we eat and drink the Body and Blood of Christ, that was broken and poured forth; for there is no other body, no other blood, of Christ; but though it is the same which we eat and drink, yet it is in another manner: and therefore, when any of the Protestant divines, or any of the fathers, deny that Body which was born of the Virgin Mary, that which was crucified, to be eaten in the Sacrament,—as Bertram, as St. Jerome, as Clemens Alexandrinus, expressly affirm; the meaning is easy—they intend that it is not eaten in a natural sense; and then calling it 'cor-

pus spirituale, the word 'spiritual' is not a substantial prediction, but is an affirmation of the manner, though in disputation, it be made the predicate of a proposition, and the opposite member of a distinction. 'That Body which was crucified, is not that Body that is eaten in the Sacrament'—if the intention of the proposition be to speak of the eating it in the same manner of being; but 'that Body which was crucified, the same Body we do eat'—if the intention be to speak of the same thing in several manners of being and operating; and this I noted, that we may not be prejudiced by words, when the notion is certain and easy: and thus far is the sense of our doctrine in this article."—*Ibid.*, 430.

"In this Feast, all Christ and Christ's Passion, and all His graces, the blessings and effects of His sufferings are conveyed."—*Holy Living*, vol. iv., p. 268.

"When the holy man stands at the Table of Blessing, and ministers the rite of Consecration, then do as the Angels do, who behold, and love, and wonder that the Son of God should become Food to the souls of His servants; that He who cannot suffer any change or lessening should be broken into pieces and enter into the body to support and nourish the spirit, and yet remain in heaven while he descends to thee upon earth; that He who hath essential felicity should become miserable and die for thee, and then give himself to thee, forever to redeem thee from sin and misery."—*Ibid.*, p. 269.

"Have mercy upon us, O heavenly Father, according to Thy glorious mercies and promises, send Thy Holy Ghost upon our hearts, and let Him also descend upon these gifts, that by His good, His holy, His glorious Presence, He may sanctify and enlighten our hearts, and He may bless and sanctify these gifts,

"That this Bread may become the Holy Body of Christ. Amen.

"And this Chalice may become the life giving Blood of Christ. Amen."

—*Office for the Holy Communion*, vol. xv., p. 299.

"In the act of receiving, exercise acts of faith with much confidence and resignation, believing it not to be common bread and wine, but holy in their use, holy in their signification, holy in their change, and holy in their effect: and believe, if thou art a worthy communicant, thou dost as verily receive Christ's Body and Blood to all effects and purposes of the Spirit, as thou dost receive the blessed elements into thy mouth, that thou puttest thy finger to His hand, and thy hand into His side, and thy lips to His frontlet of blood, sucking life from His heart; and yet if thou dost communicate unworthily, thou eatest and drinkest Christ to thy danger, and death, and destruction. Dispute not concerning the secret of the mystery, and the nicety of the manner of Christ's Presence; it is sufficient to thee, that Christ shall be present to thy soul, as an instrument of grace, as a pledge of the resurrection, as the earnest of glory and immortality, and a means of many intermedial blessings, even all such as are necessary for thee, and are in order to thy salvation. And to make all this good to thee, there is nothing necessary on thy part but a holy life, and a true belief of all the sayings of Christ; among which, indefinitely assent to the words of institution, and believe

that Christ, in the Holy Sacrament, gives thee His Body and His Blood. He that believes not this, is not a Christian. He that believes so much, needs not to inquire farther, nor to entangle his faith by disbelieving his sense."—*Holy Living*, vol. iv., p. 172.

"And therefore the Christian ministry having greater privileges, and being honoured with attestation of the Body and Blood of Christ, and offices serving to a better covenant, may with greater argument be accounted excellent, honourable, and royal."—*Divine Institution of Office Ministerial*, t. 5, § 9, vol. xiv., 457.

BISHOP KEN.

"I believe, O crucified Lord, that the Bread which we break in the celebration of the Holy Mysteries in the communication of Thy Body, and the Cup of blessing which we bless is the communication of Thy Blood, and that Thou dost as effectually and really convey Thy Body and Blood to our souls by the Bread and Wine, as Thou didst Thy Holy Spirit by Thy breath to Thy disciples, for which all love, all glory be to Thee.

"Lord, what need I labour in vain to search out the manner of Thy mysterious Presence in the Sacrament, when my love assures me Thou art there? All the faithful who approach Thee, with prepared hearts, they well know Thou art there; they feel the virtue of divine love going out of Thee to heal their infirmities and to inflame their affections; for which all love, all glory be to Thee.

"O God Incarnate, how Thou canst give us Thy Flesh to eat and Thy Blood to drink; how Thy Flesh is meat indeed; how Thou who art in heaven art present on the Altar, I can by no means explain; but I firmly believe it all, because Thou hast said it, and firmly rely on Thy love and on Thy Omnipotence to make good Thy word, though the manner of doing it I cannot comprehend."—*Exposition of the Church Catechism*.

BISHOP HACKETT.

"That which astonisheth the communicant and ravisheth his heart is, that this Feast afford no worse meat than the Body and Blood of our Saviour. These He gave for the life of the world, these are the repast of this Supper, and these we truly partake. For there is not only the visible reception of the outward signs, but an invisible reception of the thing signified. There is far more than a shadow, than a type, than a figure. Christ did not propose a sign at that hour, but also he gave us a Gift, and that Gift really and effectually is Himself, which is all one as you would say, spiritually Himself; for spiritual union is the most true and real union that can be. That which is promised, and faith takes it, and hath it, is not fiction, fancy, opinion, falsity, but substance and verity. Therefore it cannot choose but that a real union must follow between Christ and us, as there is a union of all parts of the body by the animation of one soul. . . . But faith is the mouth wherewith we eat His Body and drink His Blood, not the mouth of a man, but of a faithful man, for we hunger after Him not with a corporeal appetite but a spiritual, therefore our eating must be spiritual, and not corporeal. Yet this is a real

substantial partaking of Christ crucified, broken, His Flesh bleeding, His wounds gaping: so He is exhibited, so we are sure to receive Him, which doth not only touch our outward senses in the elements, but pass through into the depth of the soul. For in true divinity real and spiritual are æquipollent: A mystery neither to be set out in words, nor to be comprehended sufficiently in the mind, but to be adored by faith, says Calvin."—*Christian Consolations*, Bp. Taylor's Works, ed. Heber, vol. i., p. 162.

BISHOP BEVERIDGE.

"When we hear the words of Consecration repeated as they came from our Lord's own mouth, 'This is my Body which is given for you,' and 'This is my Blood which was shed for you, and for many, for the remission of sins;' we are then steadfastly to believe, that although the substance of the Bread and Wine still remain, yet now it is not common bread and wine, as to its use; but the Body and Blood of Christ in that Sacramental sense wherein He spake the words. . . . When it comes to our turn to receive it, then we are to lay aside all thoughts of bread and wine, and the Minister, and everything else that is or can be seen; and fix our faith, as it is "the evidence of things not seen," wholly and solely upon our blessed Saviour, as offering us his own Body and Blood to preserve our bodies and souls to everlasting life, which we are therefore to receive by faith, as it is the substance of things hoped for, steadfastly believing it to be, as our Saviour said, 'His Body and Blood,' which our Church teaches us are verily and indeed taken and received by the faithful in the Lord's Supper."—*Necessity and Advantage of Frequent Communion*, p. 204, 5, ed. 1721.

"Whereby He plainly signified, that what He now gave them to eat and drink, He would have them look upon it, and receive it, not as common bread and wine, but as his Body and Blood; the one as broken, the other as shed, for their sins."—*Catechism*, p. 125.

"Hence also it is, that our Church requires us to receive the Holy Sacrament kneeling, not out of any respect to the creatures of Bread and Wine, but to put us in mind that Almighty God our Creator and Redeemer, the only object of all religious worship, is there specially present, offering His own Body and Blood to us, that we may so act our faith in Him, and express our sense of His goodness to us, and our unworthiness of it, in the most humble posture that we can. And, indeed, could the Church be sure that all her members would receive as they ought with faith, she need not to command them to receive it kneeling; for they could not do it any other way: for how can I pray in faith to Almighty God, to preserve both my body and soul to everlasting life, and not make my body as well as soul, bow down before him? How can I by faith behold my Saviour coming to me, and offering me His own Body and Blood, and not fall down and worship him? How can I by faith lay hold upon the pardon of my sins, as there sealed and delivered to me, and receive it any otherwise than upon my knees? I dare not, I cannot do it, And they who can, have too much cause to suspect, that they do not discern the Lord's Body, and there-

fore cannot receive it worthily. Be sure, our receiving the blessed Body and Blood of Christ, as the Catholic Church always did, in an humble and adoring posture, is both an argument and excitement of our faith in Him. By it we demonstrate, that we discern the Lord's Body, and believe Him to be present with us in a particular sacramental sense, and by it we excite and stir up both ourselves and others to act our faith more steadfastly upon Him, in that by our adoring Him, we actually acknowledge him to be God, as well as man; and, therefore, on whom we have all the reason in the world to believe and trust for our salvation."—*On Frequent Communion*, p. 208.

BISHOP BULL.

"We are not ignorant that the ancient Fathers generally teach, that the Bread and Wine in the Eucharist, by or upon the consecration of them, do become, and are made the Body and Blood of Christ. But we know also, that though they do not all explain themselves in the same way, yet they do all declare their sense to be very dissonant from the doctrine of substantiation. Some of the most ancient doctors of the Church, as Justin Martyr and Irenæus, seem to have had this notion, that by or upon the sacerdotal Benediction, the Spirit of Christ, or a divine virtue from Christ, descends upon the elements, and accompanies them to all worthy communicants, and that therefore they are said to be and are the Body and Blood of Christ; the same Divinity which is hypostatically united to the Body of Christ in Heaven, being virtually united to the elements of Bread and Wine on earth. Which also seems to be the meaning of all the ancient Liturgies, in which it is prayed that God would send down his Spirit upon the Bread and Wine in the Eucharist."—*Answer to Bossuet. Hickes's Controversial Discourses*, vol. i., p. 249.

HICKES.

"Nay, I maintain, that no other interpretation of these words (St. Luke, xxii., 18, the words of institution) can be invented, which shall either be more probable than this of ours, or more suitable to the purpose of our Saviour. And indeed that this is the true and only meaning of the text I conclude from hence, that the Primitive Church always taught and understood it in this sense. And this I will now make good by a cloud of most unquestionable witnesses.

"And first let us hear St. Irenæus, St. Polycarp's contemporary, a most egregious assertor of Apostolical Tradition. In his fourth book, being to prove against the Marcionites that Jesus Christ was the Son of the One true God, who made the world, and instituted the law of Moses for the Jews, he draws his argument from the oblation of the Eucharist: and our opinion, says he, "is agreeable to the Eucharist, and the Eucharist does reciprocally confirm our opinion: for we offer unto the Lord those things which are His, congruously declaring the communication and the unity both of the Flesh and Spirit." And then follow these words: "For as the Bread which is from the earth, partaking of the invocation of God, is no longer common bread, but the Eucharist, consisting of

two things, an earthly and a heavenly: so also our bodies, partaking of the Eucharist, are no longer mere corruptible bodies, but have hope of a resurrection." In this passage the holy father does most expressly assert, that the Bread is made the Eucharist, that is, the Body of Jesus Christ by invocation of God, to wit, by consecration, as will appear more fully in the sequel. In his fifth book the same holy father disputes against Valentinus; and maintains, that Jesus Christ assumed the human nature truly and really, and not only in appearance, as some heretics dreamed. And to prove this also, he applies the Sacrament of the Eucharist. "And thus," says he, "to wit, according to these things, neither has the Lord redeemed us with His Blood; nor is the Cup of the Eucharist the Communication of His Blood; nor the Bread which we break the communication of His Body:" and a little after he has these words: "when therefore both the Bread broken, and the Cup mixed, have partaken of the Word of God, they become the Eucharist of the Body and Blood of Christ."—*Christian Priesthood*, App., p. cccclxxxii.

DEAN COMBER.

"Only we must note, that this Amen in the end of this [Consecration] prayer was anciently spoken by the people with a loud voice; not only to show their joining in the desire that the elements may become truly consecrated, but also to declare their firm belief that they are now to be esteemed as the very Body and Blood of Christ; let us, therefore, here most devoutly seal all that the priest hath done, and unfeignedly testify our faith by a hearty *Amen*. Lord, it is done as Thou hast commanded, and I doubt not but the mystery is rightly accomplished; I am persuaded that here is that which my soul longeth after, a crucified Saviour communicating himself to poor penitent sinners. O let me be reckoned among that number, and then I shall assuredly receive Thee, Holy Jesus. Amen."—*Companion to the Temple*, vol. i., fol., p. 543.

"Still, we do believe that every duly disposed communicant doth receive really the Body and Blood of Christ, in and by these elements, but it is by faith and not by sense. If we receive them in the manner, and to the end which Christ appointed, they give us a lively remembrance of His love and all-sufficient merit, and thereby invite our faith to embrace this crucified Redeemer, as the satisfaction for our sins; whereupon He (who is most ready to close with penitent sinners) doth by this rite of His own appointing, give Himself and the salutary benefits of His death into such, and although the manner be mysterious, yet the advantages are real, and the effect more certain than if we ate or drank His natural flesh and blood."—*Id.*, p. 540.

AN ACT OF FAITH.

"O Eternal Word of God, by whose power all things were made, I will not ask how Thou canst give me thy Flesh to eat; because I am abundantly satisfied in Thy saying, 'This is My Body.' since thou canst make it become to me whatsoever Thou sayest it is. I believe, Lord, help my unbelief! What though my senses as-

sure me, the outward substance and its accidents still remain; yet my faith and my experience tell me there is an efficacy therein, beyond the power of any other thing. Alas! the Flesh would profit me nothing, John, iv., 63, for he that is joined to Thee must be one spirit, 1 Cor., vi., 17. Oh let these sacred Symbols therefore make me partaker of Thy nature, and a partner in Thy merits: let them unite me to Thee, ingraft me in Thee, and make That Body mine which did suffer death for me, and then I shall seek no farther, but be more happy than if I could understand all mysteries: sure I am, This is thy Body in Sacrament, it communicates to us the blessings and benefit thereof, and though presented by a figure, and by a holy rite, yet it is to all purposes that which it doth represent; I will therefore receive it as Thy Body, and esteem it infinitely above all other food, that I may not be judged for not discerning Thy Body. O let it be unto me according to my faith. Amen."—*Ib.*, p. 547.

"It will not suffice me, dearest Saviour, to receive Thee in part only, for I must be wholly Thine, and (blessed be Thy name) Thou art willing to be wholly mine also. Thou hast already given me Thy Holy Body to cleanse my nature, and now Thou art preparing Thy precious blood to wash away my guilt. My sins have poured out every drop thereof, wherefore Thou presentest it to me itself, to show how truly Thou didst suffer death for me. And now, O my Redeemer, Thou hast said, This Cup is the Communion of Thy blood, and Thy truth is unquestionable, Thy power is infinite, and Thy love was such, that Thou gavest Thy heart's blood for me. I will receive it therefore as the blood of the Everlasting Covenant, the seal of all the promises of Thy Holy Gospel."

"The second happiness assured by this Holy Eucharist is, that we are thereby united to Jesus, so as to have fellowship with Him, 1 John, i., 3, and in St. Paul's phrase we do thereby become members of His Body, of His Flesh, and of His Bone, Eph., v., 30, for He gives us himself to be our food, with intent that He may be one with us, and we with Him. As some have made their leagues of friendship by drinking each other's blood, thereby intending to create a sympathy, and as it were to mingle souls: and since we have been fed with that Food, with which God feeds his dearest children, and have participated of that Spirit which quickens the great mystical body of Christ, 1 Cor., xii., 9, we may infer, that we are living members of the true Church also: let us therefore solace ourselves with reflecting upon the happiness of our present estate."

"The third benefit which worthy receivers have by this Sacrament is, that it doth consign them to a blessed immortality, and this follows from the former, it being impossible any true member of Christ should be left forever in the grave; since the Head liveth, the members shall live also, John, vi., 64, hence the Fathers called it an antidote against death, and the means to make us partakers of our Lord's immortality. For Jesus doth not only refresh our souls with a present communication of His graces, but doth seal that covenant also, one condition of which is, that He will bring us to glory."—*Ib.*, p. 566, 7.

ARCHBISHOP WAKE.

"The Bread which we break is, not only in figure and similitude, but by a real spiritual Communion. His Body. The Cup of Blessing which we bless is by the same Communion His Blood."

JOHNSON.

"Nor can I conceive how the words of St. Paul can otherwise be understood, in their full scope and latitude, when he says, 'The Cup of blessing which we bless, is it not the Communion?' &c., 1 Cor., x., 16. He supposed that the Body and Blood of Christ are communicated to us by the Bread and Wine in the Holy Eucharist. . . . And when St. Paul saith that ignorant and profane communicants 'do not discern the Lord's Body' in the Holy Eucharist, (1 Cor., xi., 29,) and that 'they are guilty of' (an indignity towards) 'the Body and Blood of our Lord,' ver. 27, he surely takes it for granted that the Body and Blood are actually there, whether they discern it or not. . . .

"I believe there is nothing that can more inflame and exalt the devotion of a sincere Christian, than to think and believe, that when he is praying at God's altar and receiving the Holy Eucharist, he has the price of his redemption in his hand, or lying before his eyes."—*Propitiatory Oblation*, p. 28, 101.

"The full and true notion of the Eucharist is, that it is a religious Feast upon Bread and Wine, that have been first offered in sacrifice to Almighty God, and are become the mysterious Body and Blood of Christ."—*Unbloody Sacrifice*, vol. ii., p. 18.

"It was the universal belief of the ancients, that, by the special presence of the Holy Spirit, the Bread and Wine were made the Body and Blood of Christ, in life and power, as they were before in figure or representation. As the natural Body of Christ was formed in the womb by the overshadowing of the Holy Ghost; so they expected, and prayed, that, by the operation of the same Spirit, the Bread and Wine might be made the Body and Blood, in a more effectual manner than they were, when offered to God as mere representatives: and it was their certain belief that the Bread thus consecrated by the secret influence of the Spirit, was the very Body of Christ in power, and energy, and to all intents and purposes of religion, and so far as it was possible for one thing to be made another, without change of substance. This was indeed no Article of their Creed, because the Creed was originally drawn not for communicants, but to be rehearsed by persons that were to be baptized, or their sureties. But it was an Article to which all communicants give their consent so oft as they received. For the Priest of old said, at the delivery of the Bread to every single communicant, 'The Body of Christ:' and every communicant answered, Amen; by which he was understood to give his consent to what the Priest said. And in the same manner they acknowledge the sacramental Wine to be the Blood of Christ. The primitive Church believed not any change of substance in the Sacrament. For they ever affirmed the Bread and Wine to remain after consecration; but that by the overshadowing of the Holy Ghost they were Christ's Body and Blood,

not only by way of type, or figure, but in real power and effect.

"And we are to observe that, in the institution, Christ says of the Bread, 'This is My Body;' of the Cup, or Wine, 'This is My Blood,' without adding any words to abate the signification of that expression. He calls the sacramental Bread My Flesh, five times in six verses in this chapter, from which I take my text, beginning at verse 51, ending at verse 56: nay, He calls it *My Flesh, which I will give for the life of the world*, verse 51. And it appears under this pledge of Bread he did actually offer His Body to the Father for the redemption of mankind. See sect. 6, and so on to the 9th, Discourse ii. And he calls the Cup, or Wine, *His Blood*, four times within the compass of four verses, beginning at the 53d, ending at the 56th. He knew full well what captious hearers he had, and that they were upon the point of deserting Him on this account; yet He does not forbear to speak the mystery, as that mystery deserved. St. Paul tells them that unworthily received the Sacrament, that they were '*guilty of the Body and Blood of the Lord*;' and the same Apostle says of the Cup, that it is '*the Communion of the Blood of Christ*;' and of the Bread, that it is '*the Communion of the Body of Christ*,' without any mollifying addition. We are not, therefore, to wonder that the primitive Church made this an Article of faith, though not of their Creed.

"And the consecrated bread and wine being thus, by the secret operation of the Holy Spirit, made the body and blood of Christ, did fully answer the characters which Christ gives us of His flesh and blood in this 6th chapter of St. John's Gospel."—*Primitive communicant*, p. 141-144.

"And I am firmly persuaded that this is the sum of what Christ teaches us in this chapter: and I cannot doubt of it when I consider, that this was the belief of all Christians in the first and purest ages.

"To believe this doctrine is, indeed, a 'work' or 'labour,' so our Saviour justly calls it. A great part of those who first heard it, could not be persuaded that it was possible for him, in any good sense, to give his flesh to be eat, his blood to be drank; or that, if He could, the benefit of eating and drinking them, could be so great as He had promised; therefore, *they went away, and walked no more with Him*, ver. 66. Christ foreknew what corrupt glosses men of latter ages would put upon his words, and how difficult it would be for private Christians to break through prejudices and mistakes, made current by the countenance and traditions of great men. And perhaps there is no one point in our religion that requires more labour and study, to be rightly informed in, at this day, than this of which I am now speaking; I mean, the true discerning of our Lord's Body in the Holy Sacrament, and the benefits promised to them who receive it, in the sixth Chapter of St. John's Gospel.—*Ibid.*, p. 176.

ARCHBISHOP SHARP.

"But what then? Do we not in the Sacrament truly partake of the Body and Blood of Christ? God forbid that any one should deny it. There is none that understands anything of the Sacrament but must acknowledge, that,

therein, to all worthy receivers, the Body and Blood of Christ is both given and likewise received by them. This is the sense of the Church of England, when she doth so often declare that she owns the Real Presence of Christ's Body and Blood to all that worthily receive the Sacrament.

"We do, indeed, own that Christ is really present in the Sacrament to all worthy receivers, and in our Communion Service we pray to God to grant that we may eat the flesh of His dear Son and drink his Blood, &c. All this we own, and it is very necessary we should."—*Sermon on Transubstantiation*, vol. vii.

LESLIE.

"Nor can the showbread in the temple be called the bread of our God so properly, so strictly, so eminently, as the Bread in the Holy Sacrament, which is the Body of Christ. . . . And does not, then, holiness and honour belong as much, at least, to the Evangelical Priesthood, who offer this Bread of our God, as the priests under the Law who set the showbread upon the holy table in the temple? And is not the one as properly the office of a priest as the other?"—*Regale and Pontificate*.—*Works*, vol. i., p. 665

BRETT.

"We may ask again, if it be not convenient, nay, necessary, that all those who partake of this holy Sacrament should understand and know what it is they do! Ought they not to be instructed in the nature and design of it, lest they eat and drink unworthily, not discerning the Lord's Body? And how shall they discern the Lord's Body, if they are not taught that the Lord's Body is here present?"—*Sermon on the Christian Altar and Sacrifice*, p. xii.

Verse 55. He says, *My flesh is meat indeed, and my Blood is drink indeed*. That Flesh and Blood of Mine which I but now promised you that *I will give for the life of the world*, is indeed true life-giving meat and drink. 'He that eateth My Flesh and drinketh My Blood dwelleth in Me and I in him.' He is in me as a member of my Mystical Body, and I in him by imparting to him of My life-giving Spirit. 'As the living Father sent Me, and I live by the Father, so he that eateth Me shall live by Me.' As the Father (see John, v., 26) hath life in himself which He received from no other, and has given to Me his Son to have life in Myself, so I will impart true life to him that feeds on Me. *This is that Bread which came down from Heaven; not as your fathers did eat manna and are dead: he that eateth of this Bread shall live forever*. The Bread which I purpose to give you is true heavenly Bread, not like that which was rained down in the wilderness, which though your fathers ate plentifully of it, yet they died in their sins; but this Bread shall cleanse you from sin, and by virtue of it those who feed upon it shall live forever. 'These things said He in the synagogue, as He taught in Capernaum. Many, therefore, of His disciples when they heard this, said, This is a hard saying, who can hear it?' Who can believe that we must become cannibals and feed upon this Man's Flesh and Blood? or without such feeding must be deprived of eternal life or happiness? 'When Jesus knew in Himself that His Disciples murmured at it, He said unto

them, Does this offend you? Do you stumble at this? Does the faith you have pretended to have now fail you? 'What and if ye shall see the Son of Man ascend up where He was before?' Will ye not then think the feeding on my Flesh more incredible than you do now? For how can you feed upon it when it is here no more? Therefore I will a little explain Myself and tell you that 'it is the Spirit that quickeneth, the flesh profiteth nothing:' bare flesh and blood without life and spirit in them can quicken or give life to nothing. 'The words that I speak unto you, they are Spirit and they are Life.' The promises that I have made you concerning giving you my Flesh and Blood to eat and drink, if you had attended to them, might have satisfied you that I spake of such Flesh and Blood as should have a quickening Spirit conveyed with them. For I plainly told you that as 'I live by the Father, so he that eateth Me shall live by Me.' I will quicken or give him life by My Spirit, that Spirit by which My Body lives, and whose quickening or life-giving virtue I will impart to that material thing which I shall make my Body and Blood, when I give this natural Body and Blood of Mine 'for the life of the world,' or the redemption of mankind. It is not Christ's doctrine that quickens and gives us life, but His Spirit, that Spirit which gave life to His own Body, and which together with His Body and Blood, or something which He dignifies with that name, which He has appointed to give us life. The Body and Blood, then, or Flesh and Blood, which, in this chapter, He promised to give (saying, 'My Flesh which I give') for our food which should nourish us unto eternal life, can be no other than that Bread and Wine which He gave when He instituted the Holy Eucharist or Lord's Supper, at which time he dignified them with the name and virtue of His Body and Blood. And so the Holy and most ancient Fathers (who lived nearest to the Apostles' days, and, therefore, best understood the Apostles' language and doctrine, consequently could best expound them) have interpreted this passage, as appears from St. Ignatius particularly, who, being the disciple of St. John who wrote the Gospel where alone this discourse of our Saviour is recorded, is to be preferred to all other expositors; and he tells us, as I have before observed, that the Holy Eucharist is the medicine of immortality, our antidote that we should not die, but live forever in Christ Jesus."—*Scripture Account of the Holy Eucharist*, p. 113.

"Now by comparing these words (the words of institution) of our Saviour which he spake when he communicated this Bread and Wine to his disciples, and called those elements His Body and Blood, with those He before spake in the sixth chapter of St. John, which I have already proved were spoken with relation to the Holy Eucharist; for in that chapter, ver. 51, 'The Bread that I will give is My Flesh, which I will give for the life of the world.' We may thus paraphrase them: 'you may remember some time ago when I taught in Capernaum, and the Jews there told me of their fathers' eating manna in the desert, which they called Bread from heaven, upon which I promised them, that if they would believe in Me, I would give them true bread from Heaven, which should nourish

them unto eternal life; and that this Bread was My own Flesh and Blood. They thought this a hard saying, thinking that I intended they should eat that natural flesh they then saw, and that natural Blood then and still in My veins. I did not then think it proper to explain Myself any farther to them than to tell them, that what I had said was to be understood in a spiritual sense, 'That it is the Spirit that quickeneth; the words that I speak unto you, they are Spirit and they are Life.' But now I will make good that promise to you; here is Bread and Wine, which I have now offered to God, and have blessed them with My Spirit, and thereby made them My Body and Blood in power and virtue. These I now give to you, eat the one and drink the other, and you shall receive all the benefits and blessings you then heard Me promise to those who should eat My Flesh and drink My Blood, 'I will raise you up at the last day, and you shall dwell in Me and I in you.' And that the Church of England, (to whose Book of Common Prayer this author gave his assent and consent, when he was first admitted to a cure of souls in London) believes the sixth chapter of St. John to relate to the Holy Eucharist, is plain, for it is upon the authority of that chapter only that she can say in her Exhortation to her communicants, that 'If with a true penitent heart and lively faith we receive that Holy Sacrament, then we spiritually eat the Flesh of Christ and drink his Blood, then we dwell in Christ and Christ in us, we are one with Christ and Christ with us:' for there is no other place of Scripture but the sixth chapter of St. John's Gospel where this doctrine is to be learned."—*Ibid.*, p. 137.

WHEATLEY.

"In these words of the Consecration Prayer, 'Hear us, O merciful Father,' &c., the sense of the former is still implied, and consequently by these the elements are now consecrated, and so become the Body and Blood of our Saviour, Christ."—c. iv., s. xxii., p. 301, Oxf. ed., 1819.

"A Real Presence of the Body and Blood of Christ in the Eucharist is what our Church frequently asserts in this very office of communion, in her Articles, in her Homilies and her Catechism; particularly in the two latter, in the first of which she tells us, 'Thus much we must be sure to hold, that in the Supper of the Lord there is no vain ceremony, no bare sign, no untrue figure of a thing absent—but the Communion of the Body and Blood of the Lord in a marvellous incorporation, which, by the operation of the Holy Ghost, is through faith wrought in the souls of the faithful, &c., who therefore, (as she farther instructs us in Catechism) verily and indeed take and receive the Body and Blood of Christ in the Lord's Supper. This is the doctrine of our Church in relation to the Real Presence in the Sacrament, entirely different from the doctrine of Transubstantiation, which she here, as well as elsewhere, disclaims.'"—*Ibid.*, s. xxxi., p. 330.

BISHOP WILSON.

"We offer unto thee, our King and our God, this Bread and this Cup.

"We give thee thanks for these and for all Thy mercies, beseeching Thee to send down

Thy Holy Spirit upon this sacrifice, that He may make this Bread and Body of thy Christ, and this Cup the Blood of thy Christ; and that all we, who are partakers thereof, may thereby obtain remission of our sins, and all other benefits of His Passion.

"And, together with us, remember, O God, for good, the whole mystical Body of thy Son: that such as are yet alive may finish their course with joy; and that we, with all such as are dead in the Lord, may rest in hope and rise in glory, for thy Son's sake, whose death we now commemorate. Amen.

"May I always receive the Holy Sacrament in the same meaning, intention, and blessed effect, with which Jesus Christ administered it to his Apostles in his last Supper."—*Sacra Privata*, p. 93, 94.

"If, therefore, he ask how often he should receive this Sacrament, he ought to have an answer in the words of an ancient writer: 'Receive it as often as you can, that the old serpent, seeing the blood of the true Paschal Lamb upon your lips, may tremble to approach you.'"—*Parochialia*, ed. 1840, p. 63.

GRABE.

"The English divines teach that, in the Holy Eucharist, the Body and Blood of Christ, under the species, that is, the signs of bread and wine, are offered to God, and become a representation of the Sacrifice of Christ once made upon the Cross, whereby God may be made propitious."—*Daniel Brevint, &c., Jeremy Taylor. M.S. Adversaria*, printed Tract, 81, p. 368.

BISHOP OF EXETER.

"When any of us speak of this great mystery in terms best suited to its spiritual nature; when, for instance, we speak of the real Presence of Christ's Body and Blood in the Holy Eucharist, there is raised a cry, as if we were symbolizing with the Church of Rome, and, as if this Presence, because it is real, can be nothing else than the gross, carnal, corporeal presence indicated in Transubstantiation. Now here, as with respect to Baptism, I will not argue the point, but will merely refer to the language of our Church, in those authorized declarations of its doctrine to which we have assented, and in those formularies which we have both expressly approved, and solemnly engaged to use.

"It is very true, that none of these declarations or formularies use the phrase 'real Presence;' and, therefore, if any should attempt to impose the use of that phrase as necessary, he would be justly open to censure for requiring what the Church does not require. But, on the other hand, if we adopt the phrase, as not only aptly expressing the doctrine of the Church, but also as commended to our use by the practice of the soundest divines of the Church of England, in an age more distinguished for depth, as well as soundness, of Theology than the present—such as Abp. Bramhall, Sharp, and Wake, (all of whom do not only express their own judgment, but also as witnesses of the general judgment of the Church in and before their days; 'No genuine son of the Church of England,' says Bramhall, 'did ever deny a true Presence;') if, I say, we adopt the phrase, used by such men as these, and even by those who, at

the Reformation, sealed with their blood their testimony to the Truth against the doctrine of Rome, (I allude especially to Bishops Ridley and Latimer—and even to Cranmer, who, when he avoided the phrase so abused by the Romanists, did yet employ equivalent words) it will be sufficient for the justification both of them and of us, to show, that the language of the Church itself does, in fact, express the same thing, though in different terms. Still, I fully admit, that Christian discretion would bid us forbear from the use of the phrase, if the objection to it were founded on a sincere apprehension of giving offence to tender consciences; and not, as there is too much reason to believe, on an aversion to the great truth which it is employed to express."—*Charge*, p. 69-71.

The following summary of the "Anglo-Catholic doctrine of the Eucharist" is added, not with any view of introducing the respected author into the controversy, but as extracted from a work which, since the publication of the first edition, has received the sanction of the most Reverend the Archbishops of Canterbury and Armagh, to whom it is, with permission, inscribed.

"This Catholic and Apostolic Church has always avoided any attempt to determine too minutely the mode of the true Presence in the Holy Eucharist. Guided by Scripture, she establishes only those truths which Scripture reveals, and leaves the subject in that mystery, with which God for His wise purposes has invested it. Her doctrine concerning the true Presence appears to be limited to the following points:

"Taking as her immovable foundation the words of Jesus Christ: 'This is My Body . . . This is My Blood, of the new Covenant;' and 'Whoso eateth My Flesh and drinketh My Blood hath eternal life;' she believes that the Body or Flesh, and the Blood of Jesus Christ, the Creator and Redeemer of the world, both God and man, united indivisibly in one Person, are verily and indeed given to, taken, eaten, and received by the faithful in the Lord's Supper, under the outward sign or form of Bread and Wine, which is, on this account, the 'partaking or communion of the Body and Blood of Christ.' She believes that the Eucharist is not the sign of an absent body, and that those who partake of it receive not merely the figure, or shadow, or sign of Christ's Body, but the reality itself. And as Christ's divine and human natures are inseparably united, so she believes that we receive in the Eucharist, not only the Flesh and Blood of Christ, but Christ himself, both God and man.

"Resting on these words, 'The Bread which we break, is it not the communion of the Body of Christ?' and again, 'I will not drink henceforth of this fruit of the Vine;' she holds that the nature of the Bread and Wine continues after consecration, and, therefore, rejects transubstantiation, or 'the change of the substance,' which supposes the nature of bread entirely to cease by consecration.

"As a necessary consequence of the preceding truths, and admonished by Christ Himself, 'It is the Spirit that quickeneth, the flesh prof-

iteth nothing; the words that I speak unto you they are Spirit and they are life,' she holds that the Presence (and therefore the eating) of Christ's Body and Blood, though true, is altogether 'heavenly and spiritual,' of a kind which is inexplicable by any carnal or earthly experience or imagination; even as the Sonship of the Eternal Word of God, and His Incarnation, and the Procession of the Holy Spirit, are immeasurable by human understandings.

"Believing according to the Scriptures, that Christ ascended in His natural Body into Heaven, and shall only come from thence at the end of the world; she rejects, for this reason, as well as the last, any such real Presence of Christ's Body and Blood as is 'corporeal' or organical, that is, according to the known and earthly mode of existence of a body.

"Resting on the Divine promise, 'Whoso eateth My Flesh and drinketh My Blood, hath eternal life,' she regards it as the more pious and probable opinion, that the wicked, those who are totally devoid of true and living faith, do not partake of the Holy Flesh of Christ in the Eucharist, God withdrawing from them so 'divine' a gift, and not permitting His enemies to partake of it. And hence she holds that such a faith is 'the means by which the Body of Christ is received and eaten,' 'a necessary instrument in all these holy ceremonies;' because it is the essential qualification on our parts, without which that Body is not received; and because 'without faith it is impossible to please God.'

"Following the example of our Lord Jesus Christ, and of the Apostles, and supported by their authority, she believes that "the blessing," or "consecration," of the Bread and Wine is not without effect, but that it operates a real change; for when the Sacrament is thus perfected, she regards it as so 'divine a thing,' so 'heavenly a food,' that we must not 'presume' to approach it with unprepared minds, and that sinners, although they only partake of the Bread and Wine, partake of them to their own condemnation, because they impiously disregard the Lord's Body, which is truly present in that Sacrament. Hence it is that the Church, believing firmly in the real Presence of the 'precious and blessed Body and Blood of our Saviour Je-

sus Christ,' speaks of the Eucharist as 'high and holy mysteries,' exhorts us to consider the 'dignity of that holy mystery,' that 'heavenly feast,' that 'holy table,' 'the banquet of that most heavenly food,' even 'the King of kings' table.'

"Such is the simple, the sublime, and, what is more, the true and scriptural doctrine of our Catholic and Apostolic Church—a doctrine which cannot be accused of heresy except from ignorance or uncharitableness. Even our adversaries are compelled sometimes, by the force of truth, to clear the Church of England from the imputation of disbelieving the sublime mysteries of this Holy Sacrament, and reducing it to a common spiritual exercise, in which the mind of the individual derives edification, and perhaps grace, from the contemplation and remembrance of an absent Redeemer's sufferings.

"Our doctrine leaves this subject in the sacred mystery with which God has enveloped it. It is not to be denied that the Roman doctrine of Transubstantiation facilitates the mental conception of that mystery; but it has the fatal defect of being opposed to the plain language of Scripture; and if those statements are to be explained away, and reduced to merely figurative expressions, according to the doctrine of Paschasius Radbertus and his school; the Berengerians, Zuinglians, and Socinians, may with reason claim a similar privilege of arbitrarily explaining away into figures the very passages in which the doctrine of the true presence itself is conveyed.

"The Roman doctrine of Transubstantiation is entirely founded on human reasoning, on the nature of bodies, and the supposed incompatibility of the scriptural statement that the Eucharist is Bread and Wine, literally understood, with the other expressions of Scripture. But what Bossuet has observed of the philosophical reasonings of the School of Zurich and Geneva against the real Presence, "que les recevoir en matiere de religion, c'est detruire non seulement le mystere de l'eucharistie, mais tout d'un coup tous les mysteres du Christianisme," is perfectly applicable to those of Romanists for their Transubstantiation."—*Palmer's Treatise on the Church*, vol. ii., p. 526–533.











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